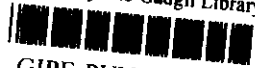
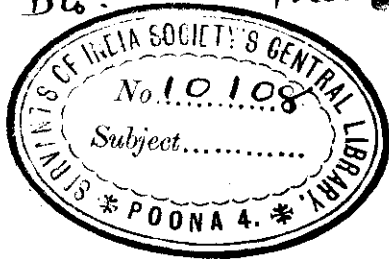


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Conditions of Industrial Labour in the Bombay Presidency.

INTRODUCTION.

This memorandum follows very closely the schedule of subjects falling within the terms of reference to the Royal Commission on Indian Labour, which was given in a "draft letter to prospective witnesses" sent to the Government of Bombay by the Government of India. Every endeavour has been made to furnish information on the 16 main heads and over 200 sub-heads. The most important omissions are those which relate to mines, railways and plantations. It is understood that the railway board are preparing a comprehensive statement and it was not thought necessary to incorporate matters specifically referring to railways in this memorandum, although there are various references to railways, incidental to the various subjects dealt with. The mining industry is a very small one in this Presidency, especially so far as underground workers are concerned, and it was not thought that the Government of Bombay could add very much to the information which is available with the Government of India, and will be obtained from those provinces where mining is an important industry, while the plantation system does not exist in the Bombay Presidency. Very little has been said also on the question of staff organization, and kindred subjects as those are matters on which no official information is available. The effect of various factors on industrial efficiency is another subject with which the memorandum deals very briefly.

The object of the memorandum has been to collate as much information as possible in the very short time available for the purpose. The information has, therefore, been derived from published reports of the labour office and other printed matter in the possession of the labour office, from unpublished data and from the personal knowledge of the staff of the labour office with the assistance, in several important sections, of the chief inspector of factories. There has been no time to institute any *ad hoc* enquiries on any of the points upon which information is required. No attempt has been made to give detailed opinions on the subjects dealt with and, where opinions are expressed, they are on matters which have already been the subject of discussion and examination.

Chapter I.—Recruitment.

*Origin of Labour—Extent of migration.*—In the absence of any recorded statistics regarding the actual number of persons who migrate from the villages to the towns in order to find employment, the only way in which a rough idea of the extent of migration can be obtained is on the basis of information regarding the birth-place of persons living and working in Bombay city. Such information is available in the census report of the Bombay Presidency for the year 1921. An attempt was made during the 1921 census to record immigration statistics by occupations but the data finally tabulated were so unsatisfactory that much reliance cannot be placed on them. The only available statistics, therefore, are those recorded for the whole population irrespective of its occupation. So far as Bombay city is concerned, as industrial workers form the bulk of the total population, it is believed that the figures for the whole population also hold good for industrial workers.

According to the census report for the year 1921, the percentage of the total population which had actually been born in Bombay has steadily declined at each census. The following figures are of interest in this connection :—

Percentage of persons born in Bombay to total population at each census.

1872	..	..	31.1	1901	..	..	23.4
1881	..	..	27.8	1911	..	..	19.6
1891	..	..	25.0	1921	..	..	16.0

In considering the figures for birthplace it should be remembered that, whenever possible, workers send their wives to their native places for confinement. Many of those returned in the census as having been born outside the city are not therefore fresh immigrants in the strictest sense of the term, because they are the offspring of parents already residing in the city.

According to the census report the population of Ahmedabad is made up as follows :—

Birthplace.	No. per 1,000.
Ahmedabad district .. .. .	603
Baroda State .. .. .	128
Rajputana .. .. .	73
Kathiawar .. .. .	54
Kaira district .. .. .	40
Mahi Kanta agency .. .. .	19
United Provinces .. .. .	17
Palanpur agency .. .. .	15
Surat district .. .. .	8
Broach district .. .. .	5
Bombay city .. .. .	4
Central provinces .. .. .	3
Punjab and Delhi .. .. .	3
Panch Mahals .. .. .	2
Other centres .. .. .	26

Certain figures regarding birthplaces of the workers in Ahmedabad were obtained during the family budget investigation conducted there by the labour office in the year 1926. These figures together with those obtained at the census of 1921 and enquiries made from mill officers and the labour union officials at Ahmedabad show that the cotton mill workers of Ahmedabad come from different places in the following proportion :—

Place of Origin.	Per cent.
Ahmedabad city .. .. .	20
Ahmedabad District (excluding city) .. .. .	25
Baroda State .. .. .	20
Rajputana (Marwar) .. .. .	10
Kathiawar .. .. .	5
Gujarat (excluding above) .. .. .	10
Deccan and Konkan .. .. .	5
Other places (including U.P., C.P., Madras, etc.) .. .. .	5

In Sholapur the labour force is mainly local and it is immigrant to a very small extent. The following figures regarding the birthplaces of cotton mill workers in Sholapur, which were obtained as a result of the family budget enquiry conducted by the labour office in the year 1925, are of interest :—

*Classification of Families by place of Birth.*

Place of Birth.	No. of family budgets.	Percentage to total.
Sholapur (city and district) .. .. .	545	60·4
Deccan (excluding Sholapur district) .. .. .	291	32·2
Karnatak .. .. .	34	3·8
South India .. .. .	26	2·9
Other places .. .. .	6	0·7
<b>Total</b> .. .. .	<b>902</b>	<b>100·0</b>

In the mines situated in the southern division of this Presidency local labour is not available and is generally imported from Belgaum, Dharwar, Bijapur, Poona and Bellary districts. In the mines and quarries situated in the northern division labour is imported from the districts of Jaipur and Ajmer in Rajputana, from Katni in the central provinces, and from Raichur, Kathiawar and Khandesh.

*Causes of particular Streams of Migration and Changes in recent Years.*—The following tables shows the number of immigrants in Bombay city from the more important districts of origin during the period 1881 to 1921 :—

*Actual Numbers of Immigrants into Bombay City from the more important districts of origin, 1881-1921.*

Birth-place.	1881.	1891.	1901.	1911.	1921.
Ahmedabad.. .. .	7,004	9,439	9,594	16,298	17,557
Surat .. .. .	35,803	29,940	25,097	35,072	39,682
Thana (including the Bombay Suburban district). Kolaba .. .. .	17,051	15,128	10,557	15,705	14,797
Ratnagiri .. .. .	11,506	28,851	21,100	37,119	43,180
Ratnagiri .. .. .	126,190	162,586	145,835	216,060	235,566 ✓
Nasik .. .. .	7,142	6,352	7,939	9,863	24,451
Ahmednagar .. .. .	8,274	9,543	15,100	14,611	48,501
Poona .. .. .	69,004	54,543	64,791	71,185	89,231 ✓
Sholapur .. .. .	8,749	4,420	8,812	8,528	11,816
Satara .. .. .	45,404	37,864	60,387	56,754	65,953
Cutch .. .. .	45,333	38,000	28,179	36,470	37,480
Kathiawar .. .. .	32,568	39,050	45,531	58,775	72,435
Kolhapur .. .. .	4,220	4,248	5,993	9,309	9,261
Baroda .. .. .	3,906	8,857	5,625	4,501	6,349
Hyderabad State .. .. .	8,525	9,518	7,431	9,302	19,602
Madras .. .. .	6,075	6,276	6,005	8,278	15,156
Rajputana .. .. .	9,381	12,907	10,461	12,453	19,722
Punjab (including Delhi) .. .. .	2,429	6,572	6,116	8,616	10,425
United Provinces .. .. .	—	—	—	50,682	70,911
Oudh .. .. .	8,722	8,831	6,043	—	—
Upper India .. .. .	—	15,393	—	—	—
North-West Frontier Province(s) .. .. .	2,227	16,653	29,681	1,101	2,273
Central Provinces and Berar .. .. .	2,391	1,950	4,390	3,843	5,046
Central India Agency .. .. .	2,088	2,966	2,407	4,005	3,360
Portuguese and French possessions in India.	21,938	21,399	18,794	32,106	34,111

It will be seen from the above table that the bulk of the immigrants in Bombay comes from the Ratnagiri district. Other places which are next in order of importance are Poona, Kathiawar, United Provinces and Satara.

Without making elaborate enquiries into the matter, it is difficult to assign causes of particular streams of migration, but it would appear that emigration on a large scale takes place from such places as have either a population which they are

unable to support owing to the limited amount of land available for cultivation, absence of any industrial towns close by or constant failure of the rains. The higher wages paid in the city as compared to agricultural wages is also one of the causes of migration.

As regards changes in recent years in the streams of migration, the following table, which shows the proportionate numbers of immigrants from the more important districts into Bombay city at each census, is of interest :—

*Proportionate Numbers of Immigrants from the more important districts into Bombay city at each Census, taking the 1881 figure in each case as 100.*

District.	1881.	1891.	1901.	1911.	1921.
Ahmedabad.. .. .	100	135	137	233	251
Surat .. .. .	100	84	70	98	111
Thana .. .. .	100	84	59	87	82
Kolaba .. .. .	100	225	184	323	375
Ratnagiri .. .. .	100	129	116	172	187
Nasik .. .. .	100	89	111	138	344
Ahmednagar .. .. .	100	115	183	177	586
Poona .. .. .	100	79	94	103	129
Sholapur .. .. .	100	51	101	98	135
Satara .. .. .	100	83	133	125	145
Cutch .. .. .	100	84	62	81	83
Kathiawar .. .. .	100	120	140	180	221
Kolhapur .. .. .	100	100	142	221	220
Baroda .. .. .	100	224	144	115	162
Hyderabad State .. .. .	100	112	87	109	230
Madras .. .. .	100	136	99	136	250
Rajputana .. .. .	100	138	112	133	210
Punjab and Delhi .. .. .	100	270	257	355	429
North India* .. .. .	100	375	329	475	671
Central Provinces .. .. .	100	82	182	161	211
Central India Agency .. .. .	100	142	115	194	161
French and Portuguese possessions	100	98	86	147	156

\* Including the North-West Frontier Province and the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

It will be seen from this table that Thana was already supplying Bombay with as large a stream of immigrants as was likely to be attracted thither as early as 1881 and probably earlier, and the same is true of Cutch. Poona has always been a great source of immigration but the stream has increased only slightly since 1881. The same applies to Surat. The Baroda stream is not as large now as in 1891, as such persons as desire to work in factories find it more convenient to go to Ahmedabad.

The stream from Ahmednagar and Nasik showed a sudden increase at the census of 1921. The most important growth is in the stream from the Punjab and the North India.

As regards Ahmedabad city, workers in Ahmedabad district usually leave their villages and come to the city because of the attraction of higher wages, amenities of city life and the absence of a suitable secondary occupation for indebted agriculturists. Landless labourers, such as Dheds, and handloom weavers like Vankars, have come in large numbers to the city as they could not earn their livelihood by the products of their handlooms, owing to the competition of factories. The Vankars have taken to spinning in the mills. They are regarded as untouchables and cannot, therefore, work with the higher caste people in the weaving departments. Patidar weavers come to the city in order to supplement their agricultural income. The high proportion of immigrants from Baroda state is due to the proximity of the state to the Ahmedabad district. Moreover, labour conditions in Ahmedabad are better than in Baroda because of shorter hours of work and legislation regarding workmen's compensation, etc. The industrial backwardness and poverty of the soil of Rajputana, Marwar and Kathiawar, and the economic backwardness of some of the petty Native States are to some extent responsible for migration of labour to Ahmedabad. Some Deccani and Konkani labour is permanently settled in Ahmedabad. The immigration from the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and Madras is due to the fact that these provinces are not as industrially advanced as the Bombay Presidency, and those going to Bombay in search of employment when they fail to get it there come to Ahmedabad to secure a job. The immigrants from Jubbulpore are said to be handloom weavers who have lost their occupation because of their inability to compete with machine-made goods.

There have been considerable changes in the stream of immigration in Ahmedabad in recent years because of the higher wages after the war, and shorter hours of work after 1920, when the 10-hour day was introduced into Ahmedabad. More labour has poured into Ahmedabad since then from Marwar, Kathiawar and the surrounding districts.

*Contact with Villages—Extent and frequency of return.*—The workers in Bombay city are in close contact with the villages from which they come. Those hailing from the neighbouring districts of the city, who either own landed property or whose families have rented land, go to their villages every year before the setting in of the monsoon and return soon after the rains are over. In the months of April and May, therefore, there is a regular exodus, mostly to the Konkan. Workers who do not own lands or have not rented fields for cultivation usually go once a year either for the *Shimra* holidays or during the *Dusse* holidays. Workers coming from the Ghats generally go to their native places during the *Nawra* holidays. Those coming from distant parts of the country, such as Northern India and the United Provinces, go once in two or three years and stay at their native places for three to four months at a time.

Besides merely going for a holiday or for cultivation of fields, it is usual for the working classes in Bombay to go to their native places when they fall ill. They also go back to their villages in large numbers when an epidemic breaks out in the city and during strikes of long duration. Married women workers coming from the adjoining districts to the city usually go to their native places for confinement.

The Goan seamen in Bombay usually proceed to their villages for a holiday of three to six months' duration after working for two or three years.

As regards Ahmedabad, labour coming from the city itself has no contact with villages at all. About 2 per cent. of the people go to work daily from neighbouring villages within a radius of three miles. Those coming from the villages nearby go there almost on every holiday. Visits to villages are frequent, especially during the marriage season (April, May and December), the sowing (July and August), and the harvesting (December and January) seasons. Marwari workers in Ahmedabad go to their villages during the *holi* holidays. Many people go to their villages only once a year. Workers coming from distant places like the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and Madras, etc., go once in two or three years only and are absent for more than a month.

*Extent of Permanent Labour Force.*—It is difficult to give any statistical measurement of the permanent labour force in the industrial cities of the Bombay Presidency. But the permanence or otherwise of any stream of migration is ordinarily indicated by the sex ratios. In the Presidency as a whole the sex ratio is 919 females to 1,000 males. In Bombay city as a whole the ratio of females to 1,000 males is 525. In

the Bombay-born population of Bombay city it is much higher, namely, 785. The following are the other ratios as given in the census report for the year 1921 :—

*Ratio of Females to 1,000 males in each stream of Immigrants from the more important regions of birth.*

Bombay population as a whole .. .. .	525
Birth-place.	
Bombay city .. .. .	785
Ahmednagar .. .. .	785
Nasik .. .. .	765
Poona .. .. .	716
Kolaba .. .. .	600
Cutch .. .. .	580
Hyderabad Deccan .. .. .	543
Thana and Bombay suburban district, .. .. .	535
Kathiawar .. .. .	532
Ratnagiri .. .. .	526
Satara .. .. .	471
Surat .. .. .	419
French and Portuguese possessions in India .. .. .	411
Punjab, Delhi and the North-West Frontier Province	199
United Provinces .. .. .	167
Rajputana .. .. .	154
Europe .. .. .	264
Other Asiatic countries .. .. .	206

The census superintendent points out in this connection that the Ahmednagar and Nasik immigrants have brought their wives and children with them. In his opinion this may be due to either of two causes, viz. (1) that they have come to settle permanently or (2) that conditions were so bad in their villages that they had no option. The figure of 525 for Bombay city may be compared with that for the big non-industrial city of Poona, where the figure is 912.

Sex ratios, is, however, only one of the tests which can be applied to find out the extent of the permanent labour force. If by permanent labour force is meant workers who have permanently settled in the city, who follow industrial or other occupations and have lost all contact with their villages, there is very little permanent labour force in the city. Such a rigid test cannot, however, be applied to Indian workers owing to their peculiar social and economic organization. India has been and still remains a land of villages, and an Indian worker who is brought up in his village is much more attached to it than to the city in which he works. Besides this, the prevalence of the joint family system adds to the difficulties of the industrial cities having a permanent labour force in the sense in which the term is understood in western countries. The joint family system imposes upon the individual more duties and obligations towards more distant relatives than in a society where such a system does not prevail. Only a few members of a family migrate to the towns. The family itself remains domiciled in the mofussil and the centre of the family life is there, so that the women folk return to it to bear their children; the men folk when old age or disability comes to them, or when death causes a vacancy in the agricultural workers of the family. So far as the Bombay textile workers are concerned it may be said that although they maintain a very close and living contact with their villages, the bulk of them are permanent in the sense that they are not merely birds of passage but continue to work in the industry for a considerable period of time once they join it.

The following figures show the sex distribution in Ahmedabad during the period 1881 to 1921 :—

*Number of Females per 1,000 Males.*

1881 .. .. .	1,010	1911 .. .. .	848
1891 .. .. .	937	1921 .. .. .	765
1901 .. .. .	919		

These figures although they show the rapid industrialization of the city point also to the less immigrant character of Ahmedabad labour as compared with Bombay.

It has been pointed out already that only about 20 per cent. of the labourers in Ahmedabad come from the city proper. This class consists mostly of landless Muhammadan weavers and some Dhed spinners who have settled in Ahmedabad for many generations. But it cannot be said that the remaining immigrant labour is purely migratory. Once the workers come to Ahmedabad they try to stick to their jobs and seldom, if ever, return to their villages for good. They no doubt go to their villages for short or long periods but do not fail to return. Moreover, when workers go to their villages many of them try to employ their own substitutes in order

to be sure of getting their machines when they return. And it might be said that a very large majority of the labour force in Ahmedabad is permanent, although workers without any connection with villages form about only 20 per cent. of the working class population.

*Methods of Recruitment.—Existing methods and possible improvement.*—The Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) which submitted its report in 1927 inquired into the question of recruitment of labour and made the following observations :—

“ It was urged, in evidence before us, that the system of recruitment of labour in Bombay leaves much to be desired and does not tend to efficiency, as it places too much power in the hands of the jobber or foreman who recruits not necessarily the most efficient man, but the one who is willing to pay him the largest commission, or in whom he is otherwise interested. The Millowners' Association, on the other hand, whilst admitting that the present system furnishes openings for corruption hold that it is the only possible system in Bombay conditions, as the jobber is in touch with labour to an extent that no official of the mill can possibly be and that it does not necessarily follow that because a jobber produces men, they are engaged by the mill. They further contend that it is not always possible for all vacancies to be filled from the applicants waiting at the mill gates for employment and that, when this is the case, the only course open is to send out jobbers to the homes of the operatives to collect men. This should, however, only be necessary in abnormal conditions. We are of opinion that the present system is undoubtedly open to the objection that it places too much power in the hands of the jobber and that it is desirable that all labour should be engaged directly by the officer of the mill in charge of the department which requires it or by a responsible assistant. This we were told was the practice in Ahmedabad and in most of the up-country centres we visited, and we see no reason why it should not be followed in Bombay. It will be obvious that the acceptance of the recommendation we have made in paragraph 60 above in regard to the maintenance of a reserve to provide for absenteeism would reduce the amount of casual labour required to a minimum.”

Since the publication of the Report of the Tariff Board, however, it appears that the Bombay Millowners' Association has been endeavouring to improve the method of recruitment. In this connection the following extract from the statement submitted by the Bombay Millowners' Association to the Fawcett Committee is of interest :—

“ A special enquiry has been made by the Association since the publication of the Tariff Board Report with a view to ascertaining the exact practice in regard to recruitment of labour and the results definitely prove that the practice of direct recruitment is making rapid strides throughout the Bombay mill industry and this movement is receiving every encouragement from the Association and from the management of individual mills. The days when the jobber had almost complete power over the labour force working under him in the mills and the management had perforce to accept whatever labour the jobber thought fit to bring, are fast coming to a close owing to the growth of a more independent spirit among the workers. The enquiry just completed has shown that so far as the daily replacement of absentees is concerned, operatives as a rule are not finally engaged by the jobber. They may, it is true, be brought to the mills by the jobbers, but even this practice is becoming more rare and it is now the more general rule for the jobber to obtain replacements for his absentees from the applicants for work who daily attend at the mills. Whatever the method adopted by the jobber to obtain the workpeople necessary for replacing absentees, the final selection and appointments are made by the heads of the departments concerned, and in many mills even the preliminary assembling of applicants for replacements of casual vacancies is conducted by the heads of departments and not by jobbers.

“ There may in the future still be occasions when, owing to an extraordinary shortage, jobbers will be still required to recruit labour, but these revivals of the power of the jobbers are likely to be temporary and infrequent.

“ The mill-owners have always strongly discountenanced the practice of extorting commission from workpeople by jobbers, and where charges of this nature are substantiated, the most severe disciplinary action is taken against the jobbers concerned.”

Recent enquiries made by the labour office in this respect show that although it is true that the mill authorities are endeavouring to put down corruption among the jobbers, the powers of the latter are still as great as formerly, and that the method of recruitment is still substantially the same as when the tariff board submitted its report.

That the system leads to intensive “ graft ” is indisputable and both the jobbers and their female counterparts, the *naikins*, levy contributions from the workers. The hold that jobbers have over the workers is shown by the fact that if a jobber is

dismissed he almost invariably takes a certain number of men with him and the number of small departmental strikes attributed to "dismissal of a jobber" is surprisingly large.

In the textile mills at Ahmedabad, labour is recruited through jobbers and mukadams, one of whose main functions is to see that the machines under their supervision are worked with full complements. Before 1923, some shortage of labour used to be felt in mills. At that time jobbers and mukadams used to offer some inducements to labourers to work under them. These inducements usually took the form of giving tea or some cold drink to the labourers and the mills used to defray these expenses. Sometimes labourers working in other mills used to be brought in and compensated for the forfeiture of their wages in the mills in which they were working. This amount was also paid by the mills. Jobbers used to advance small sums of money to the labourers in order to induce them to continue to serve under them. However, the position now is the reverse of this. The supply of labour is plentiful and so labourers have to hunt for jobs. They go to the jobbers' houses or present themselves at the mill gates early in the morning, inquiring whether there are vacancies. The jobbers and mukadams are notoriously corrupt and do not hesitate to extort bribes. Something has to be paid at the time of entering service and on the first and every subsequent pay day in order to keep the jobber in good humour. Recently, at the instance of the labour union, about two dozen jobbers and one spinning master have been dismissed for corruption, and this has had some effect on other jobbers. As a result of the persistent propaganda of the labour union, the workers are also becoming more and more conscious of their rights with the result that in recent years corruption has to some extent decreased.

It is of interest to point out here that the mill jobbers recruit Dhed boys from neighbouring villages and enter into contracts with their parents to pay them about Rs. 30 per annum and feed, clothe, and house the boys in return for their earnings. In the case of grown-up boys who can work full time the amount offered per annum varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 125. The contract is generally entered into for two or three years.

A similar system to that obtaining in the mill industry exists amongst labourers employed in the docks. The firms of stevedores do not engage their men themselves. They select foremen known as mukadams or tindals, each of whom collects a gang usually of nine men. The money paid for the work done is given to the tindal or mukadam and not to the individual workers and it is quite open to the tindal to pay the men as small a sum as they will accept. The latter also endeavours to increase his own remuneration by putting fewer men into the gang than the employer is paying for.

Speaking generally, this system of paying something to the foreman exists wherever large bodies of labour are employed. It is to some extent connected with the fact that industrial labour still continues, although to a less degree than formerly, to be recruited from outside the city. Young men or older men who have been out of the industry for some time come to Bombay and take up their quarters, either with a relative, or with someone from the same village. These people are usually associated with a jobber or mukadam from the same part of the country, and he helps to keep the new comer until he can be found a job, charging, of course, something for his services. Some of these jobbers and mukadams therefore tend to have a position which is something analogous to that of the Patil or Headman of a village. In the case of Kanarese speaking labourers from the south of the Presidency and the Nizam's dominions, the experience of the commissioner for workmen's compensation suggests that their mukadam is a very important factor in their lives. While, therefore, the system of recruiting labour leads to corruption or worse, it has its beneficial aspects. The evils, however, outweigh the benefits, but it is not easy to suggest a system to replace it because the peculiar social organization of the workers and the attitude of mind of many Indians of higher intelligence than mill hands to expect to pay for favours received makes any radical change difficult to undertake. It appears to the Government of Bombay that well organized trade unions could do much to put down the nuisance by impressing on the men their rights and by taking up every case of corruption which is brought to their notice. It has been suggested that if the jobbers were recruited from a better educated class, corruption would be diminished and recruitment made on a fairer basis. The only solution appears to be better educated workers and heads of departments, determined to stop corruption even if for the time being it leads to less efficiency. The most important of all perhaps, is that labour should be organized and that unions should not accept jobbers as members. These could very well form a union of their own, which would be a valuable addition to organized labour within the industry, but they should not be associated with unions primarily intended to further the interests of the men, and one of these interests is directly opposed to the interests of the jobber.



*Desirability of Establishing Public Employment Agencies.*—The Government of Bombay are not in a position to express any considered opinion on the question of the desirability of establishing public employment agencies, either as a method of dealing with unemployment or as an alternative to the existing system of recruitment. It is understood that the question is already under the consideration of the Government of India, and it would be premature, therefore, for the Government of Bombay to express any opinion on the subject. Owing to the prevailing financial stringency the Government of Bombay would not in any case be in a position to start public employment exchanges. Moreover, these depend for success on the close co-operation of the organizations of the masters on the one hand, and the organizations of the men on the other and there is no reason to believe that this would be forthcoming. Besides this, the Government of Bombay are not aware of there being any serious demand on the part of the public for starting such agencies. It is often forgotten that employment exchanges cannot create employment. Their function is so to regulate the supply of labour that no job remains unfilled for want of men. This involves a willingness on the part of labour to go anywhere when a job is vacant. It is very doubtful if the workers themselves would accept such a system. If the exchanges are intended as recruitment offices then it appears to the Government of Bombay that the industries themselves should first take up this work before asking for Government intervention.

A special recruiting officer has recently been appointed in the office of the shipping master at the instance of the unions and the Government of Bombay will watch with interest the effect of the experiment.

In this connection it might be pointed out that it is understood that the labour union at Ahmedabad has under contemplation the establishment of a labour exchange, under the joint management of the labour union and the millowners' association. The details of the scheme have not yet been worked out, but it is reported that the scheme, when finally evolved, is likely to meet with the approval of the millowners' association.

*Extent and Effects of Disturbance of Family Life.*—The industrial worker when he first leaves his village to take up employment in the cities usually goes alone although he may be married. He does not bring his family until either he has settled down or his wife has become old enough to look after the house. In the meanwhile he lives as a boarder in some family and is exposed to all the temptations of the life of a great city. Social workers will no doubt be able to give some estimate as to the effect of urban life on the rural immigrant and its relation to his physical and moral well-being. It is not a subject on which the Government have made specific enquiries.

Another important question is of the effect of women's work in factories on the family life of industrial workers. Owing to the system of early marriage, the majority of women employed in factories in this Presidency are married. Factory work, therefore, entails upon them a double responsibility, viz., looking after the home and the children, and work in factories. It is a common practice in the cities of this Presidency for women workers to administer opium to their children in order to lull them to sleep when they are away at their work. Sometimes the children are handed over to neighbours to look after in consideration of a small amount. Occasionally a child of school-going age is entrusted with the care of little children, and this interferes with his schooling. The investigations made by the lady doctor appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into the question of maternity benefits, whose report was published in the September, 1922, issue of the *Labour Gazette*, showed that opium is given to 98 per cent. of the children of factory workers. The family budget enquiries made by the Labour Office in Ahmedabad and Sholapur, also suggest that opium is administered to children both in Sholapur and Ahmedabad.

*Recruitment of Seamen—Existing practice and the effects of changes introduced in Calcutta.*—The P. & O. S. N. Company and the B. I. S. N. Company and one or two smaller companies recruit their own seamen. In the case of the other companies recruitment is made through the Shipping Office. A special officer for the recruitment of seamen has recently been appointed and has taken over charge of his new duties as from the 1st July. He keeps a register of the leading hands in each department, i.e., deck and engine-room serangs and butlers, and sees that they are given an opportunity for selection by rotation, that is, according to the time each man has been out of employment. The actual selection, however, lies with the shipping companies and their officers who maintain the right of selection independently of the above rotation. The serangs and butlers, when selected, usually bring the men who are to work under them subject to the approval of the selecting officer. If the serang or butler is unable to make up the full complement of the crew, the men are obtained with the aid of the licensed shipping brokers.

The effect of the changes introduced in Calcutta is not known.

*Unemployment—Extent and character.*—As there is no organization in this Presidency, nor in India, which maintains unemployment records, it is impossible to describe statistically the extent and character of industrial unemployment. Unemployment figures in England and elsewhere are derived from the Trade Unions or from the Employment Exchanges. No such sources are available in India. Any opinions expressed on this subject therefore have no statistical foundation and are merely inferences drawn from conditions or circumstances. For example, the disturbed condition of the cotton mill industry in Bombay City during the last few years, due to strikes and poor trade, must have caused a certain amount of unemployment quite apart from the participants in the strike itself. But apart from these circumstances there does exist a certain amount of unemployment among those desirous of working in the textile industry. It is not possible to state the numbers of those unemployed but it was by no means rare for the lady investigators of the Bombay Labour Office during their house to house visits in connection with social and economic enquiries, to come across persons who were unable to find employment. In any industrial city, even in prosperous times, there is always a labour reserve or labour pool consisting of persons who have no regular job, and it is particularly noticeable in Bombay, where absenteeism is fairly high and where the "badli," or substitute system, is a feature of the labour market. It is only when the reserve becomes unduly large that its existence creates an unemployment problem. The conclusion reached by the Fawcett Committee was that the general strike of last year was largely due to the fear of unemployment owing to the introduction of the standardization and efficiency schemes which it was estimated would mean a reduction of approximately 13,000 operatives. In this connection the following figures are of interest :—

Year.						Average daily number of persons employed in cotton spinning and weaving mills in Bombay City.
1921	..	..	..	..	..	146,300
1922	..	..	..	..	..	151,241
1923	..	..	..	..	..	144,676
1924	..	..	..	..	..	144,547
1925	..	..	..	..	..	146,244
1926	..	..	..	..	..	148,254
1927	..	..	..	..	..	145,005

It will be clear from the above figures that in spite of the growth in population (and incidentally in the supply of labour) the demand for labour has not kept pace with the supply.

In Ahmedabad, new cotton mills are being erected and there is considerable activity in the cotton mill industry. About half a dozen mills are working a night shift and consequently, instead of there being any unemployment among cotton mill workers, there is actually a slight shortage of weavers. In the engineering departments of the mills, however, the supply of fitters, carpenters, etc., is somewhat in excess of the demand, and there is also a certain amount of unemployment among casual workers. But it can safely be said that in Ahmedabad and in Sholapur unemployment does not exist to any appreciable extent. As has been pointed out by the tariff board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), the depression has not affected the up-country centres as it has the Bombay industry. In fact, Ahmedbad has been finding more and more employment for labour every year. In the case of the Sholapur textile industry also demand for labour seems to be growing, though at a smaller pace than in Ahmedabad. The following figures regarding the number of persons employed in the Ahmedabad and Sholapur mills are of interest :—

Year.						Average daily number of persons employed in cotton spinning and weaving mills in	
						Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.
1921	..	..	..	..	..	54,654	18,355
1922	..	..	..	..	..	54,761	16,830
1923	..	..	..	..	..	54,473	17,322
1924	..	..	..	..	..	53,162	17,816
1925	..	..	..	..	..	56,378	18,416
1926	..	..	..	..	..	57,723	19,263
1927	..	..	..	..	..	59,716	19,587

As regards cotton gins and presses in the Presidency, it would appear that the number of persons employed in this industry during the last few years has tended to increase. In 1925 the number of workers was 44,387, in 1926, 47,457, and in 1927, 46,535. But this is essentially a seasonal industry, both in the sense that it only provides work during certain periods of the year and also that it is dependent on the size of the cotton crop.

As regards seamen, opinions differ as to the intensity of unemployment, and also as to its nature. The Indian Seamen's Union contend that it is serious and their opinion is supported by an enquiry made by the Social Service League. The shipping master estimates an annual average demand of 31,118 seamen, but as approximately 7,000 re-engage three times a year, only 10,118 are actually required. He puts the total available supply of men at 26,460, which gives a total of 16,342 unemployed. This is a formidable total. According to the shipping master, 55 per cent. represent recently discharged and newly registered men awaiting employment, and 15 per cent. are men temporarily recruited during the war who still try to obtain work as seamen. The shipping master estimates that 10 per cent. of the men abandon the sea every year for a number of years and 5 per cent. for work on the land during part of the year. Five per cent. are men of bad character, the same percentage are unfit, and the remaining 5 per cent. are accounted for by the refusal of one line to employ Bombay men.

*Application of International Conventions relating to unemployment.*—As regards the application of International Conventions relating to unemployment, in the short time at their disposal, the Government of Bombay are not in a position to formulate any conclusions. They would, however, like to draw the attention of the Commission to a tentative scheme for dealing with unemployment suggested by the Fawcett Committee which enquired into the causes, etc., of the general strike last year in the textile mills and which published its report early this year. The Committee refer to the unemployment likely to result from the policy of "rationalisation" and in order to reduce the consequent hardship have made the following suggestion: "The Millowners' Association should consider the feasibility of a scheme for the payment of a gratuity to a worker, which may amount to say, four weeks' or six weeks' wages according to his length of service, payable in suitable cases of discharged employees who may need help during the waiting period while they are seeking employment. With this view, we suggest the formation of what we may call an 'Out of work Donation Fund' on a voluntary basis, to be created by a system of setting aside a contribution by the millowners of one anna per operative per month (which means virtually a contribution from the shareholders), to which fund the operatives, through their representatives, should be invited to contribute one anna or at least half-anna per head per month. As there are about 150,000 operatives in the textile trade in Bombay, we expect this will yield on the one anna basis about Rs. 18,750 per month, i.e., Rs. 2,25,000 per year, or in the case of the half-anna basis about Rs. 14,000 per month, or Rs. 1,68,000 per year. We have reason to believe that such a small contribution will not be felt a burden in the case of the workers, especially by the weavers, whose wages are about Rs. 50 per month. This fund could be administered in consultation with the labour leaders through the joint committee to be set up, or through a separate committee if necessary for this special purpose. Rules for the administration of this fund can be framed by the committee, and the position reviewed from time to time as 'Rationalisation' proceeds."

Neither rationalisation nor standardisation has yet been introduced in the textile industry in Bombay City and the Government of Bombay has no information in its possession to suggest that unemployment exists amongst industrial workers to any serious extent. Certainly there is nothing like an unemployment problem amongst such workers.

*Labour "Turnover."*—*Average duration of employment and extent of casual employment.*—The information on this subject is somewhat scanty. It is therefore difficult to discuss at any length the question of the average duration of employment and the extent of casual employment in the various industrial centres of the Bombay Presidency. The charge is very often levelled at the cotton mill workers, especially those working in Bombay City, that owing to their migratory character there is a great deal of absenteeism resulting in loss of efficiency and that the workers change their mills from time to time. The question of absenteeism received the attention of the Indian Tariff Board (cotton textile industry enquiry) and it was urged in evidence before them that the efficiency of labour in Bombay was greatly reduced by the high percentage of absenteeism among the operatives. The Board came to the conclusion, on the basis of the absenteeism statistics supplied by the labour office, that Ahmedabad had a great advantage over Bombay in the matter of absenteeism both in respect of a low rate throughout the year and also of the absence of the wide seasonal variations which were apparent in other centres. They therefore recommended that in order to minimise the effect of absenteeism there

should be a general adoption of a system, already in force in a few mills in Bombay, under which a certain number of spare hands are entertained in each department except the weaving. They said "The percentage of extra men in each department is not necessarily the same, but we were given to understand that, spread over the whole of the mill, it usually worked out at about 10 per cent. The spare men are borne on the pay roll and receive their wages even if the full complement of workers in their departments is present. It may thus occasionally happen that the number of men on the pay roll for a particular day may be in excess of the labour force necessary for the efficient working of the mill, but the figures for absenteeism seem to indicate that this is seldom the case since the absenteeism generally exceeds 10 per cent. In any event, any loss to the mill on this account should be much more than made up by a gain in efficiency for it will be obvious that men who are already employed in the mill and are familiar with its conditions and machinery must be of greater use than men casually recruited on the day for which their services are required. We consider the general adoption of this system most desirable. It would, moreover, facilitate the grant of leave to operatives on a regular system such as we found in force in a mill in Madras."

It is understood that this recommendation has not been adopted in the mill industry.

There are three sources from which information can be obtained on the question of labour turnover. These are: (1) the monthly absenteeism statistics published by the Bombay Labour Office, (2) the results of the wage census conducted by the labour office in the year 1926, and (3) the results of an enquiry, conducted by the labour office in the year 1927-28, into the length of service of mill operatives in Bombay City. As is pointed out in the section dealing with "Intelligence," the monthly absenteeism statistics may not be strictly accurate owing to possible variations in the filling up of returns, because all mills do not follow a uniform practice with regard to marking absentees. The statistics obtained as a result of the wage census of 1926, however, are quite accurate and these show that in Bombay City absenteeism for all workpeople in the textile mills comes to 8.26 per cent. It is 4.35 per cent. in the case of weavers, 7.13 per cent. in the case of all male operatives (including weavers), and 11.86 per cent. in the case of women. In Ahmedabad the percentage absenteeism amongst all workpeople (men and women) comes to 7.90, being 10.76 per cent. for weavers, 8.04 per cent. for men (including weavers), and 7.40 per cent. for women. Absenteeism in Sholapur is the highest in the Presidency being 12.19 per cent. for all workpeople (including men and women), 15.07 per cent. for weavers, 12.49 per cent. for men (including weavers) and 10.81 per cent. for women workers only. The figures given above for Ahmedabad and Sholapur are provisional and subject to correction.

The following table based on data collected by the labour office in the course of an enquiry into the length of service of Bombay mill operatives may be of interest in connection with the question of the average duration of employment of cotton mill workers in Bombay City:—

*Analysis of Workers according to the length of Service and number of Mills in which service has been spent.*

Approximate period of total service in years.	Number of cases in which the following number of mills were served.								Total	Percentage to total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 and over.		
Below 5 ..	341	104	41	14	6	—	—	—	506	37.54
5-10 ..	132	82	47	39	6	6	2	1	315	23.37
10-15 ..	58	53	47	23	19	8	4	2	214	15.88
15-20 ..	42	18	18	14	11	12	5	3	123	9.13
20-25 ..	31	18	9	12	11	4	2	—	87	6.45
25-30 ..	18	6	5	4	6	1	2	4	46	3.41
30-35 ..	10	3	3	1	4	1	2	1	25	1.85
35-40 ..	5	5	1	1	—	2	1	—	15	1.11
40-45 ..	4	2	1	—	1	—	1	—	9	0.67
45 and over ..	2	3	—	2	—	—	—	1	8	0.59
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>643</b>	<b>294</b>	<b>172</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>1,348</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<b>Percentage to total ..</b>	<b>47.70</b>	<b>21.81</b>	<b>12.76</b>	<b>8.16</b>	<b>4.75</b>	<b>2.52</b>	<b>1.41</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>—</b>

As a regular system of granting leave to operatives does not exist in the mills of the Presidency, workers who go on short or long leave usually give substitutes who are known as *badlis*. No figures are available as to the number of persons who are casually employed but, as most of the vacancies are filled, the percentage of casual employees would be approximately the same as the percentage of absentees in the various mills of the Presidency.

### Chapter II.—Staff Organisation.

*Selection of Managing Staff.*—In the cotton textile industry in Bombay City the majority of the managers are Lancashire men directly recruited from England. The tendency in recent years, however, is to replace Englishmen by Indians.

In Ahmedabad the agents themselves personally manage the mills in the majority of cases.

*Recruitment and Training of Subordinate Supervising Staff.*—The subordinate supervising staff, so far as the cotton textile industry in this Presidency is concerned, is generally recruited from among the operatives. The highest rank such persons reach is, however, that of the jobber. There are no special facilities provided for the training of such persons except in the small textile school, conducted in Bombay by the Social Service League at Parel.

There are two fairly large technical institutes in this Presidency, one in Bombay and the other at Ahmedabad. The Victoria Jubilee Technical School in Bombay is doing, as pointed out by the Indian Tariff Board, excellent work in regard to the training of the supervising staff both by its regular courses and by its short courses, which are held on Saturday afternoons and are attended by apprentices already at work in the mills. Persons who have passed out from this institute after serving for a few years in the mills have an opportunity of rising to the position of heads of departments such as a spinning master or a weaving master.

In connection with the technical training of operatives, the following observations made by the Indian Tariff Board (cotton textile industry enquiry) are of interest: "We cannot too strongly emphasise the necessity for the provision of more facilities for technical education if the efficiency of the mill operative is to be improved within a reasonable period. A beginning should obviously be made with jobbers and those who wish to qualify themselves as such. We, therefore, recommend the early establishment of trade schools in two or three convenient centres in Bombay. This is obviously a matter for joint action by Government and the mill industry. The latter, in present conditions, is not, however, in a position to find funds for this purpose and a subsidy towards it might well be given from the funds which would be available if the proposals which the majority of us put forward elsewhere are accepted. We consider that attendance at such schools should be treated as attendance in the mills and that certificates should be issued at the end of the course, the details of which would be worked out by the Department of Industries in consultation with the mill industry.

"A number of technical books and pamphlets on all branches of the industry of which he makes good use are available to the cotton mill operative in England. No steps in this direction have so far been taken in India, though there are a number of jobbers and operatives who could profit from such pamphlets if they were drawn up in the vernacular on the right lines and contained simple instructions with plentiful illustrations. A pamphlet drawn up for weavers would, for example, contain instructions as to the best methods of setting loom parts, the proper care of healds, reeds and shuttles and so on. Pamphlets of this character have, we believe, been issued by the Department of Industries in Madras for the use of handloom weavers. We would suggest that the matter should be taken up by the Department of Industries in Bombay in consultation with the Bombay and Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Principal, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay."

*Relations between Staff and Rank and File—Works committees.*—Apart from the staff councils which exist on the G.I.P. and the B.B. & C.I. Railways which will be dealt with under the heading "joint standing machinery for regulation of relations between employers and workpeople" in Chapter XIII, there is, as far as Government are aware, no system resembling works committees in industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency either on the German or the English model. That is to say, there is no system whereby by reason of agreement with employers, workers are given a wider interest in, and a greater responsibility for, the conditions under which their work is carried on. The constitutions of the Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Bombay Girai Kamgar Union provide for the creation, at each centre, of mill committees, but the millowners do not recognise these committees except in so far as they recognise the trade union. The mill committee is merely part of the trade

union organization for ascertaining and representing grievances. It may or may not be recognized by the management. The Bombay Textile Labour Union reports that its mill committees have been functioning successfully since the formation of the union in 1926.

The Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union has alleged, that individual mills in Bombay had adopted a deliberate policy of wrecking their mill committees by victimising those workers who had been elected on them. This matter was one of the issues on which the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union called a general strike of the workers in the Bombay mills with effect from the 26th April, 1929. No information is available as to the manner in which these mill committees functioned, but the whole question is under the examination of the court of enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act for enquiring into the causes, etc., of this strike. Full information with regard to these committees will therefore be available in the report of the court.

*Contractors as Intermediaries.—Extent and character of work given on contract.*—Most of the information available on this subject relates to the Public Works Department of the Government of Bombay.

Contractors are not employed either in the Presidency proper or in Sind, as intermediaries for obtaining labour, except when labour is required to be imported for special large concentrated works, such as the construction of dams. Works costing Rs. 5,000 and over are as a rule given out on contract unless the work is of such a nature as to necessitate its being carried out departmentally. In the case of works carried out departmentally the department engages labour direct, and for works given out on contract the contractors make their own arrangements for labour.

The following kinds of work are generally given out on contract: road construction and road repair work, buildings, bridges, electrical installation projects, sanitary projects, irrigation works and in the case of Lloyd barrage construction, excavation of new canals and masonry work pertaining to the barrage and regulators and work in cofferdams.

*Extent of sub-contracting.*—Sub-contracting is not permitted by the department under the usual conditions of contract. On large works, however, the contractors do not employ the several kinds of labour on daily wages but on task work and the amount paid to each individual or group of individuals depends on the quantity of work turned out irrespective of the time taken over the work. So far as Lloyd barrage is concerned every proper contract is thus sublet in varying degrees by the contractor. The regular contractor is held responsible in all respects for the proper execution of the work.

*Control exercised over working conditions.*—The Public Works Department does not exercise any special control over the working conditions of contract labour. The only control exercised is in ensuring that the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act are complied with and that any conditions of the contract regarding employment of women and children are conformed to. In the case of large concentrated works, camps are laid out by Government engineers and proper provision is made for water supply, sanitation, medical assistance, etc. Dispensaries and wards to accommodate accident cases are also provided in large concentrated works and medical officers are made available for free treatment of persons employed on the works. Occasionally materials, such as corrugated iron sheets, are hired or loaned to contractors for housing their workmen. Indirect control is also exercised in the case of complaints against the contractor being received from labourers and when necessary, action is taken after due enquiry.

*Effects.*—The general effect of the employment of contractors as intermediaries in the manner described above is satisfactory.

This system of contracting out is not confined to engineering, building and constructional work generally. In the docks, for example, the master stevedores have no direct contact with labour. Each firm employs a head Serang or Mukadam. When labour is required he gets into touch with other Serangs or Mukadams who engage gangs of men, each of whom is under a Tindal. Even the head Serang knows nothing about the individuals who are employed. He deals with the Tindals, who are paid a lump sum which they pay out to the men they engage, and the cheaper they get the men the more money the Tindal receives, and if he can employ fewer men and not be detected by the Serang, as very often happens, so much the better for him.

Another form of contracting out is found in the match factories, where box-making is done by men and women and children working at home, the material being supplied by the factory. Dyeing and bleaching work in the cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency is also generally given out on contract although some mills have their own dyeing and bleaching plant.

**Chapter III.—Housing.**

*Extent to which Housing is Provided by Employers.*—In the course of an enquiry into welfare work in the Bombay Presidency which the Labour Office conducted in the year 1926 information was collected regarding housing provided by employers. Out of 76 textile mills in Bombay City which furnished information, 28 mills reported that housing had been provided for their workers. Seven out of these mills provide residential accommodation only for Ramosees, gate-keepers and night watchmen and the rooms provided are given free of rent. The number thus accommodated was reported at 147. Twenty-two mills provide partial housing for all operatives who desire to take advantage of the special facilities offered. The total number of employees working in these mills amounted to 64,720 and the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided by the employers amounted to 12,149 or about 20 per cent.

In the textile mills in Ahmedabad 37 mills provide housing for their employees. Out of these, two mills give free accommodation to their Ramosees, gate-keepers and night watchmen. Thirty-five mills provide housing for all classes of employees. The number of workers working in these mills amounted to 34,714 and the number who took advantage of the housing provided amounted to 5,605 or 16 per cent. of the total number employed.

All the five mills in Sholapur provide housing for their employees. The accommodation provided is not sufficient to house all the 20,000 odd workers who work in these mills. The number of workers who are reported to have taken advantage of the facilities offered amounted to 2,406 or 12 per cent. of the total number employed.

Out of 11 textile mills who sent in returns from the rest of the districts in the Bombay Presidency ten mills provided housing. In one case 50 employees were accommodated rent free and in another case 25 employees out of 250 reside in the houses provided. The total number of employees in the ten mills amounted to 13,322 and the number of those accommodated in the tenements provided amounted to 5,568 or 42 per cent. of the total.

Among the concerns included in the enquiry under "Engineering and other trades," only three establishments provide free housing for sepoys and gate-keepers. The number accommodated is 30.

In the seasonal factories in the Presidency it is customary to provide single room tenements for the engine, boiler and mechanical staff. In Sind, quarters are often provided for the early morning workers in the ginning factories, while in other areas some factories provide corrugated iron sheets for the erection of temporary quarters for labour drawn from a distance. In Sind, where the bulk of the labour is obtained from Rajputana, labour colonies are built on the outskirts of the towns or villages. Huts are usually made of thatch by the workers themselves. In several areas imported workers are given old hessian cloth or matting to erect temporary accommodation which is often of the most primitive description.

Messrs. Braithwaite & Co. at Mulund, the Swedish Match Factory at Ambernath and the Raymond Woollen Mills at Thana provide 216 rooms, accommodation for 700 employees, and 128 rooms respectively for the workers employed by them.

Only in two cases does Government provide housing for the labour employed by them in factories. At the Government Security Printing Press at Nasik and the Government Central Distillery at Nasik which employ 517 and 242 persons respectively, 580 two and one-room tenements and 150 quarters respectively are provided.

The Public Works Department of the Government of Bombay does not provide housing accommodation as a rule for labourers employed on works carried out either departmentally or by contract. In the case of large concentrated works quarters are provided for skilled labour, such as carpenters, fitters, mistries, blacksmiths, etc. On the Lloyd Barrage Construction provision has been made for housing labour in blocks of coolie lines on each bank of the river. In the case of labour more or less continuously employed by Government directly, that is, without the intervention of contractors or piece workers, housing arrangements are generally provided. On the excavation of new canals where mechanical excavators are used all the labour employed is provided with accommodation either in the form of tents or huts.

Besides the factory owners and Government departments other large employers of labour are the Bombay Municipality, the Bombay Port Trust, the Bombay Improvement Trust and the G. I. P. and B. B. and C. I. Railways. As regards the

Bombay Municipality, in the Fire Brigade Department the whole staff is provided with quarters. In the Health Department, out of a total number of 7,537 scavengers and halalkhores accommodation is provided for 5,538. In the Municipal Hospital and College in Bombay City all the 226 employees are provided with housing accommodation. In the Gardens Department all the 39 employees are provided with housing. Of the 600 employees of the Drainage Department only 13 are provided with housing. In the general branch of the Engineering Department the 289 employees are provided with housing accommodation. In the Mechanical Branch of the Engineering Department 104 employees out of a total of 664 are provided with housing accommodation. In the Roads Branch of the Engineering Department only 165 employees out of 1,545 are provided with accommodation. In the Markets Department 106 out of 135 are provided with accommodation. In the Water Department housing arrangements are made for 279 employees out of a total of 605.

The Bombay Port Trust engage on an average about 8,300 manual workers in all its departments, of whom a little over 3,000 are housed in accommodation provided by the Trust. The percentage of workers housed to the total number employed is about 36. These workers are housed in the Trust Dock Labourers' chawls at Wadi Bunder, at the Antop village and at the railway quarters for menial at Wadala.

The Bombay Improvement Trust houses its labour in its various schemes. It has built semi-permanent sheds for labour camps and in these camps there are sufficient rooms to house all its labourers. In all it has built 1,331 tenements for housing its labour.

According to information collected by the Bombay Labour Office in the year 1925 in Bombay City, the G. I. P. Railway owns 20 chawls containing 841 one-roomed tenements and the B. B. and C. I. Railway owns 303 tenements of one room each for housing its employees.

*By Government or other Public Agency.—Government.—*The Government of Bombay have provided 207 chawls or 16,524 single room tenements for the working classes in Bombay City at four different centres as under :—

Chawl area.	No. of chawls.	No. of tenements.
DeLisle Road .. .. .	32	2,560
Naigaum .. .. .	42	3,344
Worli .. .. .	121	9,660
Sewri .. .. .	12	960
Total .. .. .	207	16,524

The sites for the chawls selected are such that a majority of the mills in Bombay are within a mile of one or other of the chawl sites. About 34,000 persons are housed in these tenements.

*The Improvement Trust.—*Besides Government, the only other public agency which provides housing to any large extent is the Bombay Improvement Trust. The position as at 1st June, 1925, was that the Improvement Trust owned 99 chawls containing 8,896 tenements in all.

*By private Landlords and Workers.—*As regards the extent to which housing is provided by private landlords and by the workers themselves, no statistical information is available on this subject. It might be pointed out, however, that the majority of the tenements available for the use of the working classes in the industrial towns of this Presidency belong to private landlords. Cases in which workers own the houses in which they live are rare although in some cases, especially among the cotton mill workers in Sholapur, a considerable number of operatives live in huts erected by themselves on land either belonging to themselves or rented from a private person.

*Nature of Accommodation Provided in Each Class.—*According to the census of 1921, 70 per cent. of the tenements in Bombay City were one-roomed tenements. The family budget investigation conducted by the Labour Office in the year 1921-22 showed that 87 per cent. of the working classes live in one-roomed tenements. These tenements are to be found in single or double rows in buildings locally known as chawls. The average area per working class room is 103.6 square feet, giving 24.7 square feet for each individual. The height of the rooms is usually from 8 to 10 feet.



The family budget investigation conducted by the Labour Office in Ahmedabad shows that 73 per cent. of the working classes live in one-roomed tenements, 18 per cent. live in two-roomed tenements and the rest in tenements containing more than two rooms. The average floor space in one-roomed tenements comes to 143·22 square feet thus giving each person 38·29 square feet of floor space. The average floor space for all tenements comes to 183·74 square feet giving 47·36 square feet per person.

The results of the family budget enquiry conducted by the Labour Office in Sholapur in the year 1925 show that the majority of the workers there live in two or more rooms. It is seen that 33 per cent. of the cotton mill workers live in one-roomed tenements, 48 per cent. in two-roomed tenements and the rest in more than two rooms. The average floor space per room in Sholapur comes to 92 square feet and the average floor space available to each individual is 36 square feet.

The above description relates to accommodation available to the working classes in the three industrial centres of this Presidency.

*Employers.*—Appendix I gives the details regarding the nature of accommodation provided by certain individual employers in the Bombay Presidency.

*Cotton Mill Industry.*—As regards the nature of accommodation provided by cotton mill owners in the Presidency, the predominant type of housing in Bombay and Ahmedabad is the single room tenement. In Sholapur, the tenements built by the owners contain two rooms.

*Improvement Trust.*—The quarters provided consist of semi-permanent sheds built of corrugated iron sheet walls and roof with an open verandah in front. The accommodation provided is a living room 10 feet by 10 feet and an outer verandah 10 feet by 5 feet. Some rooms have no verandah.

*Bombay Municipality.*—The accommodation supplied is provided in permanent or semi-permanent chawls or in temporary sheds. Single room tenements are mostly provided although in some cases double room tenements are also provided.

*Port Trust.*—The accommodation is provided in chawls of single and double row type and also in small detached houses of corrugated iron. The predominant type of tenement is the one-roomed tenement.

*Mines and Quarries.*—With the exception of three mines in Kanara, where the labourers have to provide themselves with temporary huts, all labour is huted by the employers. In the case of the Shirol mines the temporary huts erected by the labourers are reported to afford insufficient protection from cold weather with consequent frequent illness.

In the Bombay Suburban District, the Development Department provides for the employees in the Kandivli mines 500 rooms in good and sanitary condition which are supplied to the labourers free of rent. In the mines and quarries situated in the Northern Division, at the Shivrajpur and Bamnukua mines the housing is partly in stone built quarters and partly in matting lines. At the Taibpur Bauxite mines it is of matting lines with corrugated iron roofs. At the Jakhed quarry the contractor provides huts constructed of wooden rafters and bamboo matting. At the quarries in Surat district, temporary huts are erected for labourers in some quarries while at others no housing is required to be provided as the labourers return to their village homes after work.

*Government or other Public Agency.*—The housing supplied by Government in Bombay City consists mainly of one-roomed tenements, approximately 16 feet by 10 feet in size. The Improvement Trust chawls which are available to the public also contain mostly one-roomed tenements.

*Private Landlords.*—There are some chawls in Bombay City owned by private landlords and used by the working classes which contain two or more roomed tenements. But the predominant type is the single roomed tenement.

*Workers.*—The housing provided by the workers themselves usually takes the form of huts.

*Utilisation by Workers of Accommodation Available.*—Speaking generally, in Bombay City, the workers use to the fullest the available accommodation. The only exception to this is the accommodation provided by the Government of Bombay in the concrete chawls built by the Development Department. Out of a total of 16,524 tenements available in March 1929, only 6,805 were occupied. This low figure was however partly due to the disturbed industrial conditions. The highest number of tenants recorded was reached in December, 1927, when it stood at 8,234. All the chawls have been provided with roads, water supply, lighting and shops, while at Worli one whole floor has been converted into a market for the convenience of the tenants. Schools and dispensaries are also established in all the chawl areas.

The following table shows the number of vacancies in March, 1928, and March, 1929, in the Development Department's chawls situated in the various localities of the city.

Chawl centre	Number of rooms			Rent per room in March 1929
	Constructed	Occupied in March 1928	Occupied in March 1929	
Naigaum .. .. .	3,344	2,363	2,210	Rs. a. 7 0
DeLisle Road .. .. .	2,560	1,761	1,318	9 8*
Worli.. .. .	9,660	2,692	2,498	5 0
Sewri .. .. .	960	862	779	7 0

\* For ground, first and second floor rooms. Rs. 9 only for top floor rooms.

In Ahmedabad, the available accommodation is fully utilized by the workers except in the case of the housing provided at Saranagar by one of the millowners where only 40 out of the 50 tenements provided are occupied and the rest are empty. The reason for this is that Saranagar is situated rather far away from the city and workers do not like to go to such a long distance.

*Rent Rates in Various Classes.—Employers.—Cotton Mill Industry.*—The enquiry made by the Bombay Labour Office into welfare work in the Bombay Presidency in the year 1926, showed that out of the 28 textile mills in Bombay City which provided housing, full economic rent was charged in 2 cases and 1 mill let their rooms partly at a favourable and partly at the full economic rent. Fifteen mills charged favourable rent but 4 mills gave some tenements free and let the remainder at rents which were less than the economic rent. Sixteen mills supplied information with regard to the percentage of rent charged to the economic rent. In 3 cases, 30 to 40 per cent. was charged, in 9 cases 40 to 50 per cent. was charged, in 3 cases 50 to 75 per cent. was charged and in 1 case the rent charged was more than 75 per cent. of the economic rent.

In the textile industry in Ahmedabad, full economic rent was charged by 9 mills and 1 mill charged rent partly at the full economic value and partly on a favourable basis. Eighteen mills reported the percentage of rent charged to the economic rent. In 1 case, 25 per cent. was charged, in another 50 per cent., in 5 cases 60 to 65 per cent., in 2 cases 70 per cent., in 5 cases 75 per cent., in 2 cases 80 per cent., and in 2 cases 85 to 90 per cent.

In the case of the Sholapur mills, favourable rent was charged by all the mills. In 2 cases, the rent charged was 25 per cent. of the economic rent, in 1 case 50 per cent., in 1 case 50 to 60 per cent. and in 1 case 85 per cent.

As regards the textile mills in the rest of the British districts of the Presidency, full economic rent was charged by 1 mill, 40 to 45 per cent. of the economic rent was charged in 1 case, 50 per cent. in 4 cases and 75 per cent. in, 1 case.

*The Bombay Municipality.*—No rent is charged by the Bombay Municipality to its employees in the fire brigade department. In the health department 10 annas per month are charged to each halalkhore, man or woman, 8 annas per month for each male scavenger and 5 annas per month for each female scavenger. Rs. 2 per month are charged for each outsider who is a male relative of a municipal employee and Rs. 1 per month for each outsider who is a female relative of the employee. In the municipal hospital, accommodation is provided free of charge to the employees. In the gardens department, out of the 39 rooms provided, a monthly rent of 8 annas per room is charged in 22 cases, while the other rooms are rent free. In the roads branch of the engineering department a rent of 10 annas per month for a male labourer and 5 annas per month for a female labourer is charged. The relatives of the employees are allowed to keep the tenements on payment of a monthly rental of Rs. 2 in case of a male and Re. 1 in case of a female. In the other departments of the Municipality no rent is charged.

*Bombay Port Trust.*—The accommodation provided by the Bombay Port Trust is given either rent free or at favourable monthly rentals up to Rs. 7-8 annas per unit, according to the class of workers keeping the quarters. In the case of the dock coolies, who form the largest proportion of the labour housed, Rs. 7-8 annas per unit is regarded as 50 per cent. of the economic rent.

*Bombay Improvement Trust.*—No rent is charged to the employees but in some cases sanitary charges are recovered. This comes to about 4 annas per fortnight. Sweepers are charged rents at Rs. 2-4 annas to Rs. 6-10 annas per month per room. Two malis are charged Rs. 2-8 annas and Rs. 2-5 annas respectively as rent.

*Government or other Public Agency.*—The following is the scale of rents charged, with effect from 1st April, 1929, by Government for the tenements in the chawls built by the Bombay Development Department :—

Chawls at De Lisle Road .. ..	Rs. 8 per room per month.
.. Naigaum .. ..	.. 7 .. ..
.. Worli .. ..	.. 5 .. ..
.. Sewri .. ..	.. 7 .. ..

Re. 1 is charged extra for certain corner rooms. These rents are much below the economic rents.

*Improvement Trust.*—The data regarding the rents charged by the Bombay Improvement Trust relate to the year 1925. The rents charged per room to tenants who are not employees of the Trust are given below :—

	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
Suparibag .. ..	3 12 0	Foras Road .. ..	13 5 0
Agripada .. ..	4 1 0	Peon Chawl .. ..	13 13 0
Imamwada .. ..	4 11 0	New Kalapani .. ..	14 0 0
Nagpada .. ..	4 11 0	Margaon .. ..	14 5 0
Nowroji Hill .. ..	5 2 0	Kalapani .. ..	14 8 0
Mandvi Koliwada .. ..	5 14 0	Love Lane .. ..	16 8 0
Mahar Chawls .. ..	7 3 0		

*Private Landlords.*—The Bombay Labour Office made in 1923-24 an enquiry into house rents in Bombay. The data collected related to rents charged by private landlords. The data relating to rents were tabulated separately for one- and two-roomed tenements and also for old and new buildings, i.e., those built after 1st January, 1916. Rents were limited by the Rent Act to certain percentages over pre-war rents. The following table gives the results of the enquiry :—

*Rentals of Working Class Tenements.*

Monthly rental.	Number of tenements bearing rentals as per column 1.				Total.
	Old buildings.		New buildings.		
	One-roomed.	Two-roomed.	One-roomed.	Two-roomed.	
Rs. 2 and below	116	—	—	—	116
.. 3 .. .. 4 .. ..	2,252	—	—	—	2,252
.. 4 .. .. 5 .. ..	2,421	—	54	—	2,475
.. 5 .. .. 6 .. ..	1,659	—	59	20	1,738
.. 6 .. .. 7 .. ..	1,122	37	58	—	1,212
.. 7 .. .. 8 .. ..	408	8	70	8	494
.. 8 .. .. 9 .. ..	252	6	53	6	317
.. 9 .. .. 10 .. ..	208	72	81	—	361
.. 10 .. .. 11 .. ..	55	156	264	57	532
.. 11 .. .. 12 .. ..	19	96	106	16	237
.. 12 .. .. 13 .. ..	25	25	119	11	180
.. 13 .. .. 14 .. ..	4	21	73	—	98
.. 14 .. .. 15 .. ..	3	—	77	—	80
.. 15 .. .. 16 .. ..	2	1	133	7	143
.. 16 .. .. 17 .. ..	1	—	25	9	35
.. 17 .. .. 18 .. ..	—	—	15	11	26
.. 18 .. .. 19 .. ..	—	—	42	—	42
.. 19 .. .. 20 .. ..	—	—	6	—	6
.. 20 .. .. 21 .. ..	—	—	103	47	150
.. 21 .. .. 22 .. ..	—	—	35	—	35
.. 22 .. .. 23 .. ..	1	—	12	13	26
.. 23 .. .. 24 .. ..	—	—	9	1	10
.. 24 .. .. 25 .. ..	—	—	12	—	12
.. 25 .. .. 26 .. ..	—	—	53	40	93
.. 26 .. .. 27 .. ..	—	—	—	16	16
.. 27 .. .. 28 .. ..	—	—	—	6	6
.. 28 .. .. 29 .. ..	—	—	—	—	—
.. 29 .. .. 30 .. ..	—	—	—	—	—
.. 30 and over .. ..	—	—	21	6	27
.. All .. ..	8,548	432	1,475	268	10,713

It will be seen from the above table that for old buildings rentals of Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 are by far the most common and Rs. 4 is the prevalent type.

The following table gives the rents of one- and two-roomed tenements in old buildings according to wards:—

*Rents of Working Class Tenements (Old Buildings).*

Wards.				One-roomed tenements.		Two-roomed tenements.	
				Number of sampled tenements.	Average monthly rent in 1923-24.	Number of sampled tenements.	Average monthly rent in 1923-24.
A	..	..	..	526	Rs. a. p. 7 2 8	—	—
B	..	..	..	430	6 14 0	—	—
C	..	..	..	408	6 13 9	—	—
D	..	..	..	416	6 11 10	165	11 5 8
E	..	..	..	2,373	5 1 7	50	10 1 3
F	..	..	..	2,064	4 3 3	37	7 0 3
G	..	..	..	2,331	4 2 8	170	9 15 9
All wards .. ..				8,548	5 0 2	422	10 4 4

In the year 1926 the Labour Office conducted an enquiry into house rents in Ahmedabad on the basis of a sample and the results of it were published in the July, 1927, issue of the *Labour Gazette*. This enquiry also related to tenements owned by private landlords. The following two tables show the frequency of rents and the average rents in the various wards of the city:—

*Frequency of Rents (Working Class), 1926.*

Monthly rent in Rupees.	One-roomed tenements.	Two-roomed tenements.	Three-roomed tenements.	Four-roomed tenements.	Five-roomed tenements.	All tenements.
1 and below 2 .. ..	13	1	—	—	—	14
2 .. 3 .. ..	60	3	—	—	—	63
3 .. 4 .. ..	126	11	2	—	—	139
4 .. 5 .. ..	171	22	3	—	—	196
5 .. 6 .. ..	168	29	4	1	—	202
6 .. 7 .. ..	70	21	7	1	1	100
7 .. 8 .. ..	12	15	1	1	—	29
8 .. 9 .. ..	8	12	2	—	1	23
9 .. 10 .. ..	2	4	1	—	—	7
10 .. 11 .. ..	4	7	2	—	—	13
11 .. 12 .. ..	1	2	2	—	1	6
12 .. 13 .. ..	—	2	—	1	1	4
13 .. 14 .. ..	—	—	—	—	1	1
14 .. 15 .. ..	—	—	—	—	—	—
15 .. 16 .. ..	—	—	1	—	—	1
16 and over .. ..	—	—	—	1*	—	1
Total .. ..	635	129	25	5	5	799

\* Rs. 20.

## Working Class one-roomed Tenements, 1926.

Wards.	No. of tenements	Average monthly rent per tenement in 1926.		
		Rs.	a.	p.
Khadia .. .. .	22	4	10	1
Kalupur .. .. .	35	5	1	5
Dariapur .. .. .	82	4	14	4
Shahpur .. .. .	80	4	1	11
Raikhad .. .. .	30	4	12	7
Jamalpur .. .. .	65	4	4	7
Pura 1 .. .. .	66	4	10	7
Asarwa .. .. .	48	4	10	7
Pura 4 .. .. .	75	4	8	2
Saraspur .. .. .	26	3	10	2
Gomtipur .. .. .	63	3	12	8
Raipur Hirpur.. .. .	28	4	3	7
Others .. .. .	15	—		
All wards .. .. .	635	4	6	1

*Special Problems arising in connection with various classes of Housing.—Subletting.*—There is a considerable amount of subletting in tenements of industrial workers in Bombay City. Up-to-date information on this subject is however not available. When the results of the rent enquiry, which the Bombay Labour Office is at present conducting, are published, the Government of Bombay will be able to furnish more satisfactory data on the subject. According to the 1921 census, however, there were in Bombay city 3,125 one-roomed tenements in which two or more families lived. Of these tenements, more than 75 per cent. are situated in those wards of the city in which the bulk of the workers live. Subletting is resorted to either because the family cannot afford to pay the rent or because the workers consider that money spent on rent is money badly spent. It, however, sometimes leads to extreme cases of overcrowding. The report of the lady doctor appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into the question of maternity benefits to industrial workers, which was published in the year 1922, contains one such extreme example of overcrowding. The lady doctor says in her report: "In one room on the second floor of a chawl, measuring some 15 feet by 12 feet, I found six families living. Six separate ovens on the floor proved this statement. On enquiry, I ascertained that the actual number of adults and children living in this room was 30." In this connection it is of interest also to quote from the Report of the Industrial Disputes Committee which reported to Government in the year 1922. They say:—

"It is difficult to give figures to show the pressure of rent on the wage-earning class, but two instances which came before us illustrate its oppressiveness. In the chawls attached to the Spring Mills a monthly rent of three rupees per room is charged; inquiry showed that some of the lessees were making as much as ten rupees a month profit by subletting. The municipality gives its *halalcovers* rooms at the low rent of Re. 1-3 annas per couple per month. The profit on subletting is said to be as high as twenty rupees a month. Until an adequate supply of sanitary rooms, let at rents within the means of the ordinary wage-earner, is available, every effort to really improve the condition of the operative classes, is pursuing a will-o'-the-wisp. All the increased wages are swallowed in rent; there is no fixity of tenure; and the people will not, nor can they be expected to, improve their homes."

It was to meet these conditions that the development department built over 16,000 tenements out of a projected programme of 50,000. But never more than 50 per cent. of these 16,000 tenements have ever been occupied.

In Ahmedabad city subletting is hardly prevalent among the working classes. According to the 1921 census, 13 one-roomed tenements in Raikhad ward are said to have been occupied by more than one family. During the course of the rent enquiry conducted by the Labour Office in 1926 only one such case was noticed in Saraspur. There are some instances of relatives living together for some time until suitable separate accommodation is available and also single men and boarders messing with families and sleeping in the verandah outside. But these are really not cases of subletting.

As pointed out in the Labour Office report on an enquiry into the family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur city, the housing conditions there are much more satisfactory than either at Bombay or Ahmedabad and naturally, therefore, subletting does not exist there to any large extent.

*Occupation of employers' houses by tenants in other employ.*—In the chawls built by cotton millowners in Bombay city it is not unusual to find persons working in other concerns in these chawls. This is especially the case when the rent charged is at an economic, and not concession rate. When a favourable rent is charged, outsiders are usually not permitted to reside in the chawls built by the owners.

Only in a few cases does the Bombay Municipality allow distant relatives to share the tenements, but in such cases additional rent is charged. Speaking generally, the tenements built by the municipality, Port Trust, and Improvement Trust are strictly intended for their own employees.

In Ahmedabad the occupation of employers' houses by tenants in other employ is not uncommon. The principal reason is that the workers who are permanently settled in Ahmedabad do not like to leave the particular *Jathas* (localities) in which their kinsmen live and the employers therefore find difficulty in keeping their own chawls fully occupied with their own labour. In fact some employers have not made it a rule that the tenements built by them should be occupied by the workers in their own mills.

*Eviction.*—Ejectment or eviction of defaulting tenants need not be discussed here. The aspect of eviction which would be of interest from the point of view of the Commission would be eviction of tenants, residing in houses provided by the employer, who have gone on a strike. As has been pointed out above, in the cotton industry in Bombay city few chawls built by the employers are exclusively reserved for the operatives. This is the reason why in spite of the numerous strikes during the last few years, there have been so few cases of eviction. The only recent case of which the Government of Bombay are aware is of workers employed in the Wadia group of mills who are engaged in the strike which is at the moment of writing going on in Bombay. These workers were served with a month's notice and asked to leave the tenements. It is understood, however, that the workers gave no heed to this notice and are continuing to occupy the rooms.

In Ahmedabad some mills have a rule to the effect that their tenants should work in the mills whenever required to do so. This rule is not put into force except when there is a strike, but as industrial disputes in Ahmedabad are usually of short duration, it is rarely used. Owing to the fear of eviction, however, the labour union at Ahmedabad had at one time intended to boycott all mill chawls.

In December 1928, one mill in Ahmedabad whose operatives had gone on strike served notices to its tenants, but it is not known whether they had actually to vacate the premises. Recently one mill dismissed the leaders of a strike and compulsorily evicted them even after the strike was over. It is, however, understood that the labour union advised these persons to live as the guests of other persons living in the same chawl.

#### Chapter IV.—Health.

*General Health Conditions of Workers.*—In the absence of any statistical data regarding morbidity rates among the industrial workers of this Presidency it is difficult to generalize about their health conditions. Generally speaking, they are not very satisfactory in Bombay city. This is due to many causes such as bad housing, poor diet, want of open-air exercise, etc. But the main cause of their ill-health appears to be the prevalence of malaria in localities in which they live. The following extracts from the report of Major Covell, the special officer appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into malarial conditions in Bombay city, who submitted his report in the year 1928, are of interest in this connection. "The present investigation has shown that the disease (malaria) has now become very much more widely diffused. It is still present in certain quarters of the southern portion of the city to a serious extent, but the most intense malaria at the present time exists in the vicinity of the mills, more especially in Worli and Parel sections . . . In the northernmost portion of Worli section malaria is also slight, but as soon as the edge of the mill area is reached the incidence of the disease rises abruptly and extends over the greater part of Worli and Parel . . . In most of the remaining cases the source was found to be breeding-places in connection with the mills. *The correlation between the intensity of malaria and the proximity of mills was most striking*, especially in certain cases where a single isolated mill happened to be present, e.g., the Victoria Mill in Chowpaty and the Colaba Land Mill in Colaba. In the former case a number

of children living in a blind alley abutting on the wall of the mill compound were examined. Almost all those residing in the houses close to the mill had enlarged spleens, whilst at the other end of the alley cases of splenomegaly were comparatively rare. The vast majority of the mills in Bombay are situated in the highly malarious area."

In the southern division, in the mines owned by Messrs. Killick, Nixon & Co., a few labourers suffer from malaria and pulmonary attacks. In the mines owned by another company the coolies are frequently attacked by malaria within a fortnight of their arrival in the mining area. The maximum period during which a gang could work in this mine during the year 1928 was five weeks at a time. The general health of labourers in the other mines is good. In the Kandivli quarries owned by the Development Department in the Bombay suburban district malaria is prevalent among the labourers. In the mines situated in the northern division the general health of labourers, during the autumn months of the year 1928, was not good owing to the prevalence of malaria and influenza colds, which were more severe during the year than in previous years. The health of labourers in the quarries is good.

*Figures of Mortality.*—The following table gives the death-rates per thousand of the population for Bombay Presidency and for the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, and Karachi during the years 1920 to 1927:—

Year.	Bombay Presidency.	Bombay City.	Ahmedabad City.	Sholapur City.	Karachi City.
1920 ..	28.65	47.10	50.11	58.99	40.70
1921 ..	26.00	46.25	40.10	44.37	34.24
1922 ..	23.61	32.13	33.75	31.23	32.31
1923 ..	25.89	32.74	37.31	37.43	31.94
1924 ..	27.63	33.44	39.83	39.17	30.32
1925 ..	23.66	27.55	37.44	35.72	27.66
1926 ..	28.55	27.56	51.96	34.96	33.99
1927 ..	25.72	23.84	40.17	34.29	29.50

These figures are not likely to give an adequate idea of the rate of mortality among industrial workers, firstly because they relate to the whole population, and secondly because they relate to all ages. The Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay, however, publishes in his annual report a table giving deaths by causes and occupations. Information relating to workers in mines, industry and transport for the year 1927 has been abstracted from this table and printed in Appendix II.

*Birth-rate and Infant Mortality.*—The following two tables give the birth-rate and the rate of infant mortality in the Bombay Presidency and in the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, and Karachi:—

*Birth-rate per 1,000 of Population for the Years 1920 to 1927.*

Year.	Bombay Presidency.	Bombay City.	Ahmedabad City.	Sholapur City.	Karachi City.
1920 ..	30.28	20.19	41.41	53.68	51.12
1921 ..	35.59	16.39	38.28	27.79	39.45
1922 ..	32.39	17.54	36.02	36.40	35.03
1923 ..	35.58	17.99	40.86	33.70	43.49
1924 ..	35.60	18.68	41.17	30.41	41.80
1925 ..	34.66	17.36	41.53	34.20	47.06
1926 ..	37.05	18.02	42.47	42.92	47.43
1927 ..	36.85	18.54	42.78	42.35	51.33

*Infant Mortality Rate per 1,000 Registered Births for the Years 1920 to 1927.*

Year.	Bombay Presidency.	Bombay City.	Ahmedabad City.	Sholapur City.	Karachi City.
1920 ..	183.21	555.60	360.08	281.44	251.29
1921 ..	178.11	672.12	348.10	396.74	270.25
1922 ..	169.10	405.16	299.04	232.97	252.01
1923 ..	159.76	413.91	297.61	233.21	218.46
1924 ..	191.17	423.17	343.69	252.69	255.80
1925 ..	162.01	359.05	322.74	232.24	222.29
1926 ..	194.63	393.79	437.76	223.94	252.70
1927 ..	161.42	319.12	287.27	199.05	211.02

The figures of both the birth-rate and the rate of infant mortality in Bombay city must be used with caution, as owing to many disturbing factors they do not present a correct picture of the true position. The birth-rate given in the table is by no means a fair measure of the true fertility of the population. This is so because it is customary, especially among the working classes of Bombay, for married women to leave the city for their confinement and register their children in the mofussil where they are born. As regards the figures of infant mortality, the figures recorded for Bombay city considerably overstate the magnitude of the rate of loss of infant life because nearly one-third of the infants dying in the city are born outside the city, and also because still larger numbers who come and survive are not taken into account when the rate of infant mortality is calculated. Even so, however, the actual mortality among infants is very high. In the opinion of Major Covell, the special malaria officer appointed by the Government of Bombay, overcrowding is one of the chief contributory causes to this high rate of infant mortality.

In connection with the question of the relation between overcrowding and infant mortality the following table is of interest :—

*Infant Mortality by the Number of Rooms Occupied in 1927.*

Number of Rooms.	Births.		Deaths in Infants.		Infant mortality per 1,000 births registered.	
	Number.	Percentage.	Number.	Percentage.	1927.	1926.
1 room and under ..	11,615	53.6	5,688	83.0	490	577
2 rooms .. ..	1,736	8.0	352	5.1	203	254
3 rooms .. ..	392	1.8	87	1.3	222	215
4 or more rooms ..	174	0.8	34	0.5	195	163
Hospitals .. ..	7,764	35.8	680	9.9	88	107
Homeless and not recorded	4	—	16	0.2	—	—
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>21,685</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>6,857</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>389</b>



The Executive Health Officer of the Bombay Municipality points out in his report for the year 1927 that the high rates of infant mortality recorded suggest the presence in Bombay of some adverse factor in addition to the poverty and ignorance which are chiefly responsible for high rates in western countries. The added factor affecting all classes is probably malaria. Another factor which can hardly fail to enhance the infant mortality among the more-ignorant section of the population is the practice of soothing babies by the administration of opium.

The Bombay Municipality is endeavouring to diminish the rate of infant mortality. The work which is being done to achieve this object consists of:—(1) Visits by the municipal district nurses for the purpose of getting into touch with prospective mothers and for discovering cases of sickness, especially among women and children and unvaccinated children; for enquiry into the condition of new-born infants, and for giving instruction by homely talks as to the care and rearing of children.; (2) Attendance on confinements; (3) Provision of necessaries and comforts during the lying-in period; (4) Maternity homes; (5) Infant milk depots, and; (6) Infant welfare centres.

During the year 1927 the municipal nurses paid 37,397 visits to houses, chawls and huts and enquired into 2,910 cases of ordinary sickness. They also attended on 1,330 confinements. The number of women admitted to the three municipal maternity homes during the year 1927 was 2,189. As regards infant milk depots, two infant milk depots have been established for the benefit of children born in the homes or under the supervision of municipal nurses; 21,263 seers of milk were distributed at these depots during the year 1927.

Efforts to prevent infant mortality are also being made by the Infant Welfare Society, which has established nine voluntary welfare centres. The society provides through them advice and instruction to mothers as to infant management, medical aid to infants, and a staff of trained nurses for visiting the homes of infants. During the year 1927, 24,430 seers of milk were given free. The number of confinements attended by the midwives of the society was 1,126.

*Working Conditions.—At workplaces.*—So far as the factories in this Presidency are concerned, the working conditions in them are usually considerably in advance of the conditions in the homes of the workers. In recent years improvements have been made to a very appreciable extent by the Factories Department in the development of ventilation in factories. It may even be said that workers have learnt the first principles of hygiene and sanitation in factories. In connection with this question the following quotation from the report of the lady doctor appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into the question of maternity benefits to industrial workers is of interest:—“Every mill so far visited had large, well-lighted, well-ventilated workrooms. Notwithstanding the fibre-laden atmosphere in workrooms, these women had better ventilated spaces to work in than in their own chawls where every ventilation space was packed to avoid the ingress of fresh air, and where for some fourteen hours of the twenty-four the family inhaled an atmosphere laden with smoke and other impurities.”

*At home.*—The home workers in this Presidency mostly consist of those engaged in cotton sizing and handloom weaving, those engaged in making gold and silver borders, *bidi* makers and a certain number who make matchboxes at home.

The workplaces of home workers engaged in cotton sizing and handloom weaving in Sholapur City are very unsatisfactory. The premises are rendered highly insanitary through overcrowding, want of ventilation and lighting, dirty and damp floors, defective drainage, etc. The standard of cleanliness is extremely low in all these workplaces. Similar conditions generally prevail in other handloom weaving centres of the Presidency.

As regards the *bidi* makers in the city of Bombay, women are mostly engaged in this work. There is considerable overcrowding in the workshops occupied by the workers in this trade and light and ventilation are generally insufficient.

Women and children are usually employed in matchbox making. No information is available as regards the conditions of their work, but the following passage from the report of the Indian Tariff Board on the Match Industry, which was published in the year 1928, may be of interest in this connection:—“In the vicinity of Bombay we saw several factories producing one thousand or more gross boxes a day where the system of piece-work for box-making in workers' own homes was in force. The system is one which, in our opinion, is not conducive to the workers' welfare. By its nature no restrictions can be placed on the number of hours worked or on the age or sex of the worker. When competition arises between such factories and the more modern concerns equipped with the latest machinery, the easiest and perhaps the only form

of economy for the smaller factories is a reduction in piece-rates. We have had evidence that such reductions have already been effected in some factories in the vicinity of Bombay. Remembering the appalling conditions of sweated labour which existed in Europe in industries where hand-work came in competition with machine-made goods, we cannot regard this feature of the match industry as one to be encouraged."

*Dietary.*—A great deal of detailed information is available on this subject in the three family budget reports published by the Bombay Labour Office. It will be seen from these reports and the statistical tables appended thereto that the industrial workers of this Presidency do not enjoy much variety in their diets, and that the bulk of the expenditure on food is on the staple. In Bombay City, owing to caste and similar causes there are variations in the details of the articles consumed. The industrial worker of Bombay is largely a vegetarian. The Ghati from the Western Ghats consumes more jowari and bajri, while the Konkani immigrant (who forms the predominant part of Bombay's industrial population) is chiefly a consumer of rice. The Gujarati, again, consumes more ghee and sweetmeats than his confrères. The Muhammadan is a consumer of mutton and beef. Of the total expenditure of the family nearly 57 per cent. is on food. Of this about 32 per cent. is on cereals, including rice which accounts for nearly 18 per cent. of the expenditure; 2.5 per cent. of the family's expenditure is on pulses. As regards other articles of food on which nearly 23 per cent. of the total expenditure is incurred, fish, mutton, vegetables and refreshments account for nearly 13 per cent. The expenditure on milk is less than 2 per cent. As regards Ahmedabad, nearly 58 per cent. of the family expenditure is incurred on food. It is difficult to say what is the staple food of the working classes in Ahmedabad. It appears that there wheat and rice are both equally important from the point of view of the consumption of the family. It may be pointed out here that the Labour Office is informed that in Ahmedabad the Hindu working class families change their staple according to the seasons. Bajri is generally used during the monsoon and wheat during summer. Bajri or wheat is used during winter according to one's liking, habit and means. Of the total expenditure on food, 12 per cent. is on wheat and 11 per cent. on rice. Among cereals, bajri is next in importance to wheat and rice. Among pulses, turdal and gram occupy a prominent place and account for 2.75 per cent. of the total expenditure. Among other articles of food ghee seems to occupy a very important place. The monthly expenditure on ghee is 6.39 per cent. of the total expenditure and the actual cost per month per family is Rs. 2-8 annas. The next important item amongst other articles of food is vegetables including potatoes and onions. This item accounts for 4.30 per cent. of the monthly expenditure. Milk and butter-milk account for 2.20 per cent. of the monthly expenditure and condiments and spices for 1.87 per cent.

As regards the cotton mill workers in Sholapur, 49 per cent. of the monthly expenditure is on food. Of this 25 per cent. is incurred on cereals, among which jowari accounts for 17 per cent. 3.50 per cent. of the expenditure is on pulses and nearly 21 per cent. of the expenditure is on other food. Among other food articles mutton accounts for 3.70 per cent., milk for 2.57 per cent., condiments and spices for 3.43 per cent., and vegetables (including potatoes and onions) come to 2.50 per cent.

In an article which appeared in the April, 1925, issue of the *Labour Gazette* under the caption "The Food of the Worker," prepared with the assistance of the Haffkine Institute, Bombay, the following conclusions were arrived at. The analysis of the food consumed by the working classes in Bombay City shows that the diet is not well balanced as compared with the present standard diet, and is too bulky. It contains a very small amount of milk, butter and animal fats, and consequently does not give any appreciable power of endurance and resistance. Up to 25 per cent. of the food calories should be from fat in a perfect diet. In the case of the working classes in Bombay City, however, 91.6 per cent. of the calories are derived from cereals and pulses. Besides this, the diet does not provide enough vitamins or accessory food factors. Milk and milk products such as ghee and butter or other animal foods which supply these are used in extremely small quantities. The Bombay working classes use only 17.6 ounces of milk, mostly adulterated, per adult male per month. It is pointed out also that rice, the staple food, has many defects as food. "Its protein is poor in quality and scanty in amount; it is lacking in fats and in vitamins associated in nature with fats, and it is lacking in certain essential mineral elements. Even so, its dietetic uses may be, and to a wide extent are, seriously impaired by the manner of its preparation for human consumption."

*Physique.*—No up-to-date statistical information is available on this subject. But the attention of the Commission is invited to the report on humidification in Indian cotton mills, which was published by the Government of India in the year 1923.

The following table relating to workers in the Bombay Presidency, which has been abstracted from one of the tables published in this report, may be of interest :—

Centre.	Class of operative.	Number of cases	Average weight	Average age	Average height	
Bombay ..	Weavers .. .. .	282	lb. 101	28	ft. in. 5 4	
	Frame department .. .. .	66	101½	25	5 3	
	Card and blowing .. .. .	169	97½	30	5 2½	
	Spinners .. .. .	210	99	22	5 3	
	Miscellaneous department .. .. .	65	93	27½	5 4	
	All male operatives ..		792	99	26	5 3½
	Reelers* .. .. .	54	93	30	4 10	
	Mill coolies .. .. .	123	104½	34½	5 4	
	Bombay, Baroda and Central India workshop coolies.	20	112	31	..	
	Police recruits .. .. .	208	119	23	5 6½	
	(a) Standard for Police recruits of average height 5 feet 3 inches.			Maximum 150		
				Minimum 100		5 3
	Government Central Press .. .. .	16	105	..	5 3	
	Great Indian Peninsular Railway workshops.	198	111½	..	5 3	
Ahmedabad	Weavers .. .. .	368	111½	25	5 4	
	Frame department .. .. .	41	98	32	5 2½	
	Carding and blow .. .. .	132	107	29	5 3½	
	Spinners .. .. .	237	102	26½	5 2½	
	All male operatives ..		798	108	27	5 3½
	Reelers* .. .. .	74	90½	27½	4 11½	
Sholapur ..	Weavers .. .. .	102	128	27½	..	
	Card room .. .. .	42	102	30	..	
	Reeling and ring spinners .. .. .	120	102½	32	..	
	All male operatives ..		264	112	30	..
	Reelers .. .. .	49	100	37½	..	

\*Note.—Indicates women.

(a) Figures obtained from Bombay Police Records.

The above table shows that the average weight of cotton mill workers is the highest in Sholapur and the lowest in Bombay, and that the Ahmedabad worker comes between the two. This is in accordance with the impressions of the investigating staff of the Bombay Labour Office. It would, however, be desirable to point out in connection with these figures that they must be considered in relation to the origin of the labour force in these three centres. As has already been pointed out in the section dealing with recruitment, the bulk of the labour in Bombay City comes from the Konkan, which is a comparatively poor and unhealthy part of the Bombay Presidency. The poor physique is thus largely hereditary. The other immigrant labourers in Bombay, such as the Bhayyas from the United Provinces, and the Ghatis from Satara are healthier and better built. As regards the Ahmedabad workers, the Marwaris and Kathiawaris, and the Bhayyas from Jubbalpore and the

United Provinces, possess a better physique than the local labour force. The good physique of the Sholapur worker is in the first place due to the more healthy stock from which he comes, to the good climate of the district and also to the habit of taking regular exercise in *akhadas* (gymnasiums).

A rough idea of the physique of industrial workers in the Presidency may be obtained from the illustrations in Mr. Burnett Hurst's book *Labour and Housing in Bombay* and those contained in the reports on family budgets for Ahmedabad and Sholapur published by the Bombay Labour Office.

*Extent of Medical Facilities Provided—By Employers.*—During the course of an enquiry into welfare work in the Bombay Presidency which the Bombay Labour Office conducted in the year 1926, information was collected regarding the extent of medical facilities provided. The results of the enquiry show that the provision of facilities for medical attendance and the supply of medicines is fairly general in all the larger labour employing organizations in the Bombay Presidency. Out of 76 textile mills in Bombay City which supplied information, 68 mills reported that they maintained dispensaries for the supply of medicines. Four mills provide only medical attendance and three mills supply ordinary drugs, such as quinine, liniments, etc. Only one mill in Bombay reported that no provision had been made either for medical attendance or for the supply of medicines. In most cases the dispensaries are attended by qualified medical practitioners, and in a few instances arrangements are made for the attendance of a doctor at the workers' homes in cases of serious illness. No charge whatever is made in 66 mills; one mill charges one anna per head per month for medical attendance only, and in another mill one anna per head per month is charged for those earning less than Rs. 7 per month, and two annas per head per month for those earning Rs. 7 per month and over. Five mills make nominal charges for the supply of medicines. Two mills charge about two annas per head and another deducts two pies in the rupee on wages earned up to a maximum of four annas. One mill charges two annas per head per month for all workers except those earning less than Rs. 7 per month. In the fifth case the charge is one to two annas per head according to earnings. Three mills charge for both medical attendance and for medicines supplied. In one case, 3 per cent. of the wages bill is set apart for this purpose. In another, the charge is one pie in the rupee for each employee and in the third case, two annas per head per month is charged for those earning more than Rs. 30 per month, whilst workers who earn Rs. 30 per month and under are treated free. Thirteen mills did not supply any information with regard to the numbers treated. In the remaining mills the daily average number treated amounted to about 2,000.

Out of the 59 mills working in Ahmedabad, 10 mills had no provision for medical aid of any kind, and in 8 cases only a few patent medicines and ordinary drugs were supplied. The remaining mills were making provision both for medical attendance and supply of medicines. Four mills maintain hospitals in addition to dispensaries for the treatment of out-door patients. No charge is made in any of the Ahmedabad mills for medical aid. Twenty-five mills which supplied information as regards the numbers treated, reported that the average daily number of patients dealt with amounted to 850.

All the five mills in Sholapur City provide both medical attendance and medicines. One mill maintains a hospital and 3 mills have maternity homes in addition. A charge of one anna per head per month is made in the case of one mill for the supply of medicines. In the other mills treatment is free. Four mills which kept records of the numbers treated reported that the average daily number of patients treated amounted to 350.

Out of the 11 mills which sent in returns from the mills addressed in British territory, in the rest of the Bombay Presidency, 3 mills reported that no provision had been made for medical aid, whilst 3 mills reported that they stocked a few patent medicines and ordinary drugs only. Five mills provided full medical aid and one mill maintained a maternity home in addition. The average daily number of cases treated in the 4 mills which reported information amounted to about 60. Seven mills make no charge for medical aid and in 1 case there is a nominal charge of one anna per head per month.

Out of the 5 organizations covered under the head "Engineering and Other Trades" in Bombay City, 4 concerns provide full medical aid, and in 1 case only first aid is given. The number of employees treated in 3 concerns amounted to about 90 per day. Treatment in all cases is free. The Belapur Sugar Company at Ahmednagar maintains a free dispensary. All the 4 cotton ginning and pressing factories in Mirpurkhas supply free medical aid.

All the 3 Railways which were covered by the enquiry provide hospitals at the bigger stations, dispensaries at convenient centres along the lines and full medical aid in all necessary cases. The charges for different kinds of attendance and treatment at employees' residences are graded according to earnings but no charge is generally made for attendance and medicines supplied at the hospitals and dispensaries. The railways also subsidise municipal and other dispensaries in a few cases. Among public utility companies the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company maintains a dispensary with one senior and 3 assistant medical officers for the benefit of the out-door traffic and workshop staff. The employees in the other departments are supplied with medicine when they are sick and they are attended by the company's doctor in cases of accidents. The Bombay Gas Company only stock ordinary medicines at their works. Treatment in both cases is free. The average daily number of persons treated at the tramways dispensary amounted to 170.

The Bombay Port Trust maintains several dispensaries with qualified medical men in attendance for each department. The average daily number of persons treated is reported at 168, and no charge is made for treatment. The Karachi Port Trust provides a free dispensary with a medical officer at Manora, where the majority of the employees in the Chief Engineer's and Port Officer's departments live. The average daily number of cases dealt with at the Manora dispensary was reported at 62.

The Bombay Municipality maintains 2 special small dispensaries at Love Grove and Kurla for the benefit of the employees in the Love Grove Pumping Station and the Kurla-Deonar Railway and Reclamation Works. All other municipal employees are treated at the several municipal dispensaries which the Bombay Municipality provides in the city. The procedure with regard to the employees of the Karachi Municipality is similar to that in the Bombay Municipality. No charge is made for the treatment.

The Bombay Improvement Trust provides 4 dispensaries for outdoor and 2 hospitals for indoor patients. The daily average number of patients dealt with in the dispensaries amounted to 20 and 4 in the hospitals. Treatment is free and the employees of the trust receive half pay when they are being treated in the Improvement Trust hospitals.

Among Government departments in Bombay, the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard maintains a dispensary under a permanent medical officer. No charge is made for treatment and the number of cases dealt with every day is 24. The Back Bay Reclamation Scheme also maintains dispensaries under special medical subordinates. A hospital with 6 beds is provided in the camp at Kandivli. Other Government departments in Bombay City send their employees to Government hospitals. The Yeravda Prison hospital gives free medical aid to the employees of the Yeravda Prison Press. The Security Printing Press at Nasik has a dispensary with a sub-assistant surgeon.

*By Government.*—All hospitals and dispensaries maintained or aided by the Government which are open to the general public are resorted to by the labouring classes. In the City of Bombay, there are 5 large hospitals with 832 beds, and extensive out-patient departments for the treatment of Indians, of which two are exclusively for the treatment of women and children. In the mofussil there is a Government Civil Hospital at the headquarters of each district and a dispensary at each taluka headquarters with accommodation for indoor patients, maintained by a municipality or a local board, with a grant-in-aid from the Government. The Government hospitals in the Presidency number 38, and the local fund and municipal dispensaries number 348. Most of the civil hospitals have maternity wards attached to them and possess adequate nursing staff.

*By Other Agencies.*—During the year 1927, the Bombay Municipality maintained 13 dispensaries for the free medical relief of the sick poor of the city. The number of new cases treated during the year was 68,887. The total attendances numbered 166,991. This figure includes 868 visits by the dispensary medical officers to patients in their homes.

Medical facilities are provided to a very small extent by other agencies in Bombay City such as the Social Service League, Bombay, the Young Women's Christian Association, and the Nagpada Neighbourhood House. The Social Service League conducts a charitable dispensary at Parel for the benefit of women and children of the poor, middle and working classes. During 1927, the number of patients treated at this dispensary was 19,802, as against 17,085 during the year 1926. The League also provides free eye treatment to the working classes at its dispensary at Madanpara

in co-operation with the Blind Relief Association. During the year 1927, 2,183 patients were treated at this dispensary. The Nagpada Neighbourhood House opened a dispensary in July, 1927, where up to now over 2,200 patients have treated.

The Naigaum Social Service centre of the Y.W.C.A. conducts a dispensary which is open twice a week. The average attendance is 22.

The Textile Labour Union in Ahmedabad is the only association of employees which does pioneer work in the direction of providing medical facilities for its members. The Union maintains two dispensaries and a hospital equipped for surgical work. In December, 1925, there was accommodation for twenty indoor patients but as the number of applicants for indoor treatment was steadily increasing, ten more beds were added during the year 1926. The hospital has also a female ward and special arrangements are made for maternity cases. During the year 1925, 170 new patients were admitted for indoor treatment. The average daily attendance which was eight in 1925, stood at about 25 at the end of the year 1926. Seventy-one major operations were performed and outdoor relief was given to 9,141 patients during the twelve months ending 31st December, 1925. The total expenditure under the head "Medical Aid" amounted to Rs. 9,688-10 annas 8 pies.

There are mission hospitals at Poona, Ratnagiri, Anand in Kaira District and Gadag in Dharwar District, which are open to the labouring classes. A few charitable dispensaries in Surat provide medical facilities for this class. Among other institutions may be mentioned the King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona, for women and children; the King Edward Maternity Home, Satara, maintained by the Red Cross Society; Women's Aid Hospital, Hubli; the Co-operative Hospital, Hubli; and the Lady Dufferin Hospitals at Sholapur and Karachi. At Broach, the Sanitary Association and the Red Cross Society's Branch run three table dispensaries in the mill areas for treating minor ailments among the mill hands.

*Extent to which Medical Facilities are utilized.*—Owing to ignorance and prejudice, the labouring classes in this Presidency do not utilize the available medical facilities to the fullest extent but gradually they are getting over their prejudice against Western medicine and are utilizing medical facilities provided by employers, Government and other agencies to a considerable extent.

As regards women, they are less willing to take advantage of the available medical facilities than are men. But women workers also are gradually learning to utilize these facilities. As a result of this, there is a fairly large number of women in-patients in hospitals and dispensaries, and maternity hospitals are utilized to a considerable extent. This is so, especially because the *purdah* system is practically non-existent in this Presidency except in Sind.

*Latrines and other Sanitary Arrangements—At work places.*—As regards latrines and other sanitary arrangements, according to the revised rules under the Indian Factories' (Amendment) Act, 1922, the following number of latrine seats are provided:—

*Latrines at Work-places.*

Where the number of operatives does not exceed 20	..	..	1
Where the number exceeds 20 but does not exceed 35	..	..	2
"    "    35	..	..	3
"    "    50	..	..	4
"    "    150	..	..	5
"    "    200	..	..	5
200—one seat for every 50 or fraction of 50.			

If females are employed, separate latrines screened from those of males and marked in the vernacular "For Women Only" are provided. Those for males are similarly marked "For Males Only."

In factories which employ more than 100 hands and which do not provide flushing arrangements in latrines one urinal is provided for every 100 operatives or fraction thereof.

*At Homes.*—In the working chawls in Bombay City, especially among those owned by private landlords, the sanitary arrangements are not very satisfactory. In the chawls built before the war, the "basket system" still prevails and even where the flush system exists, the latrines are often in an insanitary condition. This is largely due to the inadequacy of the number of latrines available to the

tenants. The following provisional figures which have been compiled from the data which the Bombay Labour Office is at present collecting in connection with Housing and House Rents in Bombay may be of interest :—

Wards.	Old buildings.					New buildings.					Old and new buildings combined.				
	Having one latrine for the following number of tenements.					Having one latrine for the following number of tenements.					Having one latrine for the following number of tenements.				
	1-8	9-15	16 and over	No latrines	Total	1-8	9-15	16 and over	No latrines	Total	1-8	9-15	16 and over	No latrines	Total
A .. ..	15	—	—	—	15	16	—	—	—	16	31	—	—	—	31
B .. ..	61	—	—	—	61	74	—	—	—	74	135	—	—	—	135
D .. ..	30	11	—	—	41	51	—	—	—	51	61	11	—	—	62
E .. ..	778	125	21	—	924	333	—	—	—	333	1,111	125	21	—	1,257
F .. ..	329	162	—	2	693	526	—	—	—	526	1,055	162	—	2	1,219
G .. ..	749	71	13	1	834	216	11	—	—	227	965	82	13	1	1,061
All wards ..	2,162	369	34	3	2,568	1,216	11	—	—	1,227	3,578	260	34	3	3,795
Percentage to total	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	89-01	10-01	0-90	0-06	100-00

According to an enquiry made by the Labour Office into house rents in Ahmedabad in the year 1926, it is seen that privies in Ahmedabad belong either to the municipality or to the punch, or to private persons. By punch privies are meant the privies maintained in common by people in different *pois*. It is, of course, impossible to find out how many tenements are served by the municipal and punch privies. The number of tenements served by private privies was, however, ascertained. At the time of tabulation the following classification was adopted :— One privy for eight tenements and less, good ; one privy for more than eight but less than sixteen tenements, fair ; one privy for sixteen tenements and over, bad.

According to this classification the following results were obtained —

Tenements with	Number.	Percentage to total.
Municipal privies .. .. .	382	47-8
Punch privies .. .. .	42	5-3
Private privies—		
Good .. .. .	172	21-5
Fair .. .. .	114	14-3
Bad .. .. .	24	3-0
Others .. .. .	7	0-9
No privies .. .. .	53	6-6
Unspecified .. .. .	5	0-6
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>799</b>	<b>100</b>

Where no privies are available people use adjoining open spaces. About 48 per cent. of the working classes use municipal privies.

According to an enquiry made by the Labour Office in the year 1926 into the housing provided by the millowners in Ahmedabad the supply of latrines and privies is generally inadequate and in at least three cases no privies have been built.

In the course of the Family Budget Enquiry in Sholapur some information on this point was obtained. A tabulation of the results showed that the sanitary arrangements were good in 23-50 per cent. of the cases, fair in 42-46 per cent. of the cases, bad in 21-51 per cent. of the cases and in 12-53 per cent. of the cases information was not available.

*Suitability of existing Factories Rules.—Control of temperature in factories.—*At the Chief Inspectors' Conference in 1924 it was felt that power should be granted to an inspector to issue orders to secure reasonable temperatures in factories. A clause was therefore introduced in the Amending Bill circulated in October, 1925, to permit this but the Select Committee dropped it. It was then proposed to grant power to Local Governments to fix standards of temperature after injury to health was proved. At present the question appears to be under consideration in connection with the wider action to be taken under the subject of humidification.

*Control of humidification in cotton mills.—*The Local Government adopted, in March, 1927, Rules that required the maintenance of hygrometers, the record of wet

and dry bulb readings thrice daily and prohibited the introduction of humidity after the wet bulb exceeded a certain temperature according to the dry bulb temperature.\*

The results have been specially analysed and suggest that Section 9 (d) should be cancelled and the words "and artificial humidity" omitted from Section 37 (2) (g). The Act might then grant power to Local Governments to fix a standard of humidity and the methods to be adopted to secure its observance for any area for all departments of cotton spinning and weaving factories in which artificial humidification is used, while power should be granted to Inspectors to grant exemption from the standard in any department of any such factory if ventilation is adopted so that a reasonable cooling power is maintained.

In cotton weaving factories of the ordinary shed, or saw tooth type in which reasonable cooling powers are not maintained, Inspectors should be granted powers subject to appeal, to order measures for the reduction of temperature by means, other than the provision of cooling combined with ventilation, when the outside shade temperature exceeds a temperature to be prescribed by the Local Government. In all humid cotton spinning or weaving factories the introduction of live steam for humidification should be prohibited after an internal temperature, to be prescribed by the Local Government, is reached.

The foregoing would involve consequential changes in Section 50 and also in Section 2 to provide for the definition of cooling power.

*Industrial Diseases.—Prevalence.*—The Factory Department adopted a more progressive attitude towards industrial diseases some years ago and a periodical medical examination of all painters in the railway workshops was arranged.

As a result of the Geneva Conference, the Local Government recommended the abolition of the use of white lead unless dry rubbing-down is prevented. The extent to which the local railways have complied may be gauged from the following figures of consumption in tons :—

		1924.	1925.	1926.
B.B. & C.I.Rly. ..	White lead ..	77	29	18
G.I.P.Rly. .. ..	White lead ..	95	88	Nil.

The water-proof sand paper invented about 1923 was introduced to India by the Chief Inspector of Factories soon after its discovery. The railways adopted it but, as the above figures show, the use of white lead has been reduced to a minimum and no dry rubbing-down is in progress.

Improvements were effected in the foundries of printing presses, and in the composing rooms of these concerns; small yarn dyeing factories were brought under inspection, the provisions of the Schedule to the Act were applied, while a periodical medical examination of male adults in a few mills dyeing with lead salts were also arranged. The Certifying Surgeon, Bombay, examines from time to time the employees of the small concerns liable to lead poisoning and in a few cases persons showing signs of lead absorption have been transferred to other work. No lead poisoning has apparently occurred in the last eight years and no compensation has been paid since the disease was a scheduled disease under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

An enquiry into the effects of card room dust on health was started some time ago but the strikes in Bombay have prevented progress being made.

The Certifying Surgeon pays special attention to dermatitis—chrome sores in the dyeing industry are specially watched. No case of mule spinners cancer has been detected by the Certifying Surgeon. The Certifying Surgeon also examines the persons employed on the paint-spraying processes in the motor car industry. A large American concern has recently been opened in Bombay and, at the instance of the factory department, a medical officer has been appointed to specially watch for any ill effects of this operation. No case of anthrax has yet been discovered and this disease does not appear to occur in the woollen industry.

No case of occupational disease has so far been reported to the Commissioner for workmen's compensation.

*Sickness Insurance.*—As is pointed out in the section dealing with administration, the Government of Bombay have already informed the Government of India that if the Commission after hearing evidence in all parts of India comes to the conclusion that a scheme of sickness insurance is desirable and is practicable, the Government of Bombay will give the scheme its hearty support.

*Maternity Benefits.—Extent and working of existing schemes.*—It has not been found possible in the short time at the disposal of the Government of Bombay to collect detailed and up-to-date information as regards the extent and working of the existing schemes of maternity benefits in the Bombay Presidency. The following information relating to the cotton textile industry in the Bombay Presidency was collected by the Bombay Labour Office in the year 1927, and probably represents the position to-day.

\* The rules are printed on pages 1484–1527 of Part I. of the Bombay Government Gazette, dated 12th July, 1923.



✓  
*Maternity Benefit Schemes.*

Name of Mill.	Details of Benefits Granted	Remarks.
<b>BOMBAY.*</b>		
1. David Mills ..	Wages paid a month before and a month after confinement, i.e., two months.	There is no maternity benefit scheme in existence at present. A scheme was introduced in 1921 but was discontinued at the end of 1923. A lady doctor, was employed up to April, 1923, and the number of cases dealt with during that year was 65, the women being paid two months' wages each.
2. The Indian Bleaching, Dyeing, and Printing Works.	Do.	A scheme was introduced in October, 1921.
3. The Currimbhoy Mills Co., Ltd.	(a) Two months' wages are paid before and after confinement. (b) Two months' leave is also granted on completion of nine months.	A scheme was introduced in November, 1921. No lady doctor is provided.
4. The Standard Mills	Full wages are paid for a period of one month before and one month after confinement. (The medical advisors of the mills are of opinion that it would be to the interest of the females to keep to their normal work up to a week or at least a fortnight before confinement. The advisability of changing the free period to a fortnight before and one month after confinement is being considered.)	The scheme was introduced in the Swadeshi Mill No. 2 from March, 1921, and in the remaining mills from January, 1921. A lady doctor was employed at the Swadeshi Mill No. 1 but the appointment was discontinued from September, 1924, as it was found that the female operatives had no objection to being treated by the male doctors.
5. The Swadeshi Mill, No. 1.		
6. The Tata Mills ..		
7. The Swadeshi Mill, No. 2. (Formerly known as the Bombay United Mill.)		
8. The Fasalbhoy Mills, Ltd.	Two months' wages are paid, one month before and one month after confinement.	The scheme was started in January, 1922.
9. The Premier Mills, Ltd.	Maternity allowance is paid for two months. Leave granted two weeks before confinement and six weeks after confinement, provided— (a) that the woman completes at least 11 months service in the mills continuously, (b) that she makes a declaration binding herself not to engage in any kind of physical work outside her home for the purpose of earning her wages during the two months for which the allowance is paid to her.	The scheme was started on the 1st October 1921.
10. The Pearl Mills, Ltd.	One month's pay is paid in advance and another month's pay is paid six weeks after delivery.	The scheme was started on the 2nd March, 1922. It was noted that the women worked right up to the end of the ninth month in expectation of receiving the wages earned for that month as well as the benefit. The benefit was, however, not given and such cases have now decreased.
11. The Ebrahimbhoy Pabansy Mills Co., Ltd.	Two months' wages are paid, one month before and one month after confinement.	The scheme was started in October, 1921.
12. The Khatau Makanji Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	A free dispensary is provided at the mills under a qualified doctor who attends the maternity cases assisted by a nurse of the crèche when necessary.	Negotiations are at present being made with a view to providing free beds at a Maternity Home.
13. The Colaba Land and Mill Co.		No scheme exists at present. A Maternity Home was opened about October, 1916, but, owing to the poor response it received, it had to be closed down about March, 1919.

\*N.B.—A Maternity Hospital called "The Navrooji Wadia Maternity Home and Free Dispensary" has also been established in the mill area solely for the benefit of the workpeople.

## Maternity Benefit Schemes.—contd.

Name of Mill.	Details of Benefits Granted.	Remarks.
<b>BOMBAY—contd.</b>		
14. The Manockji Petit Manufacturing Co., Ltd.		No scheme is in existence at present. An attempt was made about 1922 to organize a maternity benefit scheme (with a view to enlarging it if successful) by providing a room in one of the mill chawls, furnished with a bed and necessary furniture, to be utilized as a sick room and for lying-in purposes. The management was conducted by the Social Service League, and the room was in charge of an experienced nurse. Since no advantage was taken of the facilities afforded by the mill authorities for lying-in arrangements, the qualified nurse, who occupied free quarters in the chawls, vacated of her own accord and no other has been thereafter engaged in her place.
<b>AHMEDABAD.*</b>		
15. The Ahmedabad Advance Mills Co., Ltd.	Leave with full pay is given for one month before and one month after confinement. There is a dispensary where free medical treatment is available.	A scheme was introduced in January, 1921. The total number of women who benefited under the scheme up to June, 1927, was 233. The number of cases dealt with in the year 1926 alone was 33.
16. The Ahmedabad Jubilee Spinning and Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	Six weeks' leave with pay before confinement and one month's leave after are granted. There is a dispensary where ordinary medical treatment can be had free.	The scheme in operation was introduced in May, 1926. The number of women workers who have benefited under the scheme up to June, 1927, is 18.
17. The Ahmedabad Manufacturing and Calico Printing Co., Ltd.	Rs. 15 per month are given for a period of three months, usually six weeks before and six weeks after delivery. There is also a hospital which can be taken advantage of free of charge.	The scheme was introduced in the mill in 1919. The number of cases dealt with since the beginning was 128, and the number of cases dealt with only in 1926, was 44.
18. The Ahmedabad New Textile Mills.	Leave for about 20 days with pay is granted to women workers if they go on leave in the 8th month of pregnancy.	Usually, women workers leave early in the 6th or 7th month and no concession is granted to them. So far there have been only 2 or 3 instances where leave with pay has been granted.
19. Maneklal Harilal Spinning and Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	—	The authorities of this mill have contributed a large sum (3 or 4 lakhs) for purposes of building a maternity ward. They are seriously thinking of having a regular maternity benefit scheme on the lines of that of the Ahmedabad Advance Mills Co., Ltd.
20. Becharas Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	There is no regular scheme. The management gives hump sums in deserving cases.	—
<b>SHOLAPUR.</b>		
21. The Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Co.	(a) Full wages are paid for the last month of the pregnancy, provided the women do the light work which is given to them in the pre-maternity ward. (b) The women who take advantage of the Maternity Home are given half wages for three weeks as maternity benefit, provided they have been in the Company's service for two years.	The scheme was started in January, 1918, and lying-in arrangements for the accommodation of 10 beds are provided.
22. (The Bombay Co., Ltd.) Laxmi Cotton Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	(a) A Maternity Home consisting of two beds is maintained in one of the mill chawls. There is also a qualified mill doctor. (b) A qualified midwife is employed through the Seva Sadan organization, who pays house-to-house visits in the chawls. Her chief work is to find out and assist expectant mothers and help them in their confinement and persuade them to take advantage of the Maternity Home or the Dufferin Hospital. In difficult cases she gets advice and help from the mill medical officer.	The scheme was started in August, 1924. By arrangement with the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, the local Dufferin Hospital treats female employees of the mills free of charge. A bed is maintained† in this hospital by the mills for the exclusive use of the female labour of the mills. There is also an arrangement with the Poona Seva Sadan, Sholapur Branch, whereby the latter supply two trained nurses for house-to-house visiting in the mill area of the City.
23. The Vahan Cotton Mills, Ltd.		

\* Some of the millowners in Ahmedabad have built charity hospitals with special arrangements for maternity cases, and women employees of their own or other mills can make use of the facilities provided. It has been noticed, however, that for some reason or other the women do not make use of the hospitals as they should.

† Note.—This maternity benefit scheme is financed from a fund called the Macpherson Welfare Fund which was started by subscription from individual employees of the mills in memory of the late Mr. R. E. Macpherson.

Enquiries made recently by the Investigator of the Labour Office show that only three mills in Ahmedabad—the Advance, the Calico, and the Jubilee—give maternity benefits.

The working of the Advance Mill scheme is as follows. About six weeks before delivery, the mill doctor examines the woman and allows her to stay at home. Immediately after delivery she is paid one month's wages. A month or so after delivery, when she joins duty, she is paid another month's wages. The scheme has been working since 1921, and benefits were paid to 43 women in 1927-28 amounting in all to Rs. 1,312-12-9.

The scheme in force in the Calico and Jubilee Mills operates similarly with some slight differences. There also, the mill doctor asks the woman to cease work after the eighth month. An ayah visits the woman now and then to see that she does not work in any other mill and advises her to go to the mill hospital for delivery. Free conveyance is provided. The woman is kept in the hospital for about ten days, provided with all necessaries and conveniences free of charge and then discharged. If it is desired that delivery should take place at the woman's house, the free attendance of a nurse is provided. The woman is given Rs. 15 immediately after delivery and another sum of Rs. 15 a month after delivery when she joins duty. During 1928, thirty-one women were paid benefits in the Jubilee Mill and 36 in the Calico Mill. Not a single case of mortality of mother or child occurred in the cases treated at the mill hospital.

The Bombay Municipality has started since February, 1928, a maternity benefit scheme. Maternity benefit is given to halalkhore and scavenging women in the form of leave with full pay not exceeding 42 consecutive days, including the date of confinement, as certified by the Executive Health Officer, if the birth takes place in Bombay, and by a Police Patel or by hospital authorities if it takes place out of Bombay. Since the scheme came into force, 434 women have received the benefit.

*History of Legislation.*—On 30th July, 1924, Mr. S. K. Bole moved the resolution in the Bombay Legislative Council :—

"This Council recommends to the Governor in Council the necessity of urging upon the Government of India the advisability of introducing legislation at an early date for the provision of adequate maternity benefits to women workers in all organised industries in India and to prohibit the employment of women during the period of such benefit."

The resolution was fully discussed in the Council and Government decided not to vote on the question but to elicit the independent views of the House and to find out how far they were prepared to go and how far they were prepared to allow budget provision for maternity benefits. Sir Cowasji Jehangir, the General Member, expressed the attitude of the Government towards the question in the following words :—

"Government have come to the conclusion that the time has arrived when we should look into the question of making such maternity benefits compulsory in factories and Government have also decided that it is one of those questions in which the State may give the factories financial assistance; but they have also come to the conclusion that legislation is premature to any great extent." The Resolution was put to a vote and agreed to.

In the year 1928 Mr. R. S. Asavle, M.L.C. (Bombay City, North), was granted leave to introduce his Bill in the Legislative Council to regulate the employment of women in factories some time before and some time after confinement and to make provision for payment of maternity benefit. The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was read a third time and passed into law on 15th March, 1929. The text of the Act and of the Rules framed thereunder will be found in Appendix IV.\*

#### Chapter V.—Welfare.

In the month of May, 1926, the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour, requested all Provincial Governments to collect full and comprehensive information with regard to the measures undertaken and the efforts made to ameliorate the conditions under which the workers live when they are not actually employed. The enquiry originated as the result of the Recommendation adopted by the Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference in connection with the development of facilities for the utilization of workers' spare time. The Labour Office conducted an enquiry, the results of which were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1927.

\* Not printed.

The utilization of the spare time of industrial workers is a matter which has received but little attention from employers as a whole in the Bombay Presidency, and such efforts as have been made in the direction of ameliorating workers' conditions take the form more of providing medical aid, minor educational facilities, and housing. Activities expressly directed towards the development of the physical, intellectual, material, and moral powers which is the object of those interested in the proper use of the workers' spare time are practically negligible as far as employers are concerned except in the case of some of the larger organizations such as the Railways and the Port Trusts which provide recreational facilities for the members of their superior staff; and the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd., Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons who are the Agents of eleven cotton mills in Bombay City and some other establishments also maintain a special Institute called the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute for carrying on various welfare activities for the operatives of the establishments under their control, but the work of this Institute has been considerably interfered with as the result of the unrest which has been so marked a feature of industrial life in Bombay during the last two years.

There are comparatively few organizations of social workers or of Industrial Associations in the Bombay Presidency which undertake welfare work for the benefit of workers. The most notable Institutions are the Ahmedabad Labour Union in Ahmedabad City, and the Social Service League, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association in Bombay. An Institution called the Nagpada Neighbourhood House was founded in Bombay in the year 1927 by Dr. Clifford Manshardt, Ph.D., to provide a centre to assist in cultivating the higher interests of the Nagpada Neighbourhood, to initiate and to maintain educational and philanthropic enterprises, to investigate and to improve social and economic conditions, and at all times to work for the public welfare of the City of Bombay. The benefits of this Institution are intended to cover all classes and creeds of citizens of the City of Bombay resident in the neighbourhood of Nagpada; and its activities include a Young Men's Hostel, a dispensary; the holding of lectures, religious meetings, classes and athletics; providing concerts, cinemas, games, clubs, and dramatics; a night school, training in social service, and employment bureau, etc.

The Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha used to undertake a considerable amount of welfare work for all classes of industrial workers some years ago, but this once very useful organization has existed almost as a mere name for the last four or five years and its welfare activities to-day are mostly confined to the occasional holding of "tamashas" and wrestling bouts on festival days. With the exception of the Ahmedabad Labour Union and some Postal Unions no other Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency carry on specific welfare activities for the benefit of their members. Some Unions have organized Co-operative Credit Societies and various kinds of funds for specific benefits such as legal defence, death and retirement benefits, unemployment and sickness benefits, etc., but this cannot be considered as welfare work. These activities were not, therefore, covered by the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office in the year 1926.

It has not been possible owing to the shortness of the time at the disposal of Government for the preparation of this memorandum to make a fresh investigation in order to bring the information collected in 1926 thoroughly up-to-date. Endeavours have, however, been made to collect later information regarding the activities of bodies like the Social Service League, the Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations, and one or two others, and this has been made use of in all cases where additional details were made available. The information therefore mainly relates to the position in 1926 as far as employers are concerned, and for later periods, specified in each case for the other Associations dealt with. The information given in connection with employers may, however, be considered as fairly representative of the position to-day; because, to the best of the knowledge of the Labour Office, very little, if any, development in the welfare activities of employers has taken place in the past few years. The subjects of health, housing, and maternity benefits have been dealt with elsewhere.

✓ *Extent of Welfare work by Employers—Recreation.*—Among the Cotton mills in Bombay City four mills had provided playgrounds for the benefit of their employees, but three of these mills reported that none of their workers took advantage of the facilities offered. In one case where provision had been made for football, cricket, etc., the majority of the workers were reported as taking part in the games. One mill had provided two gymnasiums, one for Mahars and the other for Mahrattas. The number taking exercise in the first was reported as 50, and in the second as 65. One mill provided a hall for indoor games, but no statistics were available with regard to the number of workpeople making use of it. With regard to the question of entertainments, one mill regularly arranged for dramatic performances, cinema shows, religious discourses and open-air lectures. All the workers in this mill (about 3,000)

took advantage of these entertainments and the attendance at the open air lectures was reported as averaging 2,000. Another mill provided for lectures, magic lantern shows, etc., and the majority of the operatives of the mill were reported to present themselves at these shows.

✓ The Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute provides a gymnasium, a social club, a cricket club and makes arrangements for sports and excursions. At the social club arrangements have been made for selling tea and refreshments of good quality at reasonable rates for all the workers of the Currimbhoy Ebrahim mills. The total number of persons who took advantage of this arrangement in 1927 amounted to about 55,000 and the sales amounted to about Rs. 12,000. Sports meetings are arranged frequently when workers take part in various prize competitions provided such as wrestling matches, running races, physical feats, long and high jumps, tug of war, etc. In addition to the above, the institute stages dramatic performances once or twice a month, conducts magic lantern lectures and social gatherings and provides a harmonium and a gramophone for the benefit of its members.

Among the Ahmedabad mills, one mill provided an open ground for sports. Another mill started a cricket club but none of the workers took advantage of it. In two cases rooms were provided for prayer. One mill had a gymnasium and provided periodic entertainments for half-timers and young children. Cinema shows were arranged occasionally by one mill, but apart from these instances the returns from the Ahmedabad mills under the head " Recreation " were all blank.

Three out of the five cotton mills in Sholapur provided facilities for outdoor sports. One mill had its own cricket and hockey teams and a special sports ground for half-timers. Sweets and eatables were given to the children on the playground off and on in order to encourage them to take healthy exercise. The same mill also started a boy scouts movement. The troop strength in 1926 was 120. The scouts were also provided with their own special playground for out-door sports. Four mills in Sholapur provided gymnasia with wrestling pits. The average daily attendance at the gymnasium of one mill was reported at 50. With regard to entertainments one mill had an amateur dramatic club which staged Marathi plays from time to time for the amusement of the employees of that mill.

Out of the 11 up-country mills which submitted returns one mill reported that provision had been made for suitable playing fields, a football ground, two tennis courts and three wrestling rooms. The loan of the school hall is given at a very low cost to touring dramatic companies for staging plays and it is also used for various other entertainments which are organized from time to time. Another mill provided a sports ground and a third mill arranged for cinemas and dramatic shows when convenient. These were reported to have been attended by about 50 per cent. of the operatives.

Among the concerns included in the group " Engineering and Other Trades " only one establishment, in Ahmednagar, provided a sports ground for its employees.

All the railways provide recreational clubs, or institutes as they are called, at all important stations on their lines. These institutes contain reading rooms and libraries, tennis courts, and in many cases, football and hockey grounds and billiard rooms. There is generally a small subscription for membership of the institute or for a particular section such as billiards, tennis, etc. The members organise their own entertainments such as dramatic shows, whist drives, dances and periodic sports. Membership of the institutes is generally confined to the better paid railway employees and their families and is not open to the lower grade and menial establishments.

Among public utility companies in Bombay City, the Bombay Gas Company has provided a building and grounds which are known as the Bombay Gas Company's Social Club. It is run by a committee which is composed of employees of the company. The committee takes over the full management of the entertainments as far as the building is concerned and also runs the sports section including cricket, tennis, billiards, etc. The company reported that generally speaking only a small number of its employees avail themselves of these facilities.

Municipalities make no special recreational provisions for their own employees.

The Bombay Port Trust provides land on various parts of the Port Trust estate for playgrounds and recreational purposes and it also maintains an institute with two tennis courts at Mazagon for the members of its engineering staff and an institute at Wadala for the railway staff. Cinema demonstrations of an instructional character are arranged for from time to time. The Bombay Improvement Trust maintains a cricket club and forms a hockey team when possible. It also provides a gymnasium for its workers and arranges for occasional cinematograph entertainments at the coolie camps.

Among Government Departments in the Bombay Presidency, only the Security Printing Press at Nasik provides a club house and a games ground for supervisors, overseers and the office staff. No other provision is made by Government Departments for the recreation of their manual labourers.

Tennis, cricket and hockey are not played by industrial workers and when these are provided they are made use of by the superior and clerical staff. For the ordinary operative employers provide very little recreation.

*Creches.*—A question closely connected with that of maternity benefits is of creches for infants of women operatives. A great deal of progress has been made in the Presidency in opening up new creches and in the care of infants of workers in the cotton textile mills. The progress made in this direction has been largely due to the efforts of the Lady Inspector of factories who was appointed in the year 1924. It is seen that in the year 1927, 13 Bombay mills maintained creches. The average attendance in December, 1927, was 269 as compared with a maximum attendance of 303. The mothers are beginning to take considerably more interest in matters relative to the health of their children and a number of them voluntarily consulted the Lady Inspector as to the exact effect of opium on their children. The administration of opium to 102 infants was directly stopped in the creches. In this connection lectures to the women and frequent talks to individual mothers were given. In one mill the creche costs Rs. 300 a month a large proportion of which was personally borne by a member of an agency firm. Nursery schools have been started in a few creches.

In Ahmedabad, 16 mills maintain good creches while some 10 others provide facilities that are in need of improvement. It has been reported from Ahmedabad that very few infants and children of working mothers are now seen in mill departments.

The mills in Sholapur continue to do very useful work in the direction of providing facilities for working mothers. There are three mills creches in the Sholapur mills. A nurse assisted by five Ayahs is in charge of each creche. Every morning the infants are given a warm bath and are cleanly dressed. Milk and parched rice are distributed to the babies every day. The average daily attendance at the three creches was 149 in the year 1928-29, and the expenses during that year amounted to Rs. 4,651.

*By other Agencies—The Social Service League, Bombay.*—The aims and objects of the Social Service League which was founded on the 19th March, 1911, are :—

I. The collection and study of social facts ; the discussion of social theories and social problems with a view to ameliorate the physical, moral, mental and economic condition of the people.

II. Adoption of measures for the training of social workers.

III. Adoption of measures for organization of charities and social work.

Under this heading the present activities of the League may briefly be classified as follows :—(1) Promotion of mass education by means of night schools, libraries, reading-rooms and magic lantern lectures ; (2) Boy Scouts Corps and Boys' Clubs ; (3) Promotion of public health by (a) provision of medical relief through free dispensaries, (b) by sanitation work in the city, (c) by sanitation work in rural tracts by administering the Florence Nightingale Village Sanitation Fund, and (d) by child welfare propaganda ; (4) Work for women ; (5) Supervision of the work of the Police Court Agent ; (6) Welfare work among Kaikadis, a criminal tribe ; (7) Spread of the Co-operative movement ; (8) Securing compensation to workmen for accidents ; (9) Recreation for the working classes in the form of fresh air excursions and open air sports and the management of Indian Gymnasia and Theatricals ; (10) Social work at the Parel and Madanpura Settlements ; (11) The conduct of the Bombay Workingmen's Institute ; (12) Propaganda work through the medium of the " Social Service Quarterly," the " Samaj Sevak," lectures on social subjects, the Social Service Library and the Register of Social Service Institutions.

The League opened the Workingmen's Institute in Parel on the 26th February, 1922, as an organization intended to serve as a central institution for the labouring classes in Bombay. The main object of the League in starting this institute was to co-ordinate and centralize social, educational, economic and welfare activities in the interests of the industrial workers in an independent building under the control of the League.

The information given below is taken from the 16th Annual Report of the League for the year 1927.

The League maintains nine schools out of which one is Anglo-Marathi, two are Anglo-Gujarati, four Anglo-Urdu and two Night High Schools. The total number of students on the rolls in all these night schools was 521, the average daily attendance being 347. Out of these nine schools six schools receive grants-in-aid from the

Bombay Municipality. Almost all the students attending these schools, including the English High Schools, belong to the working classes and earn their living by doing work in mills, factories, offices, etc., during the day-time. Arrangements for teaching physics and chemistry at the Night High School were made for the first time during the year 1927 and the school was affiliated to the University of Bombay during the same year. Twenty-one students were sent up for the Matriculation and School Leaving Examinations during the year out of which four students were successful in the Matriculation Examination and two in the School Leaving Examination.

One of the most important activities of the League's Working Men's Institute at Parel is the conduct of the League's Textile Technical School which was started in 1924 for imparting practical and theoretical training to actual mill workers. There is a special building constructed for maintaining and accommodating these classes and a separate shed is kept for keeping machinery for demonstration purposes. The school provides for the education of 120 day and night students who are to be given elementary instruction both in the theory and practice of spinning and weaving through the vernacular. Owing to insufficient funds it was not possible to give scholarships to day students for maintenance; so the league only conducted night classes during the year 1927 and a scholarship of Rs. 3 per month was awarded to each student—the only qualification for receiving this scholarship being regular attendance throughout the month. Most of the machinery for the school was secured through the kindness of a few millowners, viz., Messrs. E. D. Sassoon United Mills Co., Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim and Sons, and Messrs. Tata Sons, Ltd. There are in all six classes in the school—three for each of the two departments, viz., spinning and weaving, each class running over a period of one hour. The number of students on the roll was 31 at the beginning of the year. Attempts were made to secure recognition of the qualifications acquired by students at this school for higher posts, but the Report of the League regrets that the mill authorities have given little encouragement so far to the students of this school by giving them preference over others in regard to admission to higher posts. The school receives grants from the Bombay Municipality and from the Committee of Direction for Technical Education.

The league maintains three standing libraries and three reading-rooms at its head office at Girgaon, and at the Parel and Madanpura settlements. It also provides free travelling libraries which consist of 20 boxes containing 75 Marathi books each, 15 boxes containing 100 Gujarati books each, and 3 boxes containing 140 Urdu books each. These boxes are supplied to different centres in the different localities of the city. The total number of books and pamphlets in all the libraries amounts to 10,000. During the year 1927, 4,074 books were issued. The number of books at the library of the Parel settlement was 1,870 and the number issued during the year amounted to 2,304. The majority of persons who took advantage of these facilities consisted mainly of workmen and clerks working in mills, factories and workshops. The average daily number of persons making use of the reading-room amounted to 50. The Urdu library at the Madanpura settlement is reported to have supplied a long-felt want in that locality. The total number of books in the library was 1,215 out of which 1,157 were issued during the year. The daily average number of people who took advantage of the reading-room was 52. The number of persons who issued books from the free travelling libraries was 456 and the total number of books issued amounted to 613.

During the year 1927, ten lantern lectures were arranged for the benefit of different classes, the subjects of the lectures being "Care of Infants," "Care of Teeth," "Social Service" and "Co-operation." Lectures on subjects of interest to working men are also delivered from time to time.

The provision of healthy recreation for the benefit of the working classes forms an important item in the league's programme of work. The facilities provided for this consist of gymnasias, theatricals, open air sports and fresh air excursions. An Indian gymnasium is attached to the Parel settlement since 1923, and is in charge of competent instructors. About 50 persons attended this gymnasium daily during the year 1927. The members organised and took part in the Workmen's Fancy Fete. The open space in the compound of the Working Men's Institute at Parel was placed at the disposal of a Lathi club during the year and 25 persons took advantage of this arrangement every day.

The Damodar Thackersey Mooljee Hall in the Working Men's Institute which is used for meetings, conferences, gatherings, etc., is fitted up with a stage for giving dramatic performances. During the year 1927, 75 performances were arranged. They were in the Marathi, the Bengali, the Tamil, the Telugu and the Konkani languages. Out of the 75 performances, 23 were given by the Sahakari Manoranjan Mandal which is an amateur dramatic club conducted under the auspices of the

league on co-operative lines. The plays were mostly classical ones in Marathi. The club consists of 125 members mostly drawn from workmen and clerks employed in mills and factories who receive no remuneration for their work. The Mandal gives occasional financial aid to deserving institutions out of the proceeds of the performances, the amount thus donated till the end of the year 1927 being Rs. 5,400.

The league has been maintaining a Boy Scout Troop known as the 31st Bombay Boy Scout Troop since the year 1918.

*The Young Men's Christian Association.*—After nearly half a century of Y.M.C.A. work in the city, the Board of Directors of the Bombay Young Men's Christian Association decided in the year 1924 to experiment in welfare service amongst the workers in the north of the Island of the City of Bombay. Following a survey of the field it was decided in October 1924 to open a centre at the Development Department chawls at Naigaum the aim being to make an effort to fill up the leisure time of the workers with worth-while pursuits and to establish relationships with them that would enable the organizers to render greater service in the mill industry in bad times as well as good. The first concern of the organizers was to obtain the confidence of the people. It was difficult to get them to realize that the service was free and disinterested. A beginning was made in the Naigaum chawl rooms and the near-by open spaces. Night schools were opened, indigenous games started, Indian music was introduced, lantern lectures, and talks on subjects that concern the life of the labourer, such as hygiene, sanitation, thrift, temperance, etc., were arranged. With the help of a Ladies Committee many women and children were also reached and helped in many ways. This continued until June, 1926, when a move was made into a hut (90 feet by 30 feet) erected and equipped at a cost of Rs. 8,000 on a plot of land about 200 by 260 yards in extent near the Naigaum chawls, leased by the Improvement Trust for a period of three years. Here the volume of work undertaken gradually increased. It also became the training ground for workers and the base for other centres in that area. The lease of this land has, since then, been renewed for a further period of three years.

At the suggestion of the Y.M.C.A. the Development Department installed some playground equipment such as swings, see-saws, etc., in the open space between the chawls at Naigaum. The supervision of this play centre was entrusted to the Y.M.C.A. In June 1927, the association opened another centre at the Worli chawls and in October of the same year still another centre was started for the workers employed at the Municipal Pumping Station at Love Grove. Then in November, 1928, two further centres were opened, one at Arthur Road and another in Main Road, Dadar. The association report that the interest aroused in these centres especially in the outdoor activities extends beyond even the residents of the chawls covered and many come from a distance to participate in them. For the most part the association serves Hindus. They are all industrial workers and nearly all belong to the depressed classes. There is also a fair number of Muhammadans and Christians.

The educational programme of the association covers 14 night schools teaching English, Urdu, Gujarathi and Marathi with an average daily attendance of 201.

Lantern slides and cinema shows are given from time to time the selection of the subjects being such as to give instruction, entertainment and amusement. Serious talks are given on sanitation applied to habits in the chawls and outside, thrift, temperance, gambling, etc.

A Wrestling Akhada and Lathi classes are provided at each centre. Boxing is only taught at the Naigaum centre. Ball games, e.g., "Cage," "Volley," "Football" and "Basket Ball" are often played. The Naigaum football team is reported to have given a good account of itself in the Indian football tournament, being played during the monsoon of the current year at Parel. Indoor games sufficiently attractive to both adults and children are provided for. Each centre also possesses a gramophone, and records by Indian artists are played. The singing of Bhajans are very popular and Kirtans are also occasionally provided for. Some attempts have been made to cultivate garden plots. Trees have been planted and seeds given and the association hope that the persons taking advantage of these facilities will show some results this year in growing flowers and vegetables. Prizes have been offered as an inducement for the best cultivated plot and the best produce. During such religious festivals as Holi, Ganapati, Divali, Id, Christmas, etc., special programmes are arranged with a view to the observance of such annual events in the right spirit. In addition to the activities of the association at its own centres, it also directs the activities at the three Municipal playgrounds at Mustan Shah Baug, Gilder Tank and at the Willingdon Memorial.



As in the case of the Social Service League, the Young Men's Christian Association has also formed three Scout Troops known as the 97th, 98th and the 99th Bombay Scout Troops. Rover Scout Troops, i.e., for boys over 18 years of age, have also been formed.

*The Young Women's Christian Association.*—The Young Women's Christian Association opened a social service centre in one of the Bombay Development Department chawls at Naigaum in the year 1928. The area was chosen as being inhabited mainly by millworkers and as the Y.M.C.A. were already at work among the men and boys, the Women's Association considered that occasional co-operation for general efforts on behalf of the whole population would be possible. As in the case of the activities of the Y.M.C.A., the work is on non-sectarian lines and is open to all without distinction of caste or creed. The financial support for the initiation of the centre has been provided by the Y.W.C.A., but the Social Service League and the Seva Sadan are also co-operating and are represented on the managing committee. The association hope that the necessary funds to support the work will be eventually raised in Bombay.

Although Naigaum is in a ward where education is compulsory, many, especially girls, do not attend school. Efforts are made to induce all girls of school-going age to attend the Municipal school though these are not always successful. Even those who do attend school are found to leave it very early, often at the age of 9 or 10 years, and appear to relapse into illiteracy very quickly. The Y.W.C.A. have started schools for such girls for two hours daily to encourage them to keep up their reading and writing and a small library has been started so that they may borrow books to read. There is also a class for young married women held daily where they study reading and writing and other subjects. Sewing classes for women are held once a week and for children twice a week. Character training is the chief aim in view at the classes. Attention is also paid to cleanliness, order and discipline and general behaviour and an effort is made to maintain an atmosphere such as to tend naturally to foster good habits in the children. A marked change in the appearance of many of those who attend regularly has been noticed.

A Nursery school was opened in June, 1929, for the benefit chiefly of women who go to work, where they can leave their children to be cared for. The opening of the school was delayed on account of the strikes which continue, it is reported, to affect the numbers. The average daily attendance for the first month was 23.

There are two Girls' clubs at the Naigaum centre where a programme of drill, singing, games and hand-work, also story-telling, is carried out. The senior club recently enacted a health drama for the benefit of their neighbours. Lantern lectures on health subjects are given once in two or three weeks when suitable slides can be obtained.

*The Nagpada Neighbourhood House.*—The welfare activities conducted by the Nagpada Neighbourhood House have already been dealt with in the prefatory note given at the beginning of this section. No details are available with regard to specific activities in connection with education and recreation.

*The Ahmedabad Labour Union.*—The Ahmedabad Labour Union is an organization which controls the administration of six separate and individual unions of textile workers in cotton mills in Ahmedabad City, and it recently extended its activities to the organization of a union of the employees of the Ahmedabad Municipality. This union is the only association of industrial employees in the Bombay Presidency which conducts extensive welfare work for the benefit of its members. Its activities in connection with housing and health have been dealt with in Chapters III and IV.

In the year 1928, the union conducted ten day schools, which were attended by an aggregate number of 807 boys and 46 girls; twelve night schools attended by 610 boys and 3 girls; one Nursery school with 41 boys and 27 girls; one boarding school for boys with 26 boys, and one boarding school for girls with 8 girls. The total expenditure in connection with the 22 day and night schools and the Nursery school amounted to Rs. 35,965 during the year 1928. The cost and upkeep of the boarding school for boys amounted to Rs. 6,721 and that for the boarding school for girls to Rs. 2,081. The expenditure for the boys' boarding school was met by the Gujarat Provincial Congress committee and that for the girls' boarding school by the Trustees of the Jamnadas Trust fund.

The Social Betterment Department of the union supplements the work of the schools by conducting evening classes in chawls to teach workers reading and writing just sufficient for every day needs of life. Evening classes are organized in some localities and readings from a variety of books are given "in order to carry the light of literature to adults beyond the reading in school by evening classes."

The union maintains a library and a reading-room for the benefit of its members. There are also travelling libraries containing several boxes of books which are circulated from centre to centre

The union has four physical culture centres for providing recreation and open air sports. No details are available with regard to the character of the sports indulged in. It has also organized a Labour Volunteer Corps from among those attending the physical culture centres.

Among the other welfare activities of the union are a cheap grain shop from which sales amounting to Rs. 6,758 were made during the year 1927. The union also conducts restaurants from which sales amounting to Rs. 17,400 were effected during the same year. It also conducts a Savings Bank and a Cheap Loans Department. Since the latter was established, a total amount of Rs. 69,790 has been given out in loans. The amount of loans issued in the year 1928, amounted to Rs. 7,712. In February 1928, the rate of interest charged on these loans was raised from 6½ to 9 per cent. Deposits totalling Rs. 5,104 were made into the Savings Bank during the year 1928, and withdrawals amounted to Rs. 5,617 during the same period. The balance in deposits at the end of the year was Rs. 4,584.

*Other Associations of Industrial Employees or Social Workers.*—Out of nine Postal unions which furnished information for the 1926 enquiry, two unions reported that they conducted evening classes for the benefit of postmen in the lower grade and menial establishment. The subjects taught were English, arithmetic, geography and vernacular languages and the attendance amounted to 35.

The Shewa Mandli at Rohri conducted a night school at its branch at Ubauro with an attendance of 30.

The Girni Kamgar Mahamandal in Bombay maintained a reading-room for the benefit of its members and the members of the Currency Office union have also made provision for some books and papers. Four Postal unions in the Bombay Presidency made provision for both reading-rooms and libraries, two unions had only reading-rooms, one provided literature on postal affairs only, and another subscribed to a few newspapers which were circulated amongst the members. The Shewa Mandli at Rohri, an association which does welfare work for the benefit of farmers, weavers and villagers in Sind, has reading-rooms and libraries at all its branches.

To the best of the knowledge of the Labour Office no recreational facilities are provided by associations of industrial employees other than those dealt with above.

*Employment of Welfare Officers and Workers.*—Except in the case of the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills in Sholapur and the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute at Bombay, no other employers have employed special welfare officers or workers to conduct their welfare activities.

*Provision of Educational Facilities by Employers.*—In accordance with the suggestions made by the Indian Factory Labour Commission of 1908, Government sanctioned in 1913 the opening of special schools for factory operatives at a recurring annual cost of Rs. 2,080 and a special simplified course was drawn up and sanctioned for these schools. Owing, however, to the migratory habits of the children, spasmodic attendance, and defective accommodation progress was inappreciable. In 1916 an understanding was arrived at between the representatives of the Millowners' association and the Bombay Schools committee whereby the Schools committee were to open schools at certain centres and the Millowners' association undertook to pay fees and give bonuses for regular attendance. In 1917 there were ten factory schools, with an attendance of 465 children, in Bombay. In 1921 there were only five such schools with an attendance of 310 children. It was found that the principal difficulty to be contended with was the unwillingness of the children to attend the schools provided, and the conclusion arrived at was that no rapid progress in the education of factory children could be looked for until compulsory education was introduced in the areas in which these children reside. The Bombay Municipality have now introduced compulsory education in F and G wards which are chiefly peopled by millhands.

*For Adult Workers.*—In Bombay City no provision has been made by the employers for the education of their adult workers. In Ahmedabad also there is no special provision except a small library in the compound of the Calico mill. In the Government factories at Kirkee the work of promoting literacy among the employees is carried on by the Kirkee Educational society which is well supported by the factory authorities. The society conducts two night schools at Kirkee proper and four in the neighbouring villages. These six schools have an attendance of about 400 pupils. In the Sholapur district there are four free libraries maintained by the millowners for the use of the millhands. The Gokak Falls Mills Company maintains a night school for its adult workers.

*For Half-time Workers.*—No schools are maintained in Bombay city for half-time workers. In Ahmedabad, during the years 1918 to 1922, the Jubilee and the Calico mills started a scheme for the education of their half-timers. A spacious building was constructed for this purpose and the mills offered scholarships of Rs. 4 per month to half-timers attending the school. The mill authorities were, however, not satisfied with the response from their workers for what they did and the scheme was, therefore, abandoned. The Advance Mill still runs a school for half-timers which was started in 1921. One set of pupils attend the school between 10 and 12 in the morning and the other set from 1 to 3.30 in the afternoon. All the half-timers in the mill attend the school. In all there are 21 boys and 24 girls on the rolls. The school is situated within the mill compound and workers' children who are not half-timers are not admitted. Three mills in the Sholapur district have made provision for the primary education of half-timers. These half-timers read up to the primary second standard and receive instruction for about 2½ hours a day. There is a primary day school at Dapuri, near Poona, which is intended for the half-timers employed in the Government workshop at Dapuri.

*For Workers' Children.*—In Bombay City the employers do not conduct any schools for workers' children but some of the cotton mills give special grants for this purpose to bodies carrying on educational work in the city. Donations are given out of the Currimbhoj Trust Fund to the technical school started at Parel by the Bombay Social Service League. In Ahmedabad eight mills maintain schools for workers' children. The Calico Mill School is managed by the Municipality; the Jubilee, the Bharat Textile and the Bharat Cotton Mills Schools by the Labour Union, and the rest by the mills themselves. The Jubilee Mill has framed a scheme according to which school fees and text-books are supplied to the workers' children or the dependants of workers whose pay does not exceed Rs. 150 per month. The Jubilee Mill is also running a Montessori school for the benefit of workers' children between the ages of 2½ and 5 years. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association used to contribute from 1922 a sum of Rs. 15,000 per year, being the interest from their contribution of 2½ lakhs to the Tilak Swaraj Fund for the educational activities conducted by the Ahmedabad Labour Union. Since April, 1928, however, this contribution has been stopped as the Union has declined to allow the Association to have voice in the method of spending the money. The G.I.P. Railway makes a grant of Rs. 1,000 per year to the G.I.P. Railway Anglo-Vernacular School for the benefit of the sons of railway employees at Manmad. The Gokak Falls Mills Company has maintained a primary school and since December, 1928, an English class has been attached to standard V of the primary school. A separate girls' schools has also been started. An English teaching school has been started since June, 1929.

*Extent to which utilized.*—Information on this point is not available except in the case of Ahmedabad. In Ahmedabad the number of mill children attending schools built by the employers is about 300. The Calico Mill has engaged two men to fetch children to the school, and the attendance is higher than in other schools. In spite of this, however, all children do not attend the school because parents do not take sufficient interest in the education of their children.

*Co-operation.*—Efforts have been made in this Presidency to organize co-operative societies among industrial labouring classes since the year 1911–12. The first society among the mill-hands was organized by Diwan Bahadur A. U. Malji in his spinning mill at Broach, with a capital of Rs. 1,557. There are at present 104 societies for this class of people in Bombay City and the suburbs, and five outside Bombay with a total working capital of Rs. 5,55,924 and a membership of 9,374. A list of such societies showing the dates of registration and their present condition will be found in Appendix V.

The question of the formation of co-operative societies among millhands and artisans was not taken up till the year 1912 in this Presidency, when the Broach Industrial Millhands' Society and four societies in the Western India Mills at Bombay were registered. The object of these societies was to relieve millhands by granting them loans for short periods to tide them over the period—about six weeks—during which their pay is held back by their employers as a security for their good conduct, and, secondly, to supply cheap groceries to their members. A note on co-operation among the millhands was placed before the Provincial Co-operative Conference in the year 1913 by Mr. G. K. Dewdhar, M.A., of the Servants of India Society, and in pursuance of the resolution of that conference, societies amongst millhands were organized.

At the Provincial Conference of 1914 the question of Debt Redemption among the urban labouring classes was further discussed. In the year 1917, Rao Sahab H. V. Rajwadkar again raised the question of co-operative societies for factory workers. The bye-laws for co-operative societies for factory workers were accordingly

framed and about 60 societies were organized. The Government of Bombay also sanctioned the appointment of a special auditor for welfare work in Bombay City to audit and supervise the societies.

The societies in Bombay may be divided into three classes according to the three agencies by which they were organized :—

(1) For the debt redemption societies, members of suitable types were selected from the groups of millhands united by caste or by common employment in various departments of the mills. The members bound themselves to take up debentures in the societies by regular monthly deposits out of their pay. The whole scheme was under the control of a strong committee called "The Debt Redemption Committee" of which the Honourable Mr. C. H. A. Hill, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., was president, and a small committee was formed for the purpose of taking an active interest in the affairs of the societies and generally in guiding them in their work. Through the efforts of Mr. Devadhar and his friends over Rs. 15,000 were secured from several generous friends. On the recommendation of the Provincial Co-operative Conference of 1914, the Government of Bombay sanctioned a grant of Rs. 500 per year, to the Bombay Debt Redemption Committee for the purpose of carrying on educational and inspection work in the then existing societies as well as the new societies which were started thereafter. In the year 1919 they also sanctioned an annual subvention not exceeding Rs. 750 for a further period of three years from 1st April, 1919, to the Debt Redemption Committee or any Banking Union into which it may merge. The members in the beginning displayed very keen interest and took pride in their societies and the progress made in thrift, temperance and self-respect was remarkable for some years. Nineteen societies were organized under this scheme but in the year 1919 it was found that some of the societies were very inefficient and unsatisfactory, partly owing to the circumstances connected with the Great War. The experience gained as to the working of the majority of these societies was very disappointing. The members made punctual repayments during the first few years but from 1919 onwards it became very difficult for the committee to make recoveries. Under such circumstances the overdues produced a demoralizing effect, and many of the members failed to repay their dues in spite of the strong moral pressure brought to bear on them by the promoters of the societies. At present over 50 per cent. of the outstandings are in arrears. The only satisfactory feature of the arrangement was that the money was raised by taking donations from the wealthy people in Bombay on a semi-philanthropic basis, and even if big losses occur in this part of the scheme, no money belonging to the outside depositors will be lost. In fact, from the very beginning this scheme had been organized more in a spirit of philanthropy than of self-help.

(2) The Social Service League, under the guidance of Mr. N. M. Joshi, organized a few independent societies and also founded two workmen's institutes in connection with the Currimbhoy and Tata groups of mills, and by utilizing the services of the permanent staff of these two institutes as a supervising and controlling agency, 39 societies among the millhands were organized by the year 1919. The League, profiting by the mistakes of the early pioneers, did not try to redeem the old debts of the millhands and became very cautious in their dealings by regulating advances in proportion to the wages of the millhands. A grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000 per annum is being given by the Government of Bombay to the Social Service League in order to enable it to carry on its activities in respect of the spread of co-operation in the city of Bombay, particularly among the millhands. The Bombay Central Co-operative Institute has also a branch at Dadar to carry on propaganda among these classes. Two welfare institutes called "The Tata Welfare Institute" and "The E. D. Sassoon Welfare Institute," were organized in 1925 to assist in the organization, supervision and control of the co-operative societies of the millhands under these two agencies. The work of these institutes is carried on by a board of management constituted thus :—Three members nominated by the agents; three members nominated by the Central Co-operative Institute; one member elected by the societies in each mill; one co-opted member. The agents have agreed to bear almost the whole cost of Rs. 2,000 annually incurred by the institute for the pay of the secretary, peon and other charges.

(3) The third agency was that of Rao Sahab H. V. Rajwadkar and his friends, who, by their own personal influence, formed a dozen societies among the labouring classes of Bombay city on the basis of caste or similarity of occupation.

Outside Bombay city the movement among millhands has developed sporadically, depending on the amount of interest taken by the management in the working of these societies. Among the millhands of Hariapur and Mansukhpura at Ahmedabad, two promising little societies were started by Miss Anusayaben Sarabhai. These societies were doing very well for some time, but the very next year after the registration of these societies, owing to political influences, they ceased to work as

organizations registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, and had to be wound up. The Broach Fine Counts Mill Employees' Co-operative Credit Society, being the first society among millhands, continues to work satisfactorily and has built up a reserve fund of Rs. 5,220 and has got a working capital of Rs. 7,090. Two millhands' societies in the Pratap Mills at Amalner are doing very good work and the managing agents and the proprietors of the mills take sympathetic interest in the well-being of the societies. These two societies at Amalner have a working capital of over Rs. 2 lakhs, out of which Rs. 1,75,000 is contributed by the members as share capital, deposits and reserve fund.

#### Chapter VI.—Safety.

*Existing Regulations in Factories.*—Section 18 (1) (a) of the Indian Factories Act provides for the fencing of fly wheels and parts of engines. Section 18 (1) (b) for the fencing of hoists or teagles, hoist wells, trap doors, etc. Section 18 (1) (c) provides for the fencing of the machinery, electrical fittings, etc., which the Local Government may by Rule require to be kept fenced. Each Province has adopted special Rules in this respect. Section 18 (2) provides that the Inspector may serve an order (subject to appeal) with a time limit to secure the fencing of other dangerous machinery or mill gearing.

Section 18 (4) provides for the framing of Rules for the protection from danger of persons employed in attending to the machinery or boilers of any factory. Rules 39 to 43 of the Bombay Rules have been thus framed.

Section 16 provides for means of escape in case of fire.

Section 17 prohibits smoking in the immediate vicinity of inflammable material.

Section 18-A permits an appealable order to be served in respect of repairs to buildings and the use of any part of the ways, works, machinery or plant in a factory. It also provides for an appealable order to be served to prohibit the use of any part of the ways, works, machinery or plant if imminent danger to human life is involved.

Section 19 prohibits the cleaning of machinery in motion by women or children and the working between the fixed and traversing parts of self-acting machines. It also provides for the prohibition of cleaning specified machinery in motion by male adults.

Section 19-A grants power to an Inspector to serve an appealable order to prevent the admission of underaged children to factories involving danger. A general order to ginning factories has been served.

Section 19-B prohibits the employment of women and young persons in certain lead operations and allows their employment in others subject to conditions.

Section 20 specially deals with a risk to women in cotton pressing factories.

*Incidence of accidents.*—The following table shows the incidence of accidents in factories in the Bombay Presidency :—

Year.	Number of persons injured.				Average per 100 operatives employed.	Remarks.
	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.		
1926 ..	49	875	3,060	3,984	1.04	A "serious" accident is one that involves loss of an eye or limb or absence from duty due to the accident for more than 30 days. In practice, this is considered the difference between the date of the accident and the date of return to duty. The "serious" accidents are thus unduly swollen.
1927 ..	59	1,169	3,572	4,800	1.25	
1928 ..	39	1,060	3,419	4,518	1.27	

*Causes of accidents.*—The following table analyses accidents by causes :—

Causes of accidents.	1927.				1928.			
	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.
<b>I. Machinery—</b>								
(a) Prime movers .. .. .	—	7	6	13	1	6	5	12
(b) Transmission machinery—								
(1) Millgearing, shafts, pulleys .. .. .	1	10	11	22	1	5	3	9
(2) Belts .. .. .	6	42	57	105	4	26	16	46
(c) Lifting machinery—								
(1) Hoists .. .. .	—	6	5	11	2	5	1	8
(2) Other lifting gear .. .. .	1	11	52	64	1	14	26	41
(d) Working Machinery—								
(1) Textile machinery								
(a) Blow room machinery .. .. .	—	85	37	102	1	41	21	63
(b) Carding room machinery .. .. .	2	87	45	134	—	58	28	85
(c) Drawing machinery .. .. .	—	21	16	37	1	21	10	31
(d) Speed frames .. .. .	—	31	33	64	—	23	10	33
(e) Spinning machinery .. .. .	1	45	33	79	—	45	15	60
(f) Looms .. .. .	—	97	176	273	—	81	139	220
(g) Calenders .. .. .	—	18	6	24	—	13	6	19
(h) Unclassified textile machinery .. .. .	1	70	77	148	3	73	61	137
(2) Machine tools .. .. .	1	75	245	321	—	78	248	328
(3) Miscellaneous unclassified machinery .. .. .	3	47	25	75	1	67	34	102
<b>II. Transport—</b>								
(a) Rolling stock on lines .. .. .	—	18	18	36	1	11	6	18
(b) Rolling stock not on lines .. .. .	—	3	5	8	—	3	6	9
<b>III. Persons falling—</b>								
(a) From altitudes .. .. .	6	45	87	138	3	24	72	99
(b) Into excavations, pits, etc. .. .. .	4	7	17	28	—	4	18	22
(c) On level .. .. .	1	21	67	89	—	23	44	67
<b>IV. Falling objects—</b>								
(a) Handled by injured person .. .. .	2	114	508	624	—	113	458	571
(b) Not handled by injured person .. .. .	5	32	171	208	5	22	90	117
<b>V. Hand tools (including chips and particles set in motion by them)—</b>								
(a) In hands of injured person .. .. .	—	76	759	835	—	69	823	892
(b) In hands of other person .. .. .	1	10	137	148	—	8	119	127
<b>VI. Electricity .. .. .</b>	1	4	1	6	—	2	5	7
<b>VII. Poisons, corrosive substances and occupational diseases .. .. .</b>	—	5	18	23	—	3	20	23
<b>VIII. Explosions and fires—</b>								
(a) Boiler and steam pressure equipment .. .. .	1	3	6	10	1	2	—	3
(b) Other explosions .. .. .	—	3	4	7	3	3	2	8
(c) Fires .. .. .	5	15	2	22	3	14	9	26
(d) Hot substances and flames .. .. .	2	28	128	158	5	35	129	169
<b>IX. Miscellaneous among the millers—</b>								
(a) Heat prostration .. .. .	—	25	176	201	—	17	144	161
(b) Stepping on or striking objects .. .. .	—	95	599	694	1	106	840	947
(c) Others .. .. .	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>1,137</b>	<b>3,530</b>	<b>4,714</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>3,409</b>	<b>4,461</b>	

*Accident prevention (including "Safety-first" propaganda).*—Statistical research into the causes of accidents was introduced some years ago in the Factory Department. Accidents are thus not only classified by cause but an internal classification as to the part of the machine causing the accident has also been adopted. This enables concentration on special types of accidents to be made. The system has already been fruitful of results, since, by its aid the Mill Owners' Associations agreed to change the shuttle guards on a large number of looms and to provide new carding machines with automatic locks on the stripping doors while the Mill Owners' Mutual Insurance Association agreed to bear the cost of Safety Posters. An extended use of goggles to prevent eye accidents in the Railway workshops has also been secured. The Rules require Inspectors to enquire into all accidents so that accidents receive more attention from Inspectors in Bombay than in other countries. The Factory Department, in co-operation with the Railway Workshop authorities, produced four "Safety-first" Posters in 1926. These were the first industrial "Safety-first" Posters in India. They have been introduced in the large engineering shops throughout the Presidency, and were intended to educate the workers in an endeavour to reduce types of accidents in which the knowledge or carefulness of the operative is the controlling factor.

The posters illustrate :—(1) Right and wrong methods of chipping or fettling ; (2) Right and wrong methods of working at a forge ; (3) Right and wrong methods of using a mallet ; (4) Right and wrong methods of slinging.

The G.I.P. Railway authorities have also introduced an illustrated booklet dealing with general railway safety which includes a chapter on workshop safety.

The Mill Owners' Mutual Insurance Association, Bombay, agreed to pay for "Safety Posters" for the Textile Industry. These have been recently produced by the Factory Department in co-operation with them and with vernacular captions have been posted in the mills of the Presidency.

The Safety Pamphlets issued by the Home Office in England have been placed on sale and 774 copies sold.

The Inspectors have been impressing upon the lower subordinates in the mills the necessity of explaining the danger points of machinery and processes to ignorant workers before they are allowed to handle the machines.

In some factories, safety rules have been introduced.

*First Aid and Medical Relief.*—Most of the large factories engage part time doctors and full time compounders with provisions for first aid. The Railway workshops, and a few other concerns employ full time medical officers. In the smaller factories satisfactory first-aid appliances are often not maintained.

A provision in the Factories Act requiring the maintenance of prescribed first-aid boxes appears to be desirable.

*Stringency of inspection and Enforcement of Regulations.*—The following tables are of interest in connection with the question of the stringency of inspection :—

(1) *Industry generally (Perennial Factoris).*

Year.	Number of factories.	Inspections.				Uninspected.	Remarks.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than thrice.		
1926 ..	675	112	178	246	131	8	Full time staff and ex-officio inspectors.
1927 ..	678	70	191	153	259	5	
1928 ..	715	91	206	177	232	9	

(2) *Seasonal Industries.*

Year.	Number of factories.	Inspections.				Uninspected.	Remarks.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than thrice.		
1926 ..	723	321	247	106	31	18	Full time staff and ex-officio inspectors.
1927 ..	748	296	301	121	23	7	
1928 ..	783	264	347	134	32	6	

In addition to the above, the full-time staff of the factory department made 2,592 special visits in 1926, 2,369 in 1927, and 2,285 in 1928, for accident enquiries or surprise visits to check observance of the specified hours, holidays or rest periods.

As regards the enforcement of regulations, the following table is of interest :—

Year.	Cases.	Total fines.	Remarks.
1926 .. ..	599	Rs. 9,382	Full-time staff only.
1927 .. ..	237	4,125	
1928 .. ..	326	8,275	

*Effect of Hours of Work on Safety.*—An analysis of 1,016 railway workshop accidents was made to ascertain whether fatigue had any bearing on accident causation. The results were as follows :—

	Time of occurrence of accidents.								
	8 to 9	9 to 10	10 to 11	11 to 12	1 to 2	2 to 3	3 to 4	4 to 5	5 to 5.30
Number of accidents.	75	164	177	127	77	112	137	104	43

It appears that fatigue has little, if any, bearing on the accident rate in railway workshops.

### Chapter VII.—Workmen's Compensation.

*Workmen's Compensation Act.*—The Workmen's Compensation Act was passed in 1923 and came into operation on the 1st July, 1924. As the Commission will, no doubt, be provided with copies of the Act, it is not necessary to enter into details with regard to its provisions, the classes of workers with which it deals, or the scales of compensation which have been laid down. Having regard to the importance of Bombay as an industrial province, it was decided to appoint a full-time Commissioner to deal with cases arising in the more important industries and industrial centres of the Presidency. The jurisdiction of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, now covers Bombay City, Bombay suburban district, and the districts of Ahmedabad, Broach, Surat, Khandesh and Sholapur. It also covers the B.B. and C.I. and the G.I.P. Railways in the Bombay Presidency. The Commissioner also deals with all cases arising in the Presidency to which the hydro-electric companies managed by Messrs. Tata Sons, Ltd., are a party. His jurisdiction, therefore, covers the greater part of the industrial area of the Presidency. For the rest, ex-officio Commissioners have been appointed. These are Judges of the Small Causes Courts, where they exist, or in other cases the First Class Subordinate Judge or the Second Class Subordinate Judge for the administrative district. The full-time Commissioner first appointed under the Act was a practising barrister. In April, 1928, he was promoted to act as a District Judge, and the officer in charge of the Labour Office, who is also a barrister and had had some experience of workmen's compensation in England, has been performing the duties of Commissioner in addition to his other duties.

A full statement of accidents for which compensation has been paid, the industries in which they have occurred, etc., is printed as Appendix VI. This gives the statistics up to the end of the year 1928 and shows that the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation does the bulk of the Workmen's Compensation work in the Presidency. He has dealt with 1,690 cases, involving the payment of nearly 7½ lakhs of rupees, while all the other ex-officio Commissioners have together dealt with 224 cases, involving the payment of about one lakh of compensation. A very large number of the ex-officio Commissioners rarely have a contested case to deal with, most of them having distribution cases only.

The following note by the Bombay Accident Insurance Association indicates the advantages of a full-time Commissioner and the point need not be further elaborated :—“The local Governments of Bengal, Bombay and Madras have appointed one official as Commissioner under the Act for the whole province (in the case of Bombay for all the important industrial areas) but in other Provinces, District Magistrates, or in the case of the Central Provinces, District and Sessions Judges have been appointed Commissioners in their respective districts. In view of the material changes in the Act likely to be effected in the near future and the growing complexity of the handling and disposal of claims, it now appears desirable that one Commissioner should be appointed for those Provinces in which no single Commissioner at present exists. The disadvantages of the present system of appointing district officials as commissioners are briefly as follows :—(1) Hardship caused by delay in the disposal of cases ; (2) Inconvenience to the parties connected with the claims ; (3) Absence of an expert Commissioner acquainted with Workmen's Compensation Law ; and (4) The undesirability of an executive officer being called upon to adjudicate in contested claims.

“Experience shows that district officials are, generally speaking, already fully occupied with a large volume of other judicial and executive work, and are not able rapidly to dispose of the cases which come before them. Such officials are not available for consultation with employers and workmen's representatives, and, in



view of pressure of other work, workmen's compensation cases are, not infrequently, protracted by numerous postponements. Moreover, these district officials' courts are not adequately equipped with clerical staff and other appliances necessary for the speedy handling of claims and the correspondence connected therewith.

"As regards (2) above, managers and other responsible officials of factories and collieries are frequently detained at the Commissioner's Court longer than absolutely necessary in contested claims, and the delay in the disposal of these cases causes much hardship to the dependants and inconvenience to the employer.

"Referring to (3) above, it is generally admitted that the subject of workmen's compensation is one which does not come within the study of the average judicial officer. It requires an intensive survey of the large volume of case law which has arisen in England, and a fairly wide knowledge of medical terms and technical phrases used in various industries. If one official were appointed for the whole Province the large number of cases would enable him speedily to acquire expert knowledge of such matters.

"As regards (4) above, it is undesirable that the official appointed as Commissioner for the administration of the Act should be the same person who is liable to be called upon at any time to hold an enquiry, under the orders of the local Government, into the circumstances of an accident in his executive capacity or otherwise. This may tend to pre-dispose him in favour of either one party or the other which should not be so as workmen's compensation claims have judicially to be decided."

*Extent of use of Act.*—The statistical information available as to the number of persons engaged in the various industries covered by the Act does not enable any estimate to be made of the extent of the use of the Act. The details of accidents given in the Factory Report cannot be compared with those published by the Workmen's Compensation Office. In the first place the Factory Report refers to accidents which happened during the year under report, and those for the Workmen's Compensation office refer to cases disposed of during the year under report. Moreover, a fatal accident might happen in a factory where the workman would be entitled to compensation, but it would not be an accident that is reported under the Factories Act. Again, all statistical information of this kind relating to railways is sent to the Railway Board and not to local Governments and, of course, a number of trades are covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act which do not have to report to anybody accidents occurring in those industries. It may, however, be assumed that compensation has been paid in every case of a fatal accident where such compensation was legally payable. As regards serious accidents, with regard to which statistics are given in the Factory Report, here again no comparison whatever is possible with the Workmen's Compensation Act returns, because a "serious" accident in the Factory Report may not lead to "permanent disablement," which is one of the three types of injury for which compensation is payable, the others being "death" and "temporary disablement."

Having regard to the fact that the Workmen's Compensation Act applies almost entirely to occupations which are hazardous but which are also organized, it is probable that the great majority of workmen who are entitled to compensation receive it. That some of the smaller factory employers do try to evade their liabilities is unfortunately true, but it is not thought that the extent of such evasion is other than negligible as compared with the volume of compensation actually paid. So far as the large employers of labour are concerned, and indeed employers generally, the Act has been used with fairness and even with generosity, while so far as the insurance companies are concerned they have, so far as the experience of the Commissioner goes, always given the workman the benefit of the doubt. The volume of litigation has been relatively small, and the High Court has scarcely been troubled at all with the task of interpreting the Act and evolving a body of case law, which is so marked a feature of the Workmen's Compensation Act in England. The fact that the Indian Act is modelled upon the English Acts has enabled the Commissioners, in interpreting the Indian Act, to base their decisions on the principles which have been laid down by the highest judicial tribunal in the Empire, the House of Lords. Moreover, employers and insurance companies have not found it necessary to take the opinion of the Courts of Appeal on debatable points in order to establish general principles, such as those involved in interpreting the meaning of "out of and in the course of" employment. Some sections of the Act have proved difficult of interpretation, but on the whole the Commissioners in contested cases have had to deal with questions of fact rather than questions of law.

*Effect on Industry.*—The effect on industry, if by this is meant the financial burden on industry, as distinct from that involved in the necessity for employers to look after the safety of their men, or the bearing of workmen's compensation on industrial efficiency, absenteeism, malingering and so on, has been very small and no complaints have been made that any hardship has been inflicted on any industry.

Most of the insurance companies doing workmen's compensation business have a common tariff, but in cases where the total wages of any one firm or employer or for any one individual contract are estimated to exceed one lakh per annum special rates may be fixed by the Bombay Accident Insurance Association in which case the printed rates have usually been reduced. For example, the book-rate for cotton mill employees is 4 annas per 100 rupees, the special rate is 3 annas per 100 rupees, the book-rate for aluminium foundry hands is 20 annas per cent., and the special rate is 16 annas per cent., while for tramway employees in the upkeep and running departments the book-rate is 18 annas, the special rate is 10 annas.

Rates for some of the more important industries which are covered by the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act are :—

Occupation.	Rate per 100 Rupees.
Brass founders, workers and finishers—	Annas.
Foundry hands .. .. .	20
All other employees .. .. .	7
Builders and employees engaged in the shop or yard or on construction of buildings .. .. .	24
Workmen engaged in demolition of buildings (with some exceptions) .. .. .	128
Chemical works .. .. .	24
Cotton ginning and pressing factories .. .. .	10
Cotton godowns and warehouses .. .. .	4
Stevedores loading and/or unloading coal or cargo .. .. .	48
Employees engaged in blasting .. .. .	56
Light and power, erection of plant, installations and repairs in generating stations and certain other places .. .. .	12 to 24
Engineers, bridge building—	
Up to 20 ft. in height .. .. .	20
Over 20 ft. .. .. .	40
Bridge, column and girder buildings .. .. .	64
Men employed on gasometers and tanks away from the shop or yard .. .. .	80
Hydraulic machinery erecting away from shop or yard .. .. .	48
Engineers not specially classified .. .. .	16
Wood-working machinists .. .. .	60
Leather dressers and dyers .. .. .	8
Metal workers, usually .. .. .	8
Printers and lithographers, excluding printing of daily newspapers .. .. .	5
Daily newspapers, excluding lead poisoning .. .. .	8
Quarries—	
Where no blasting is done .. .. .	18
Where any blasting is done .. .. .	27
Mines other than coal mines .. .. .	27 to 32
Railway upkeep and running .. .. .	10 to 20
Rice millers .. .. .	8 to 16
Saw mills, felling, sawing and carting of trees .. .. .	60
Sewer and road contractors .. .. .	20 to 64
Shipbuilders .. .. .	24 to 48
Steel or ironfounders not otherwise classified .. .. .	10 to 28
Steel or iron rolling mills .. .. .	20
Steel making .. .. .	14 to 20
Telephones and telegraphs—	
Work outside buildings .. .. .	40
All other work .. .. .	14

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association charge a flat rate for the textile mills of three annas per hundred rupees of expended wages. This rate was first initiated by this association and was later accepted by other insurance companies. The association also insures risks under the Workmen's Compensation Act in other industries carried on by its members, and it is believed that the rates in such cases are approximately 25 per cent. cheaper than those charged by other insurance companies. The Association has insured 45 textile mills in Bombay, and there are also on the register of the Association 12 mills from other parts of the country.

*Insurance facilities.*—Complete insurance facilities are available for any employer who desires to make use of them, because, apart from indigenous insurance companies, most of the big British companies doing workmen's compensation business are represented in Bombay, usually by their own representatives sent out by head office.

From the worker's point of view it does not matter very much whether his employer is insured or not, where he is a railway servant or a tramway worker or a seaman or the employee of a port trust or other big local body, all of which carry their own insurance. In some of the smaller factories it would be an advantage to the workman if his employer was insured, because he would get his money more rapidly and with less argument, and it has been found, especially in Ahmedabad, that employers who are insured usually act as counsel for the workman. Any system of compulsory insurance, however, would be full of administrative difficulties, and would, in practice, be unworkable, especially when, as is proposed, the Act is further extended to trades and occupations where the employers are even less organized than they are at present. It is significant that the insurance companies do not favour compulsory insurance.

*Desirability of extending the Act to other Occupations.*—The question of the desirability of extending the Act has been very fully discussed in response to an enquiry from the Government of India quite recently, and the detailed report sent to the Government of India will no doubt be available to the Commission. The following letter from the Government of Bombay to the Government of India expresses the opinions of the Government of Bombay and it is not necessary to deal with the matter further :—

Sir,—I have the honour to refer to your No. L.1125, dated the 30th November, 1928, in which the Government of Bombay is asked to re-examine the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and to make suggestions as to its amendment. In paragraph 18 of your letter you set out the main questions on which the Government of India desire to receive opinions and it will be convenient to reply under those heads. A large number of bodies and associations have been consulted representing every possible interest and the suggestions made by the Government of India have been most carefully considered in all their aspects.

*2. Question No. 1.*—To what fresh classes of employees, if any, should the Act be extended ?

This is one of the most important matters for consideration and there is a variety of opinion with regard to it. Important commercial interests such as the Chamber of Commerce and the Indian Merchants' Chamber think that the Act is already sufficiently comprehensive, although the latter suggest that workmen engaged in the construction of dams and tunnels should be included. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association are of the same opinion, but recommend extension to plantations. The bulk of the replies, however, seems to favour giving the Act a wider scope and extending the number of occupations to be covered, and as an illustration of the care and impartiality with which the employers of Bombay have considered this question it may be pointed out that the suggestions for extension to various trades and occupations come from employers in those industries themselves. The extension to all organized industries is generally recommended, but some of the recommendations, especially from the workers' interests, would apply to the most unorganized occupations which it would be difficult to define and almost impossible to include with any hope of administering an Act so framed. Having carefully considered the recommendations that have been made, the Government of Bombay suggests that the following occupations should be added to Schedule 2 :—

Any person employed in the construction, upkeep or demolition of any dam more than 20 feet high or of any canal or any embankment, cutting dock, harbour, or tunnel,

or employed by any borough, municipality or district local board in the construction or upkeep of roads,

or employed in the construction, repair or removal of pipe lines, gas, electricity, and water mains, where the principal is a company engaged in the production and distribution of gas or water or electrical energy, or is a borough municipality.

Drivers of mechanically propelled vehicles belonging to any local authority or any tramway company.

Any person engaged in the loading and unloading or transport of goods within the area of any dock, harbour, or port authority, or employed on dredgers, tugs, barges or other vessels owned or operated by a Port authority or engaged in submarine diving operations in connection with the service of a Port authority.

Workmen employed within the meaning of clause 2, section 2 of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, in any place which is a factory within the meaning of sub-clause (b) of clause 3 of that section.

The schedule should be amended so as to include the following :

Persons engaged in the construction, repair, or demolition of any building more than one storey in height or more than 20 feet in height irrespective of the purpose for which the building is required.

The limited definition of seamen, the effect of which is to deprive almost all Indian seamen of any *legal* benefit under the Act, quite apart from agreements with the owners and to which the attention of the Government of India has already been called, should be amended in such a way as to include all lascars and other Indian seamen employed in British and foreign and coast-going ships.

3. *Question No. III.*—Should any provisions be introduced for securing workmen against possible loss by reason of the inability of their employer to pay any compensation that may be due ?

Compulsory insurance, which would be the only possible method of securing workmen against loss is not generally favoured, and all the important employers' interests are definitely opposed to it. Some of the workers' interests favour the proposal, but the Textile Labour Association of Ahmedabad, which has had a great deal of experience of the working of the Act, is not in favour of compulsory insurance, but suggests that a claim for compensation against a defaulting employer should be made a first charge on his estate or his business or his successor in business. The Government of Bombay is of opinion, therefore, that a claimant under the Workmen's Compensation Act should be treated as a preferential creditor, but it is not in favour of compulsory insurance.

4. *Question No. IIII.*—To what extent, if any, should recurring payments be substituted for the lump sums at present payable under the Act ?

On this question there seems to be general agreement that lump sums are preferable to recurring payments. As the Bombay Accident Insurance Association points out, the lump sum system has worked admirably and has reduced litigation in no small degree. The Association does not consider that the average Indian workman is improvident after receipt of a lump sum as compensation, and—a very important consideration—the schedule enables the employer to settle the claim rapidly and with equity. The Act as amended this year already gives the Commissioner discretion as regards women, minors, or persons under a legal disability, and too much emphasis cannot be given to the fact that one of the main reasons why the present Act has worked so smoothly and has been so remarkably free from difficulty is the principle of paying lump sum compensation as opposed to pensions. If this principle were changed, it is extremely likely that considerable difficulty and litigation would arise. The acting Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, points out that in practice the workman always prefers a lump sum and he has not come across one case where a man has asked that some arrangement should be made for the payment to him of a pension. The difficulties involved in the purchase of an annuity for a disabled workman or the dependants of a dead workman are considerable and where there are several dependants the annuity would be absurdly small. In the first place it is rare for a workman to know his age, and age is of the first importance when one is dealing with annuities. Again, quite 90 per cent. of the dependants of workmen come from outside Bombay or, if they are living in Bombay, go back to their native place. The same applies to workmen. Arrangements for payment of pensions would, therefore, have to be made through the Post Office, while the extra work involved in the office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation would necessitate an extra staff. If, on the other hand, it were proposed to dole out the money monthly or yearly, this is a practice to be deprecated. Sooner or later the money comes to an end, and the recipient finds himself with no means whatever, or may die before the capital sum is exhausted and then his heirs have to be ascertained and the money paid over. The Governor in Council is, therefore, of opinion that the present system of lump sum payments, with the safeguards for women, etc., that have been provided by the amending Act, is the system best suited to Indian conditions.

5. *Question No. IV.*—Should the scales of compensation be enhanced either for the more poorly paid workmen or generally ?

This has been found to be a difficult question. Several important bodies are of opinion that the present scales of compensation are sufficient. Others, that they should be enhanced, not generally, but for particular classes. The workers' interests are unanimous in asking for an increase, not only in the minimum compensation payable but in the maximum and also as to the number of months' wages which should form the basis of the compensation, some of the suggestions going as high as double the present scale. In this connexion it should be pointed out that in this country dependency on a deceased workman does not have to be proved, nor the extent of the dependency. The maximum compensation is payable wherever there is a relative coming within the definition of dependant as laid down in the Act, and that relative is very often not a dependant in the literal sense. In countries where the scale of compensation is higher than in India, the burden on the employer is reduced so far as fatal accidents are concerned, by this provision requiring proof not only of dependency, but of the extent of it, because the amount of compensation depends upon whether the dependant is wholly or partially dependent on the deceased workman. This question is discussed later on in this letter and the existing system in

India is considered to be the one best suited to India, but when demands are made for large increases in the scales of compensation the favourable position of the relatives of workmen should be taken into consideration. There appears to be, however, in the opinion of the Governor in Council, a good case for the raising of the minimum compensation and for the alteration in the table of assumed wages given in Schedule 4. The present minimum, which is only rarely, if ever, reached in respect of cases arising in this Presidency, is Rs. 240 in the case of death and Rs. 336 in the case of permanent disablement. This minimum should be raised to Rs. 400 and Rs. 500 respectively. Schedule 4 should be amended as follows :—

Limits.		Assumed wages.
Less than Rs. 10	.. .. .	Rs. 10
Not less than Rs. 10 but less than Rs. 12	.. .. .	12
" " 12	" " 14	14
" " 14	" " 16	15
" " 16	" " 18	17
" " 18	" " 20	19
" " 20	" " 22-8 annas	21-4 annas.

and so on as in present scale.

Compensation payable in respect of the loss of a thumb should be increased to 30 per cent. and for the loss of the index finger to 15 per cent. The maximum amount payable in respect of half-monthly payments should be raised from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20.

6. *Question No. V.*—Should the waiting period be reduced either generally or in the case of those workmen who are disabled for more than ten days, and if so, to what extent ?

On the question of the waiting period and dating back the weight of opinion is in favour of an alteration of the existing provisions, but there is no agreement as to the extent of the change. The Bombay Accident Insurance Association, which has had a large experience in the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Act, suggests the reduction of the waiting period to seven days, with no dating back. The association points out that the provision of a waiting period as well as its plan and length are the result of a compromise. On the one hand, the workmen's right to compensation is essentially the same whether his incapacity lasts for one or any number of days. On the other hand, there is the inexpediency of paying compensation for a brief duration of disablement. One object of the waiting period is to avoid a large volume of administrative work on account of trifling injuries. If no waiting period were provided, the employer or insurance company would have to handle a very large volume of small claims and the work of investigating and dealing with these would be disproportionately great in relation to the amount of compensation payable. The second object of a waiting period, and from the employers' point of view the most important, is to discourage malingering by making the workman bear the loss of wages himself during the first few days of incapacity. Any principle of dating back in India is, owing to the strong temptation to mangle, most undesirable, but the disadvantage to the workman of the present waiting period of ten days can be mitigated by reducing it to seven days. The association estimates that a reduction of three days would involve an increase of about 25 per cent. in the number of possible cases and an increase of about 10 per cent. in the average cost of all cases of temporary disablement. The change would not cause any administrative difficulty as all large employers are fully acquainted with the method of payment of compensation for temporary disablement, and it is, without doubt, more desirable to effect such a change than to introduce any principle of dating back.

While in general agreement with the views of the Association on this point, the Governor in Council is of opinion that the principle of dating back can safely be applied in those cases where the injury is of such a nature, and persists for such a period of time, as to make the question of malingering of no importance, because of its impossibility. As the acting Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, points out, if a man meets with a serious injury which keeps him in hospital for two months, followed by a convalescent period of two months, there seems no point whatever in depriving him of half-monthly payments for the early days of his absence. The Governor in Council is, therefore, of opinion that the waiting period should be reduced to six days and, where the injury results in incapacity for more than a month, then compensation should be payable as from the date of the accident and not from the end of the waiting period.

7. *Question No. VI.*—Should the list of relatives entitled to claim compensation be enlarged.

Many of the bodies and associations replying to this question make their answers dependent upon whether or not it is decided that proof of dependency should be demanded. The relatives, with regard to whom there is a considerable body of opinion in favour of inclusion, are widowed sisters and widowed daughters. The

acting Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, suggests that they were not included because social custom makes the support of such widows the care of their husband's family. The suggestions made for following some system of inheritance or regulating the amount of compensation according to the extent of the dependency are too complicated for an Act of this kind. Experience suggests that the present list of dependants is sufficiently comprehensive with the addition of a widowed sister or a widowed daughter.

8. *Question No. VII.*—Should proof of dependence be required in order to enable a relative to claim compensation?

The bulk of the employers favour proof of dependence, although some of them recognize the considerable administrative difficulties involved in getting proof of dependence. Workers' interests are divided on the subject. While it is true that the assumption of dependency often leads to considerable sums of money being paid out to people who have not the slightest claim ever to have been dependent on the deceased workman, for example, husbands in respect of the death of their wives, the joint family system, which is still common among the working classes in India, means that all the members of a joint family are in some degree or other interdependent upon each other. It would, therefore, be extremely difficult to administer the Act where proof of dependency was required to entitle a person to compensation. If any provision insisting upon proof of dependency were introduced, it would open the door to a large volume of litigation between relations which would be a very distinct drawback to the Act. Moreover, it would enormously increase the work of the commissioners and entail long delays in the distribution of compensation. A comprehensive list of dependants, as at present, but with no proof of dependency, seems to be the best system for Indian conditions.

9. *Question No. VIII.*—Should the compensation payable vary with the number of dependants and with the extent of their dependence on the deceased workman?

Opinion from all interests is practically unanimous against this proposal. To introduce a rule of this kind would be to add an unnecessary complication to the Act with no real benefit to anybody. Moreover, there would be long delays, because employers would not deposit compensation until satisfactory proof as to the number of dependants and the extent of their dependency was given. Again, employers would have to become a party to all dependency proceedings, the additional work would be enormous, and litigation greatly increased. The Governor in Council, therefore, is definitely opposed to the suggestion.

10. *Question No. IX.*—Should Section 12 of the Act be amended: (a) so as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the person directly employing the workmen in every case, or (b) so as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the principal, or (c) in any other manner?

The object of Section 12 is to secure that the workman should not lose compensation because of the insolvency or poverty of a contractor or sub-contractor. The Act covers only workmen in occupations that are hazardous and organized and therefore the principals are ordinarily firms of standing. These firms usually accept liability for workmen injured in work undertaken by them and there is no reason why less honest employers should be enabled to escape their liability by creating a chain of subordinate contractors so that liability of compensation should rest on the person directly employing the workman. The system in vogue in India, whereby any large engineering work is split up at various stages among numbers of small contractors who are really nothing more than workers themselves, makes it specially necessary that the firm or person who had taken the main contract should be made liable for any accident taking place on the work. It is not the fault of the workman if the principal does not carry out his contract by direct labour but by a series of intermediaries. The Government of Bombay protects itself, and also the workman, by putting a clause in all contracts that contractors should pay any compensation due under the Workmen's Compensation Act and keeps a certain amount of money due to the contractor in hand to cover possible claims, and other big firms can or should do the same. Sub-clause 2 of Section 12 enables the principal to recover from the contractor, and the only amendment to section 12 required, in the opinion of the Governor in Council, is that the principal should also be able to recover from any sub-contractor. This is necessary because the Calcutta High Court has decided that the principal can get indemnity from a contractor, but neither of them can claim indemnity against a sub-contractor. At the same time the contractor should be able to recover compensation from the principal if the accident was caused by circumstances over which the principal alone had control.

11. *Question No. X.*—Should any penalty be provided in the Act for failure to comply with the provisions of Section 16?

Opinion is almost unanimous on this point that a penalty should be inflicted on employers failing to make returns, and the Governor in Council desires to point out,

with reference to the suggestion made by the Government of India in their letter, that at present employers who intentionally omit to furnish returns can be prosecuted under Section 176 of the Indian Penal Code, that there is no duty cast upon the Commissioner or anyone else to issue reminders to employers and that in practice it is not possible for him to issue intimations to all the establishments that may come under the Workmen's Compensation Act in his jurisdiction. The responsibility for submitting returns is placed on the employer, and the employer only, and it therefore seems reasonable that the Act should provide a small penalty for non-compliance, quite apart from the issue of reminders by the Commissioner and the legal conclusion as regards intention that an omission to answer a reminder may furnish.

12. *Question No. XI.*—Should employers be required to submit returns of accidents in respect of which compensation has not been paid, and if so, to what accidents should this provision apply ?

Opinion is very definitely divided on this point. Having given the matter their careful consideration, the Governor in Council is of opinion that the suggestion made by the Bombay Accident Insurance Association should be adopted, viz., that employers should submit a report to the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation of every fatal accident which occurred in their premises at the time of submitting the report to the Inspector of Factories or Mines, as the case may be. The initial report could be followed by a supplementary statement, at an interval of say not more than one month, as to whether liability to pay compensation in respect of such accident was admitted or not, and that such statements could be put in by insurance companies or mutual associations handling claims on behalf of insured employers. Some additional information as to the volume of accidents in respect of which compensation has not been paid could be obtained by closer co-operation between Commissioners and Inspectors of Mines or Factories, to whom all reports of all accidents incapacitating a man for more than a certain period have to be submitted.

13. *Question No. XII.*—Should a dependant claiming compensation be relieved of the necessity of approaching the employer for the settlement of his claim ?

As a dependant only has a claim to compensation where a fatal accident has occurred and as under Section 8 (1) the responsibility for depositing compensation with the commissioner has been thrown on the employer irrespective of whether a claim has been made or not, there appears to be no reason for requiring the dependants to approach the employer. This would not, of course, affect the right of an employer to notice of an accident as is provided in Section 10 of the Act.

14. *Question No. XIII.*—What steps, if any, should be taken to ensure that dependants who may have valid claims for compensation do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights ?

Various suggestions have been made in this connection, many of them, it would appear, in ignorance of the fact that under Section 8 (1) compensation in respect of fatal accidents has to be deposited with the Commissioner, and that therefore so far as dependants are concerned the employer is not interested in hiding from their rights. The experience of the Bombay Presidency is that dependants do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights. In the only cases where money has been returned to employers it is certain that no dependants exist. The system which obtains in Bombay of people from the same village and the same district finding employment in the same industry makes the ascertainment of dependants relatively easy, and if employers as suggested above are compelled to notify *all* cases of fatal accidents to the Commissioners no difficulty should arise. The Governor in Council is, therefore, of opinion that no special steps are necessary to ensure that dependants who may have valid claims for compensation do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights.

15. *Question No. XIV.*—Should employers be required to maintain a register of relatives of their workmen ?

Almost all the bodies and associations and Government officers who have had practical experience of the working of the Act and the employment of labour generally are opposed to this suggestion, largely because of its impracticability, which is due partly to the ignorance and illiteracy of the workmen and partly to social custom. For example, as the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association points out many workers would be unwilling to give the names of their wives and many women workers will never give the name of their husbands, even when giving evidence on oath. In the case of large numbers of casual workers, e.g., those employed on engineering works or in docks where fatal accidents are particularly likely to occur, such a register would be clearly impracticable. In factories and workshops, where employment is more stable and regular, the difficulties would not be so great, but to keep a register would involve an amount of trouble and investigation quite incommensurate with the result obtained, because, as has been pointed out above, there is never any difficulty in finding one dependant at least and thence ascertaining all those who are

legally entitled under the Workmen's Compensation Act. In this connection the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, points out, "If an employer had to keep a register it would be based upon information supplied by the workman himself. If it is to be of any use at all it would have to contain the names of all the people coming under the definition of dependant, and speaking as a Commissioner I should not take the slightest notice of it. If I did, the tendency would be to assume that the relatives mentioned there were the only dependants, which would rarely be the case. The only case that I have come across where a deceased workman—a seaman—left behind an official record of his relatives, it was discovered that the individual he had put down as his father was not his father at all, but merely the head of his community. The real father then turned up claiming compensation on behalf of himself and his wife. The experience of the Workmen's Compensation Office in Bombay is that there is no necessity for such a register being kept, because there is never any difficulty in ascertaining who are the dependants." The Chief Inspector of Factories also regards the proposal as impracticable, and points out that addresses of injured persons required under the accident form prescribed under Section 34 of the Factories Act are usually obtained at the time of the accidents. The reply to this question is, therefore, in the negative.

16. *Question No. XV.*—Should Commissioners be empowered to call on employers depositing inadequate compensation for fatal accidents to make a further deposit?

Opinion is unanimous in favour of this proposal, and form A should be modified so as to include in it all the particulars necessary for the calculation of wages and such other information as is required to arrive at the correct amount to be paid.

17. *Question No. XVI.*—Should provision be made for the suspension of distributions by the Commissioner pending the disposal of any appeal against his decision?

There is general unanimity as to the desirability of such a provision, and the Governor in Council is of opinion that there is no objection to provisions similar to those in Order 41, Rule 5 of the Civil Procedure Code being incorporated in the Workmen's Compensation Act. It is desirable, however, to give some discretion to the Commissioner in order to prevent the holding up of money by frivolous or vexatious appeals.

18. *Question No. XVII.*—Further suggestions for the amendment of the Act.

A provision should be inserted into the Indian Act on the lines of Section 7 of the English Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 but without going so far. It should be provided that an accident resulting in the death of a workman shall be deemed to arise out of and in the course of his employment unless the employer proves otherwise. At present the onus rests upon the applicant, who is a dependant, usually living in the mofussil, who sometimes finds it difficult in a disputed case to get the evidence necessary to discharge the onus of proof. The employer is in a better position to make out an affirmative case, and the onus should be placed upon him.

The procedure laid down as regards notice in Section 10 of the Indian Act is too elaborate, and if Commissioners did not exercise their discretion to an extent not contemplated by the Act very few workers would get compensation. A provision on the lines of the 1923 Act in England seems to be required. Under this Act notices giving the requirements of the principal Act as regards notice have to be put up in prominent places in the factory, etc. If the employer is proved to have had knowledge of the accident at or about the time of the accident, the want of notice is not a bar to the maintenance of proceedings, nor is it, if the accident has been reported to an Inspector of Mines or Factories, or if the injury has been treated in an ambulance room at the mine, factory, etc. Moreover, notice of any accident may be given either in writing or orally to the employer or to any foreman or other official under whose supervision the workman is employed. The Governor in Council is of opinion that the provisions of Section 10 as regards notice should be simplified, but that the provision with regard to making a claim for compensation should not be altered, as, if constructive notice is allowed then the employer should be protected so far as the institution of a claim is concerned.

Workers in the R.I.M. Dockyard and workshops who are not members of the Royal Indian Marine should be able to recover compensation for injury. It is inequitable that coolies working in the R.I.M. Dockyard should not get compensation on the ground that they belong to the Royal Indian Marine.

During the same period 472 cases involving the ascertainment of dependants and distribution of money to them were disposed of, and 827 agreements were registered. In Appendix VII will be found the number of persons in each wage class to whom compensation was awarded each year during the period from the 1st July, 1924, to the 31st December, 1928. There has been no case of industrial disease reported since the Act started.

*Temporary disablement.*—In considering Appendix VI, attention should be drawn to the very small extent to which use is made of the right to compensation for temporary disablement. The figures show that since the inception of the Act only a few



thousand rupees have been paid out by the Commissioners for workmen's compensation under this head. The reason for this is that cases relating to monthly payments during temporary disability very rarely come before the Commissioners at all, because they are paid by the employers, without reference to the courts. Returns sent in under Section 16 of the Act show that employers, in the four and a-half years in which the Act has been in operation up to the end of 1928, have paid compensation to the extent of Rs. 1,66,000 in 12,416 cases.

The following table shows the total number of cases filed and disposed of each year and how many of them were contested and how many were not contested —

Year.	No. of cases filed.	Contested.	Non-contested.	No. of cases disposed of.
1924 (six months) ..	24	12	12	24
1925 .. ..	120	58	51	109
1926 .. ..	146	96	50	146
1927 .. ..	189	111	68	179
1928 .. ..	176	124	61	185*
Total ..	655	401	242	643

\* These include also the cases in balance from the last year.

## Chapter VIII.—Hours.

### Factories.

*Hours Worked Per Week and Per Day—Normal hours.*—A detailed statement regarding intervals, holidays and hours will be found in Appendix VIII.

¶ In the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency the hours of work for men are 60 per week, with an average of 10 hours a day. Women in Ahmedabad mills are generally similarly employed. In a number of Bombay mills, however, women are employed for 9 hours a day and 54 hours a week. In the engineering trades men are generally employed 8½ hours a day for five days a week with a half day on Saturday to make the hours up to 48. Few women are employed in the engineering industries. They work the same hours as men.)

(In the seasonal industry a 60-hour week with a 10-hour day is general for men and women although a few concerns sometimes work five 11-hour days. A few concerns employ women on a system which entails a 9-hour day.)

Children are generally employed for five hours a day with a 30-hour week in the textile industry. In the seasonal and other industries they are usually employed to the full legal limits.

*Actual Hours including Overtime.*—No general overtime is worked in the textile industry. In a few cases departmental exemptions are granted under Section 30 (2) of the Factories Act but these are almost infinitesimal. In some factories such as engineering shops, printing presses, etc., working to a normal 8½-hours day and 48 hours a week, overtime is occasionally worked within the legal limits.

*Spreadover.*—There is practically no spreadover in the industries in the Bombay Presidency.

*Days Worked per Week.*—A 6-day week is general throughout the textile and seasonal factories in the Presidency. The engineering and some miscellaneous factories work a 5½-day week.

*Effect of 60 hours Restriction on Workers.*—The 60 hours restriction has been generally welcomed by the operatives. A large number of workers did not work more than a 48-hour week prior to the Act of 1922. In the Bombay textile industry a 10-hour day and a 60-hour week have been secured by the workers as a result of the strike of 1920.

*On Industry*—The Government of Bombay have no information as regards the effect of the 60 hours restriction on industry generally but they would like to invite the attention of the Commission to the discussion on this subject contained in paragraph 59 of the Report of the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry). It is pointed out there that the Bombay Millowners' Association consider that the reduction of the hours of labour in 1920 from 12 to 10 has resulted in a fall in production of 16 per cent. in the spinning department and about 11 to 12 per cent. in the weaving department. The experience of some mills in upcountry centres has, however, been that owing to the increased labour efficiency and improved conditions such as the installation of humidifiers, the drop in the production in the spinning department has been reduced to 10 per cent. while there has actually been increased production in the weaving department.

*Effect of Daily Limit.*—In a few instances the daily limit operates somewhat harshly, and exemptions have to be granted under Section 30 (2) of the Factories Act. Besides this, in the ginning factories women are sometimes employed for five 11-hour days but receive pay at the rate generally fixed on a 10-hour basis. The result of this is that the employer obtains five hours' work without paying for it.

*Possibility of Reduction in Maxima.*—In the absence of any detailed information regarding the effect of shorter hours of work on production, the Government of Bombay are not in a position to express any opinion as regards the possibility of reduction in the maximum hours of work.

*Intervals—In relation to fatigue.*—The relation between intervals and fatigue has not been worked out in this country, and the Government of Bombay are therefore not in a position to make any observations on the subject.

*In relation to Workers' Meal Times.*—In the textile mills in this Presidency it is usual for workers to obtain unauthorised intervals for meals. But apart from the unauthorised intervals an hour's interval is practically general. In 15 factories working 8½ hours or less per day, the operatives preferred a shorter interval, and this has been granted under the proviso to Section 21 of the Indian Factories Act. In connection with the question of the interval for meals, it might be pointed out that the Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) suggested that a very essential reform to be immediately introduced in the Bombay mills is the fixation of a definite period of rest to enable the operatives to take their morning meal. In accordance with this recommendation the Bombay Millowners' Association suggested in their Standing Order No. 6, which was presented to the Fawcett Committee, that a morning recess of half-an-hour should be granted to the operatives by reducing the afternoon interval by 15 minutes and by asking the operatives to work 15 minutes longer in the evening. After hearing arguments on this question from the representatives of the Millowners and the Joint Strike Committee, the Fawcett Committee after endorsing the opinion of the Tariff Board, that the morning recess was desirable, came to the conclusion that it was not reasonable to require the Millowners to reduce the present number of working hours from 10 in order to enable this recess to be provided so long as there was no general reduction of that kind made for all factories by legislation or otherwise. At the same time they felt that the Millowners could not reasonably insist on the operatives reducing the mid-day hour recess and staying one-quarter of an hour longer in the mill in order to enable the half hour morning recess to be given.

*Day of Rest—Existing practice.*—In the Bombay Presidency, 313 factories observe Sunday as a weekly rest day. The remaining 1,124 factories, apart from those specially exempted, observe either Sunday or a substitute day. It is usual for the mofussil factories, especially the seasonal factories, to observe the local bazaar day as a day of rest.

*Suitability of the Law.*—Section 22 operates harshly in certain industries. An Amendment is considered necessary with power either to change the definition of week (Section 2 (8)) or to provide for the maximum hours to be counted over a period of two weeks for certain industries.

*Exempting Provisions and the Use made of them.*—As will be seen from the following table for the year 1927, Bombay has applied the provisions of the Act in a fairly rigid manner:—

Province.	Total No. of working factories.	Factories in which the majority of operatives are exempted from.				
		Section 21.	Section 22.	Section 26.	Section 27.	Section 28.
Madras .. .. .	1,301	84	113	—	64	64
Bombay .. .. .	1,426	120	30	—	—	19
Bengal .. .. .	1,297	299	703	347	120	59
United Provinces .. .. .	332	89	210	—	124	75
Punjab .. .. .	546	41	42	—	2	2
Burma .. .. .	940	53	61	—	—	—
Bihar and Orissa .. .. .	255	170	83	—	75	17
Central Provinces and Berar	704	22	26	—	—	—

After the introduction of the 1922 Act, no general exemption was given to the seasonal industries in the Bombay Presidency. Other Provinces gave a wide exemption, e.g., the Punjab reduced the exemptions under Section 27 from 330 to 2 in 1927.

*Mines.*

*Hours Worked Per Day and Per Week.*—The mining industry in the Bombay Presidency is carried on a very small scale, in a few manganese mines and stone quarries situated in the northern, southern and Bombay suburban divisions.

The average daily number of persons employed is approximately 5,900, of whom 46 work underground, 4,653 in open workings, and 1,201 on the surface (i.e., not in the mines, but on sidings, loading wharves, etc.).

In the northern division, for work above ground, the hours of work are not more than 10 per day or 60 per week and for work below ground not more than 9 per day or 54 per week. In the Bombay suburban division the usual working hours range from 7 to 9 per day, excluding the hour of rest.

The miners actually work less than the number of hours specified for the northern division and have not been called upon to work overtime, except on one urgent occasion during the last six years. In the southern division the number of hours actually worked varies from 42 to 56 per week. In the Bombay suburban division overtime is paid for in the majority of cases.

As regards spread over, the workers in the northern division are within call all the time for any emergency.

*Days Worked Per Week.*—The number of days worked per week is 6.

*Effect of 60-hour Restriction.*—It is difficult to say what the effect of the 60-hour restriction has been, as no particularly good or bad effect has been noticed.

*Suitability of the Law relating to Shifts.*—As no mine in this Presidency is worked by shifts, the question of the suitability of the law relating to shifts does not arise.

*Possibility of Introducing an Effective Daily Limitation.*—It would be possible to introduce an effective daily limitation of hours in the southern division, as labour there is almost wholly imported.

*Intervals.*—All the labour in the northern division stops work every day for the purpose of taking food during two intervals of 50 minutes each. Those not actually engaged in the mining operations get a recess of half an hour in the morning and of a period varying from 2 hours in the cold weather to 3 hours in the hot weather in the middle of the day. In the Bombay suburban division one hour is allowed for rest and meals in the majority of cases.

*Day of Rest.*—One day in the week is observed as a day of rest. Hindu holidays and religious festivals are also observed as non-working days.

*Adequacy of Existing Provisions.*—In the opinion of the Government of Bombay the existing provisions regarding hours are quite adequate.

*Exempting Provisions and Use made of them.*—As regards the exempting provision and the use made thereof, in the northern division exemption from the limitation of hours applies only to clerks and to the hospital staff. The former are asked to work longer hours on about 2 days per month. In the southern division no exemption is granted.

*Other Establishments.*—The working hours of manual labour engaged in the various departments of the Bombay Port Trust are as follows:—

—	Week days except Saturdays.	Saturdays.
<i>Engineering Department—</i>		
(1) Workshops: Electrical, Hydraulic and Dry Dock Establishments; General Work—Maintenance and Construction.	8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with interval for meals from 12.30 p.m. to 1.30 p.m.	8 a.m. to 1 p.m.
(2) Loco: Shed .. ..	8 a.m. to 5 p.m., with interval for meals from 12.30 p.m. to 1.30 p.m.	Same as on week days.
(3) Railway Works .. ..	8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with interval for meals from 12 noon to 1 p.m.	8 a.m. to 2 p.m.
Quarry .. ..	Sunrise to sunset with one hour's interval for meals at noon.	Same as on week days.
<i>Dock Department</i> .. ..	8 a.m. to 6 p.m. with interval for meals from 12.30 p.m. to 1.30 p.m.	..
<i>Stores Department</i> .. ..	8.30 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with interval for meals from 1.30 p.m. to 2 p.m.	8.30 a.m. to 1 p.m.

As regards seamen, the hours of work for deck hands, engine-room crew and saloon crew on board ships are as follows :—Deck hands—At sea from about 5.30 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with two intervals of one hour each for meals and one hour's duty on look-out. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays and Sundays. In port from 6 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with the same intervals for meals and shorter hours on Saturdays and Sundays.

*Engine-room crew.*—At sea the crew is divided into watches. Each man has four hours' duty and 8 hours' off duty. In port the hours of duty are from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. with intervals for meals as above. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays, and no work is done on Sundays except what is necessary to maintain the lighting and sanitary service.

*Saloon crew.*—The duties performed by this section of the crew are so various that any general statement regarding hours of work would be misleading. Generally speaking, the men are required to be on duty during service hours which vary with the class of employment and the rating of the individual.

The men are liable to be called out at any time in case of emergency. Such emergencies, however, seldom occur and overtime is avoided as far as possible. When overtime is necessary, it is the practice to allow an equivalent time off during ordinary working hours. Complaints regarding overwork and overtime are according to the shipping master unknown.

In the Government Printing Press at Bombay the following are the hours of work :—On all week-days from 9.30 a.m. to 6 p.m. ; except Wednesdays (for *Gazette*), 9 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. ; Saturdays, from 9 a.m. to 4.30 p.m.

The rest period under the Factories Act is from 1 to 2 p.m.

Overtime is granted to the technical establishment as follows :—After 7½ hours and up to 8½ hours' work, at ordinary rates ; after 8½ hours and up to 10 hours, at 25 per cent. extra ; after 10 hours and up to 12 midnight, at 50 per cent. extra ; and after midnight at 100 per cent. over the rate per hour ; provided that no employee shall draw any extra overtime allowance until an employee has worked a full 8½ hours on any one day. No person is employed for more than 72 hours in any week, including overtime, or for more than 11 hours in any one day.

#### Chapter IX—~~Special Questions~~ relating to women, young adults, and children.

##### *Factories.*

*Effect of 1922 Act on Employment.*—The most noteworthy result of the 1922 Act has been that the employment of children in the Bombay Mills has almost ceased while the percentage of children in the cotton spinning and weaving industry in Ahmedabad has been reduced from 13 per cent. in 1921 to 2 per cent. in 1928. The 1922 Act was immediately operative in Bombay, but in Ahmedabad double employment and defective certification neutralized its effect. Improved certification and effective measures to prevent double certification have, however, led to a steady reduction in the number of children employed in the Ahmedabad mills from 1923 onwards. The following figures are of interest —

##### *Employment in Cotton Spinning and Weaving Factories.*

Year.	Bombay.			
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1921 .. ..	1,14,062	29,970	2,268	1,46,300
1922 .. ..	1,20,232	29,770	1,239	1,51,241
1923 .. ..	1,14,423	29,600	653	1,44,676
1924 .. ..	1,12,904	31,065	578	1,44,547
1925 .. ..	1,13,580	32,396	268	1,46,244
1926 .. ..	1,14,658	33,541	55	1,48,254
1927 .. ..	1,12,925	32,048	32	1,45,005
1928 .. ..	(General strike.)		Figures unreliable.)	

Year.	Ahmedabad.			
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1921 .. ..	39,328	8,212	7,114	54,654
1922 .. ..	39,046	8,790	6,925	54,761
1923 .. ..	39,663	9,098	5,712	54,473
1924 .. ..	39,859	9,553	3,750	53,162
1925 .. ..	42,564	10,874	2,940	56,378
1926 .. ..	44,372	10,983	2,368	57,723
1927 .. ..	46,360	11,468	1,888	59,716
1928 .. ..	48,217	11,432	1,226	60,875

Year.	Bombay.			Ahmedabad.		
	Per cent. Men.	Per cent. Women.	Per cent. Children	Per cent. Men.	Per cent. Women.	Per cent. Children.
1921 .. ..	77·96	20·49	1·55	71·96	15·03	13·02
1922 .. ..	79·5	19·68	0·82	71·3	16·05	12·65
1923 .. ..	79·09	20·46	0·45	72·81	16·7	10·49
1924 .. ..	78·11	21·49	0·4	74·98	17·97	7·05
1925 .. ..	77·67	22·15	0·18	75·5	19·29	5·21
1926 .. ..	77·34	22·62	0·04	76·87	19·03	4·1
1927 .. ..	77·88	22·1	0·02	77·64	19·2	3·16
1928 .. ..	(General strikes. unreliable).		Figures	79·21	18·78	2·01

*Admission of Infants to Factories.*—Considerable progress has been made in the prevention of infants entering factories. In the Bombay mills, infants were not allowed to enter but the custom, prior to 1922, was fairly common in the mills in Sholapur and Ahmedabad. Crèche developments, the moral effect of Section 19A, together with the passing of a few orders have led to considerable improvements in Ahmedabad and Sholapur. Few infants enter the mills at the latter centre while the number has been considerably reduced in Ahmedabad.

A general order has been issued to all ginning factories prohibiting the admission of children between the ages of two and twelve to all places where machinery is at work. A few prosecutions have been instituted for breaches of the order which have involved the deaths of infants.

*Suitability of Regulations for Women's Work.*—Apart from the length of the working day and the maximum weekly hours, the regulations affecting women's work are generally suitable.

Washing facilities and cloak rooms are necessary in some industries, and could be more generally secured if action is taken under welfare.

*Suitability of Regulations affecting Children.*—Children usually work 5 hours a day without any interval. It does not appear to the Government of Bombay that any change in the Act is necessary.

No change in the minimum and maximum ages of children appears to be necessary.

*Double Employment of Children.*—As already pointed out, the Bombay Mills have ceased to employ children. The system of certification in Ahmedabad was defective and up to 1923 double employment in the mills was fairly common. A special enquiry was conducted in 1920 and as a result, Government appointed a full-time certifying surgeon in Ahmedabad in August 1923. He immediately improved certification methods. The number of children employed in the Ahmedabad mills was reduced from 5,712 in 1923, to 3,750, 2,940, 2,368 and 1,888 respectively in the succeeding years. A considerable amount of double certification was thus prevented but it was felt that some children were still obtaining two certificates and working in two mills.

The local Government proposed Section 44A to deal with the matter. This enables a penalty to be imposed on the parent or guardian and was enacted in 1926. Towards the close of that year the inspector and certifying surgeon made a special check in a large group of mills and over 100 cases of double employment were detected. Poverty undoubtedly induced some parents to sweat their children, but in 11 cases where there was no financial necessity for it, prosecutions were instituted and the parents and guardians were fined.

This undoubtedly had a good effect since a check in 1928 revealed only one case of double employment in a large group of mills.

Double employment has never been practised in the other mofussil mills. It is thus practically non-existent in this Presidency.

*Work and Training of Young Adults.*—Very little is done to train young adults. A mill in Sholapur has started a technical school, while the Social Service League conducts a Textile Technical School at Parel in Bombay City. The Bombay Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute has also attached to it a Textile Apprentice class for persons working in the mills.

*Extent of "Blind-Alley" Employment.*—There is practically no "blind-alley" employment in the factories. Children in the textile mills train up into spinners or weavers.

*Comparative Merits of Double and Single Shift Systems as Affecting Health of Women, Young Adults, and Children.*—There are no double shifts of women or young adults. Children are generally employed on the single shift system. It is impossible to state whether the single or double shift for children is preferable. Proximity to work and family arrangements are factors which would often outweigh any advantage that may be derived from adopting double shifts for children.

*Work of Women and Children in Factories not subject to Act.*—In the Bombay Presidency, 29 factories have been notified under Section 2 (3) (b). The policy adopted has been to notify factories in which there was a special risk or danger to health. Thus hand match factories, type-casting factories, cotton cleaning factories, train gas lighting factories, and yarn dyeing premises using lead salts have been notified.

In the smaller factories hours of work are often long and machinery unfenced. Sanitation is too often defective. An amendment to Section 2 (3) (a) fixing the limit at 10 persons would automatically bring a number of small concerns under supervision.

#### *Mines.*

*Effect of Act of 1923.*—In the Northern Division, Section 26 of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, under which no child is to be employed in a mine, is said to cause some hardship. In the Southern Division no dispute as to the age of a person employed has come to notice.

★ *Exclusion of Women.*—In the Southern Division adult women of the labour class such as "Vaddars" and "Lamanis" are employed on the superjacent manganese mines. They have as good or better physique than their men and have been accustomed to work on earth and stone breaking from their infancy. If they were eliminated from such surface workings it would completely disorganize labour, as no Vaddar or Lamani would come on to this work, if his wife were not permitted to earn her wage on it. The elimination of women should be by gradual reduction in their number. In the Northern Division, women are never employed underground.)

### Chapter X.—Wages.

#### Prevailing Rates of Wages and Earnings.

*The Cotton Textile Industry.*—The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay has held three enquiries into the wages of workers in the cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency. The first enquiry related to May, 1914, and May, 1921. The second enquiry was held for the month of August in the year 1923, and the third for the month of July\* in the year 1926.

The first enquiry covered 82 out of 83 mills in Bombay City, 39 out of 64 mills in Ahmedabad, all the six mills in the Sholapur district, 10 out of 21 mills in the rest of the British districts of the Bombay Presidency, all the four mills in the Baroda State, and three out of six mills in other States, or a total of 144 mills out of 184 working mills in the Presidency. The 1923 enquiry covered all the 79 working mills

\* In the case of Ahmedabad the month taken was May, 1926.

in Bombay, all the 69 working mills in Ahmedabad, all the six working mills in Sholapur district, all the 17 working mills in the rest of the British districts of the Bombay Presidency, all the nine mills in the Baroda State, and all the six mills in other States, or cent. per cent. of the 186 working mills in the Presidency. The results for the 1923 enquiry were presented separately for mills in Bombay City, in Ahmedabad, and in Sholapur; and the remaining mills were grouped together under the head "Other Centres." In the 1923 enquiry a further departure was made by giving separate information for the mills in the Baroda State.

A radical departure from the methods adopted for the 1921 and 1923 enquiries was made for the 1926 enquiry. In the two earlier enquiries the information was collected on specially designed forms which were filled in by the mill authorities and tabulated in the Labour Office. For the 1926 enquiry it was decided, after consulting the Bombay and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Associations, to conduct the enquiry on the basis of the actual muster rolls, which give full information for each individual worker regarding the number of days worked, the number of days worked by a substitute, the production of the regular worker and the substitute, the rates of wages, aggregate earnings, additions on account of percentage increases for dearness allowance granted, additions for bonus for regular attendance or better work, deductions for fines, etc. As it would not have been possible to conduct an enquiry on this basis for all mills at each centre it was decided to adopt the "Sample" method and to select representative mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad, and Sholapur. In the case of Bombay 19 mills employing a little over 50,000 workers out of a total number of 75 working mills employing 148,000 workers were selected in consultation with the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Bombay Textile Labour Union. The number of operatives covered amounted to nearly 35 per cent. of the total number employed. In the case of Ahmedabad 16 mills with about 16,500 workers were selected out of 54 working mills employing about 58,000 workers, in consultation with the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Ahmedabad Labour Union—the number of workers covered amounting to a little over 28 per cent. of the number employed. In the case of Sholapur two representative units employing about 5,000 workers out of 5 mills in Sholapur city employing in all about 19,000 workers were taken after consulting the Sholapur millowners. The number of workers covered in this case amounted to a little under 25 per cent. of the number employed. The results of the 1926 enquiry will be published during the course of this year.

As compared with the previous enquiries of 1921 and 1923, the tabulation of the returns of which only involved calculations in respect of mass figures for groups of workers, the tabulation of the returns for the 1926 enquiry involved calculations with regard to many sets of figures for 70,000 odd individual workers. No effort was made in the 1926 enquiry to indicate the occupations for which figures should be supplied. The result was that all the mills used an aggregate of over 1,000 terms for specifying different occupations. A preliminary tabulation of the various terms used was made, and this was forwarded to the Bombay Millowners' Association with a request for suggestions with regard to the grouping of different occupations. The association suggested that it was not necessary to compile the figures for as many occupational groups as were included in the 1921 and 1923 enquiries, and that it would be sufficient if the statistics were presented for the more important occupations in each department and to combine and present the figures for the rest under the term "Others" for each department.

In the 1921 enquiry no attempt was made to go beyond the presentation of average daily earnings. In view of the efforts made during the 1923 enquiry to collect figures for the aggregate number of days worked by groups of operatives during the Census month, it was possible to ascertain the average number of days worked during the month, and from this it was further possible to present average earnings during the month. In the 1926 enquiry it has not only been possible to present the average number of days worked and the average earnings during the month, but also the average earnings for those workers who worked full time as far as the Bombay and the Sholapur mill workers were concerned. It has not been possible to do this for the Ahmedabad mills on account of the variations in wage periods.

Wages in the Bombay and the Sholapur mills are paid monthly irrespective of the fact whether they are based on time-rates or piece-rates, or fixed on a daily or a monthly basis or in any other manner. In the Ahmedabad mills wages are paid fortnightly—the term "fortnightly" referring to a period of generally fourteen days for piece-workers and to a period of generally sixteen days for time-workers. These periods are called "haptas." The hapta does not begin or end on a particular day as far as all the mills in Ahmedabad are concerned. It may begin and end on any day in the case of individual mills. Some workers are paid according to the month. In the case of such workers the figures returned were for the complete month adopted for a particular census, but in the case of all other operatives paid

according to haptas, the returning mills were asked to take those two haptas which had the greatest number of days in the month selected for each enquiry. The results of the 1926 enquiry show a wide variation in the maximum number of working days in the two haptas taken in the case of the individual mills. In the case of some mills the maximum number of working days in the two haptas for certain classes of workers were as few as 23. In some others the maximum number of working days in the two haptas was 28. Even for one particular mill the maximum number of days for all the different classes of workers was not the same. For some workers it was 23, for some 24 and so on up to 28. Even for particular occupations there was a wide variation in the maximum number of days worked in the different mills. It was impossible, therefore, to arrive at any formula for ascertaining the average number of days worked by a particular class of workers. The results of the 1926 enquiry, in so far as Ahmedabad is concerned, can therefore only be presented in the form of average daily earnings without any attempt at ascertaining the average number of days worked by each group.

In arriving at the figures for daily average earnings, wages for regular work only were considered and overtime earnings, and wages earned by "double substitute" work were excluded; but all additions to the "basic" rates, such as percentage, dearness allowances, and bonuses were included. There is a very wide variation in the systems adopted at different centres with regard to the methods of calculating wages. In the case of the mills in Bombay City there is first a "basic" rate to which is added a dearness allowance of 80 per cent. for male piece-workers, and 70 per cent. for male time-workers and all female workers. Those mills which grant a good attendance bonus add the amount of the bonus granted to the gross wage, from which are deducted any fines that might be inflicted before arriving at the net wage payable. The term "basic" in the case of the Bombay mills may be generally considered to apply to the pre-war year, although in the case of some individual mills it might apply to any year between 1913 and 1918, when the first increase of 15 per cent. as a dearness allowance was granted. The stages by which this percentage dearness allowance rose to 70 per cent. and 80 per cent. will be dealt with in the next section, dealing with "Movements of wages in recent years." In the case of the Sholapur mills there is also the same distinction between the "basic" rate and the dearness allowance; but as will be shown in the section dealing with "Payment in kind and allied problems" the bonus for good attendance is granted in the form of the right for all operatives who have not been absent for more than four days in the month to purchase a certain quantity of grain at a certain price, which varies as between jobbers, weavers, and half-timers. For all practical purposes, however, it may be considered as the right to purchase 20 seers of grain, which cost about Rs. 2·8 annas for Rs. 2. The effect of this is that all workers who have not lost more than four days in a month on account of absenteeism receive the equivalent of about Rs. 1 8 annas. No account was taken of this in the 1921 and 1923 enquiries, but in the 1926 enquiry the Sholapur mills were requested to indicate specifically all those workers who exercised this right. With the assistance of the mills concerned the gain to the worker was valued and the cash equivalent was added to the monthly earnings. The average daily earnings in the case of Sholapur for the 1926 enquiry therefore includes the benefit gained as a result of the grain allowance.

In the Ahmedabad mills there is not only a complete lack of uniformity in the methods adopted in calculating the different additions and deductions before arriving at the final earnings, but wide variations in the methods adopted also exist for different classes of workers in a particular mill. In the first place there is what is hypothetically called a "basic" rate. The term "basic" does not apply to any particular period for the whole industry. It varies as between groups of occupations and also between mills and mills. In the case of some occupations the term may relate to the pre-war year. In the case of others it may relate to any other year. But for particular occupations covered by the awards of arbitrators it relates to the date on which an award for a percentage or a flat rate of increase was granted. Next to the "basic" rate comes the *moghawari*, or dearness allowance. In the case of certain occupations, and generally in the case of monthly paid workers, this allowance was consolidated with the basic rate, and in others it was kept as a separate item on the muster. Some mills consolidated one or two of the first increases but kept the subsequent increases separate. In the case of some occupations it was given in the form of a percentage on the basic rate and in others it was granted in the form of flat money values, say Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 per month, or at so much per hapta, or at so much per week—the variations even here being considerable. Next to the *moghawari* allowance comes the deduction of 15½ per cent. for the general wage cut effected in the year 1923. Here also there is a wide variation in the method of its treatment. In the case of some occupations 15½ per cent. is deducted from the total arrived at after adding the *moghawari* allowance to the basic rate, in others it is deducted from a consolidated wage—the term "consolidated" in this case relating only to the consolidation of the basic rate with the allowance—and in still others



there are flat consolidated rates without the addition of the allowance to a basic rate and the deduction for the percentage cut effected in 1923. Lastly, there is a good attendance bonus which always takes the form of a flat money value. It is true that the majority of the Ahmedabad mills grant such a bonus to process operatives on time rates, but there are some mills where no such bonus is given. The amount of the bonus where it is given is not uniform in all mills even for the same occupation. In some cases it is computed at so much per month and in others at so much per hapta or so much per week.

The 1921 and 1923 enquiries covered "big lads" and children in addition to adult and female operatives in all centres. For the purpose of the 1926 enquiry no separate figures were called for for "big lads" not only because it was found that this term was a misnomer inasmuch as it covered all age groups but also because "big lads" work for the same number of hours as other adult operatives. With regard to children, no half-timers were employed in any of the nineteen mills selected for the 1926 census in Bombay City. Figures for children were, however, returned for this enquiry, both from Ahmedabad and from Sholapur.

*Rates.*—Although full information was procured in the 1926 enquiry in connection with rates of wages paid to individual operatives in cotton mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, it has not been possible to tabulate the information obtained owing to the wide variations which exist as between unit and unit. In the case of the mills in Bombay City it was further considered that it would not be necessary to undertake this tabulation in view of the proposals made by the Millowners' Association during the general strikes of last year to standardize the rates for different classes of operatives in all cotton mills in Bombay City. This question will be more fully dealt with under the head "Extent of Standardization," but it may be pointed out here that the basis adopted by the association in arriving at their proposals for the rates for different occupations was to take the average daily earnings according to the results of the 1926 enquiry conducted by the Labour Office. The extent to which rates vary as between mill and mill will be better understood by an examination of the figures given below for the average monthly earnings of all workers, the average daily earnings and the average monthly earnings of full-time workers, mill by mill, for the nineteen mills selected for the 1926 enquiry in the case of two-loom weavers and warpers. The month was July and the number of working days 27.

TABLE I.—*Earnings of Two-loom Weavers.*

Mill No.	Total number of workers.	Average number of days worked.	Average monthly earnings.	Average daily earnings.	Number working full-time.	Average monthly earnings of full-time workers.
1	373	25.5	Rs. 50 8 3	Rs. 1 15 9	187	Rs. 54 1 7
2	979	25.9	49 15 7	1 14 10	755	52 4 4
3	331	26.2	51 11 4	1 15 7	301	53 5 3
4	561	25.6	46 1 0	1 12 10	268	49 0 5
5	803	25.0	41 13 3	1 10 9	409	45 2 5
6	383	25.2	39 7 9	1 9 1	286	42 2 9
7	489	27.0	49 9 1	1 13 4	469	49 9 1
8	300	26.3	54 6 4	2 1 2	274	55 1 7
9	457	26.4	47 7 10	1 12 10	428	48 11 6
10	443	26.3	47 15 6	1 13 2	414	49 7 7
11	874	25.4	53 4 4	2 1 6	442	56 8 0
12	994	26.2	46 0 3	1 12 0	905	47 7 5
13	373	24.9	39 5 7	1 9 4	218	42 10 2
14	233	25.9	41 14 9	1 9 11	169	44 7 6
15	588	25.7	45 9 3	1 12 4	364	48 1 4
16	444	26.9	52 4 10	1 15 2	430	52 9 10
17	1,458	26.7	46 12 7	1 12 0	1,232	47 6 4
18	515	26.4	53 4 11	2 0 4	492	54 9 8
19	761	23.4	42 15 11	1 13 6	159	49 11 7
Total ..	11,358	25.8	47 5 11	1 13 4	8,242	49 9 11

TABLE II.—*Earnings of Warpers.*

Mill No.	Total number of workers.	Average number of days worked.	Average monthly earnings.	Average daily earnings.	Number working full-time.	Average monthly earnings of full-time workers.
1 ..	12	26.3	Rs. a. p. 64 10 4	Rs. a. p. 2 7 3	8	Rs. a. p. 65 6 8
2 ..	37	25.3	45 2 9	1 12 7	18	48 2 5
3 ..	11	26.2	58 5 5	2 3 8	4	58 5 5
4 ..	19	24.9	58 4 7	2 5 6	6	63 3 1
5 ..	28	24.6	40 5 11	1 10 3	13	44 4 6
6 ..	15	25.9	52 7 9	2 0 6	12	54 15 11
7 ..	15	26.9	57 10 0	2 2 4	13	58 3 9
8 ..	10	23.0	66 2 11	2 14 0	4	82 15 1
9 ..	14	25.0	45 3 4	1 12 11	8	48 5 3
10 ..	14	22.6	57 14 7	2 9 1	—	—
11 ..	22	22.7	48 9 3	2 2 3	1	57 13 0
12 ..	24	26.4	51 7 11	1 15 3	21	52 15 3
13 ..	14	22.6	39 7 6	1 12 0	—	—
14 ..	13	24.3	42 13 9	1 12 3	4	48 11 2
15 ..	20	23.8	50 2 1	2 1 8	4	56 6 6
16 ..	14	24.5	64 11 2	2 10 3	9	74 10 4
17 ..	47	25.9	53 0 9	2 0 10	22	56 9 10
18 ..	16	27.0	68 7 11	2 8 7	16	68 7 11
19 ..	18	23.0	60 1 0	2 9 9	—	—
Total ..	363	24.9	52 8 10	2 1 9	163	57 2 7

As will be seen from these tables the earnings of weavers vary between Rs. 1-9-1 and Rs. 2-1-6 per day and those of warpers between Rs. 1-10-3 and Rs. 2-14-0 per day.

It has already been stated above that both "basic" rates and the methods of calculating the additions to the basic rates and the subsequent deductions vary enormously in the case of the Ahmedabad mills, not only between mill and mill but for the same occupation in one particular mill.

This is illustrated in the examples given below:—

In the case of grinders one mill paid a daily rate of As. 13-9 plus Rs. 2 per month for dearness allowance, less 15½ per cent. for the wage cut effected in 1923 plus Rs. 2 per month for good attendance bonus. In another case there was a daily rate of As. 15-9 with no addition for dearness allowance, less 15½ per cent. and no bonus. In the case of the same mill there was a consolidated rate of Rs. 45 per month as far as the basic rate and the dearness allowance were concerned, but 15½ per cent. was deducted for the wage cut. Some mills gave absolute consolidated monthly rates without any additions or deductions, the variation being as follows: Rs. 27, Rs. 29-4, Rs. 30, Rs. 32-2, Rs. 33, Rs. 33-12, Rs. 34, Rs. 40, Rs. 43 and Rs. 45. Another mill gave Rs. 1-2-6 per day without dearness allowance and bonus, but deducted 15½ per cent. for the cut. Still another variation to be found was a daily rate of 13 annas or 14 annas without the dearness allowance and the cut, but with Rs. 2 per month for the bonus.

Head jobbers in the ring department received flat consolidated monthly rates, the actual figures being Rs. 60 in one case, Rs. 65 in two cases, Rs. 70 in one case, Rs. 75 in one case, Rs. 94 in one case, Rs. 95 in one case, Rs. 101 in two cases, Rs. 110 in one case, Rs. 115 in one case, Rs. 125 in two cases and Rs. 130 in one case. Ordinary jobbers in the same department were also generally paid on flat consolidated monthly rates with the same wide variation, but in one case 20 per cent. was added to the monthly rate and in another 15½ per cent. was deducted from an otherwise consolidated rate of Rs. 40.

In the case of siders in the spinning department there was a general similarity as far as basic rates were concerned, the variations being due to number of spindles tended or counts spun. But even here one mill gave flat rates of As. 11-9 pies and As. 12-7 pies per day to warp and weft workers respectively without a dearness allowance or a cut, but with a bonus of 8 annas for each complete week's work. The dearness allowance was uniformly given as a flat rate which was variously computed

at Rs. 2-8 annas for 20 days, Rs. 2-6 annas for 22 days, Rs. 2-12 annas for 22 days, Rs. 2-12 annas for 23 days, Rs. 3-4 annas for 26 days, Rs. 3-4 annas for 30 days, Rs. 2-11-6 pies for 32 days, Rs. 3-4 annas for 32 days and Rs. 3-4 annas per month. The bonus was added at a rate equivalent to Rs. 2 for 32 days, but computed per week, for 8 days, for one hapta or for two haptas. The number of possible permutations and combinations of these several ways of payment can be better imagined than calculated. It is not considered necessary to give further instances illustrating this point, but the same sort of variation is to be found in the case of almost all occupations, both for time rates and for piece rates.

*Earnings.*—As it would be of interest to compare the average daily earnings of different classes of workers in the mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur for the years 1921, 1923 and 1926, a table has been prepared giving these figures for those occupations which are comparable. In preparing this table it was necessary to group certain occupations together from the 1921 and 1923 enquiries in order to compare them with those for the 1926 enquiry in view of the curtailment in the number of occupations for which the figures for 1926 were tabulated. The table in Appendix IX shows the daily average earnings for the years 1921, 1923 and 1926 for Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, for all classes of workers in respect of whom comparable figures were available. On examining the figures for Sholapur it will be noticed that the average daily earnings of the higher paid operatives and the workers employed on skilled work, as distinct from process operatives, show noticeable variations in comparison with the figures for 1921 and 1923. The variations are due partly to the inadequacy of the sample taken for the 1926 enquiry, as far as those groups having a small number of workers were concerned, and partly to the inclusion in the 1926 enquiry of the cash equivalent for the benefit gained by the workers from the grain allowance. In the case of the more important occupational groups among process operatives, the figures for 1926 are generally comparable with those for 1921 and 1923 because a sufficiently large number of workers were taken. It is necessary to emphasize here that in those cases where the figures are not comparable, the fault, if any, lies more with the 1921 and 1923 figures owing to the inadequacy of the methods adopted for those enquiries.

The results of the 1926 enquiry for Bombay in so far as they related to number of days worked and earnings, were supplied confidentially in a preliminary form to the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee in May, 1928, for purposes of standardization and they were again submitted confidentially in a more complete form to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee. The results of the enquiry for Ahmedabad and Sholapur were completed only recently. The report of the whole enquiry is now under preparation and, as already stated, will be published during the course of this year. The figures will be available in detail for the Commission and it is not necessary to overload this memorandum with many pages of tabular matter on this subject. The comparative table referred to above and given as Appendix IX gives all the information that is necessary at this stage.

*Printing Presses.*—An enquiry into the wages and hours of labour in the printing press industry in Bombay City was held in the month of June for the month of May, 1929. All the bigger English and vernacular newspaper presses and job printing presses were covered, and the total number of workers in respect of whom information was procured was 2,907 out of 5,445 printing press workers in Bombay City. The information was collected from the muster rolls personally by an investigator of the labour office. The statistics in connexion with the earnings of operatives on time rates have not yet been tabulated. Three tables have, however, been prepared showing the frequency of rates by occupations in (1) English newspaper presses, (2) vernacular newspaper presses, and (3) job printing presses. These tables are given in Appendix X. There is no similarity in the rates paid to different classes of operatives as between press and press or even in the same press. For example, in English newspaper presses, five compositors received rates between Rs. 80 and Rs. 100, five between Rs. 70 and Rs. 80, fourteen between Rs. 60 and Rs. 70, twenty-five between Rs. 50 and Rs. 60, eight between Rs. 40 and Rs. 50, five between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40, three between Rs. 20 and Rs. 30, and three below Rs. 20. Of course, in the lower class intervals the compositors were more apprentices rather than skilled workers. The same wide variations in rates exists in the case of all occupations.

Except for inter and linotype operators in the English newspaper presses, and compositors, machinemen and pressmen in the Government Central Press, all press workers in Bombay are paid on monthly time rates. In the Government Central Press a dearness allowance of 10 per cent. is given on the basic rate for earnings up to Rs. 150 per month, but no other additions or deductions are made from the basic rates in the case of other classes of operatives in other presses in Bombay.

In the Government Central Press, compositors are paid according to what is known as the companionship system. A foreman has a gang of about 25 men whose individual pay is first nominally fixed according to ability. The gang works

at a scheduled rate of Rs. 1-7-2 pies per page foolscap folio, pica solid, plus 10 per cent. The rates vary from this basis according to different kinds of type used. From the total amount of the earnings of the gang at this rate during the month is deducted the total amount of the nominal pay given. The balance termed "profit" is then apportioned individually *pro rata* according to nominal pay. The foreman is responsible for the bill, which has to be made up monthly. Mono and linotype work is done at Re. 1-3-10 pies and As. 6-7 pies respectively per page foolscap folio, pica solid. Twenty per cent. extra is paid for confidential work. In the case of machine men and pressmen in the Government Central Press the rates are fixed on a nominal scale. Each machine has a fixed rate for the number of impressions to be taken in a working day. Each worker who puts in a larger number of impressions than those scheduled gets a bonus proportionate to his nominal rate of pay.

There were 60 inter or linotype operators included in the enquiry. The average number of days worked by these operators out of a maximum number of 27 working days in the month of May, 1929, was 25.37. The average earnings of all these operators amounted to Rs. 144-10-4 pies per month and to Rs. 5-11-3 pies per day. Forty-two operators who worked full-time earned an average monthly wage of Rs. 154-14-5 pies.

**Engineering Trades.**—No enquiries have been conducted into wages and earnings in engineering workshops in the Presidency. An attempt made by the labour office to hold a wage census for the engineering industry in the year 1922 was opposed by the Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation. This Federation was, however, approached in June, 1929, for information regarding rates of wages paid by its members. It has now furnished these figures and they are printed in Appendix XIII.

**Building Trade.**—With regard to the building trade in Bombay City, one large firm of contractors have reported that the average daily wages paid by them to their workers during the last year were as follows :—

	Rs. a.		Rs. p.
Masons .. ..	2	8 per day	2 4 per day
Bricklayers .. ..	2	8 ..	2 8 ..
Fitters .. ..	2	8 ..	1 0 ..
Mixer coolies .. ..	1	2 ..	0 9 ..
Stone-cutters .. ..			2 4 per day
Carpenters .. ..			2 8 ..
Coolies .. ..			1 0 ..
Women coolies .. ..			0 9 ..

No other information with regard to wages in the building trade for any other centre is available.

**Mines.**—In the mines and quarries in the northern division of the Bombay Presidency the average rates of wages per day per head during the year 1928 were as follows :—

	Shivrajpur and Bamankua mines.	Taibpur mines.	Jakhed quarry.	Quarries Nos. 1 to 5 in the Surat district.	Quarry No. 6 in the Surat district.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Skilled labour ..	1 7 6	1 8 2	—	—	—
Unskilled labour ..	0 10 2	0 11 3	0 6 8	0 12 0	0 8 0
			to	to	to
			0 7 0	1 4 0	0 12 0
Females .. ..	0 7 2	0 8 9	—	—	—

In the mines and quarries in the Southern Division men were paid wages ranging from 6 to 10 annas a day and women from 4 to 6 annas a day during the year 1928. The mining work of the Shiroli mines was carried out on piece work, the rate paid being Rs. 8 per 100 cubic feet of manganese quarried and stacked on the site.

In the case of quarries in the Bombay suburban district, tapkers and masons were paid Re. 1 1 anna to Rs. 1 10 annas and Re. 1 4 annas to Rs. 1 12 annas respectively. Coolies were paid 14 annas to Re. 1 each, women 8 annas to 10 annas each, and boys from 7 annas to 8 annas each.

There are no mines or quarries in the Central Division or in Sind.

**Seamen.**—Wages in the case of seamen are paid on the termination of the voyage and the completion of their agreement. An advance of one month's wages is usually made when the crew are signed on, and further advances may be made during a voyage at the discretion of the master. The English Merchant Shipping Act provides

for final payment of wages within two days of discharge (Section 134), while under the Indian Merchant Shipping Act payment must be made within five days after discharge or within three days after delivery of the cargo, whichever happens first (Section 47).

The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company fix their own wages which are generally higher than those of other companies. The other companies fixed a standard rate of wages at a meeting of shipowners and agents held in Bombay in September, 1923. The following are the rates paid by the P. & O. Steam Navigation Co. :—\*

In the case of the steamship lines other than the P. & O. Steam Navigation Co., the following rates have been in force since September, 1923, for "coasting" and "home" lines respectively :—

<i>Purser's or Saloon Department.</i>			<i>Purser's or Saloon Department—contd.</i>		
	Coasting.	Home.		Coasting.	Home.
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Butler in charge ..	75	85	Troop baker mate ..	20	22-8
Butler, " 2nd class ..	70	75	" cook ..	50	55
Chief cook ..	60	65	" asst. cook ..	45	50
2nd cook, <sup>1</sup> ..	60	70	Deck steward ..	27	34
" ..	30	40	Barman ..	35	40
" ..	35	40	Bell boy ..	23	26
Curry cook ..	35	40	Knifeman ..	26	30
3rd cook, <sup>1</sup> ..	22-8	28	Laundryman (Dhobi) ..	40	45
" ..	20	22-8			
4th cook ..	16	20	<i>Engine Department.</i>		
Baker ..	60	70	Serang ..	55	65
" ..	45	50	1st tindal ..	38	40
3rd baker or asst. ..	30	35	2nd tindal ..	35	37
" mate ..	20	22-8	3rd tindal ..	32	35
Chief cook and baker ..	65	75	Cassab ..	30	35
Pantryman, <sup>1</sup> ..	30	40	Donkeyman ..	30	35
" 1st class ..	40	45	Hydraulicman ..	40	45
" 2nd class ..	35	40	Iceman or freezer ..	35	37
" cargo ship ..	33	37	Fireman ..	25	27
" mate ..	18	20	Coal trimmers ..	18	21
Butcher ..	45	50	Lampman ..	28	32
" mate ..	18	25	Bhandary ..	25	30
Topas saloon ..	20	22-8	" mate ..	17	20
" stock ..	20	22-8	Oilman ..	28	32
Scullions ..	20	22-8	Pumpman ..	52	62
Head waiter, <sup>1</sup> ..	35	40	Coal trimmer serang ..	37	40
" ..	40	45	Lascar's average ..	22	26
Saloon boys, 1st yr. ..	23	26	<i>Deck Department.</i>		
" 2-5th yrs. ..	25	30	Serang, Muhammedan ..	55	65
" over 5 yrs. ..	27	34	Serang, Hindu ..	52	65
Messroom boys, <sup>1</sup> ..	25	30	1st tindal ..	40	46
" boy ..	23	33	2nd tindal ..	32	35
" boys ..	27	34	3rd tindal ..	30	34
" asst. ..	20	25	Cassab ..	27	32
" mate ..	14	16	Winchman ..	20	34
C.E. boys, 1st yr. ..	23	26	Seacunny ..	50	60
" 2-5th yrs. ..	25	30	Lascars $\frac{1}{2}$ at ..	18	22
" over 5 yrs. ..	27	34	" ..	21	25
Captain boy, 1st yr. ..	23	26	" ..	23	28
" 2-5th yrs. ..	25	30	" ..	26	30
" over 5 yrs. ..	27	34	Lascar boys ..	13	15
Officers boys ..	23-37	26-34	Bhandary ..	26	30
Marconi boy ..	8	10	" mate ..	15	20
Saloon crew cook ..	35	40	Topas ..	20	23
" mate ..	16	20	Carpenter ..	75	120
Troop baker ..	50	55			
" 2nd baker ..	40	45			

<sup>1</sup> Cargo ship local liners.

<sup>2</sup> Passenger ship local liners.

These wages are, of course, in addition to rations. The value of food and lodging has been assumed for the purposes of Workmen's Compensation Act in assessing wages at Rs. 10 per month.

\* These rates are given in memorandum of Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., and are there reproduced.

*Other Industries and Trades.*—The labour office held an enquiry into wages of municipal workers in selected municipalities in the mofussil in the year 1923. But as the information returned was not satisfactory no attempt was made at ascertaining daily or monthly average wages. An enquiry was also conducted into wages of clerical workers in Bombay City in the year 1924. The results of this enquiry were published in four issues of the *Labour Gazette* from February to May, 1926. But as the commission are not concerned with clerical workers it is not considered necessary to give the results of that enquiry here. The labour office also collects, month by month, information with regard to agricultural wages in Taluka Form No. XVIII-A from all talukas in the Bombay Presidency. A report on an enquiry into agricultural wages in the Bombay Presidency from 1900 to 1922 was published in the form of a special report during the year 1924. Since that year summary tables incorporating the information for each year have been regularly published both in the General Administration Report of the Bombay Presidency and in the *Labour Gazette*. As the commission are also not concerned with agricultural wages no attempt has been made to reproduce the figures here. But should the commission require any information on this subject it can be supplied.

No reliable information with regard to wages in other industries is available.

The appendix to the workmen's compensation section giving the wage groups of persons receiving compensation may be of interest in this connection.

*Movements in Recent Years.*—Speaking generally there have been no important changes in rates of wages in any industry in any centre in the Bombay Presidency since the wage cut of 15·625 per cent., i.e., two and a half annas in the rupee, effected by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association in June, 1923. A few cotton mills in the districts have reduced the percentages granted during the years 1919 to 1921 for dearness allowance, but no detailed information with regard to these reductions or their effects is available.

In the cotton textile industry in Bombay City the Bombay Millowners' Association gave an increase of 15 per cent. in wages to all workers on the 1st January, 1918. This was increased to 35 per cent. on the 1st January, 1919. The next increase granted on the 1st February, 1920, was 20 per cent. extra to male workers on time rates and to female workers both on time and piece rates, and 40 per cent. extra to male operatives on piece rates—the total percentages amounting to 55 and 75 respectively. On the 1st November, 1920, the 55 per cent. was increased to 70 per cent., and the 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. There have been no changes in these percentages since the year 1921. The percentage dearness allowances have been maintained right through as a separate item on the muster. In the Seventeen Demands submitted by the Joint Strike Committee during the general strike of the year 1928, Demand No. 12 required that the present high prices allowance should be consolidated with the original wages. The views of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee with regard to this demand are contained in paragraphs 171 to 179 (pp. 82-85) of their report. The committee held that this demand was fair and reasonable and recommended that in view of the advantage of simplifying wage-calculations so as to make them intelligible to the operatives, and, in particular, the desirability of facilitating the introduction of the standardization scheme, it was advisable for the association to do away with the present cumbrous system, founded as it was on the basic wages of 15 years ago, and to take advantage of the proposed standardization of wages to embody in the scheme a consolidated wage-scale incorporating the existing high prices allowances with any slight modifications that might be desirable for rounding off figures, etc.

The Joint Strike Committee also stated during the course of the strike of last year that individual mills in Bombay had made several attempts in various ways to reduce the earnings of the workers. Mr. N. M. Joshi, on behalf of the Joint Strike Committee, sent a statement to Government on the 21st May, 1928, showing the reductions in wages which had been made in 18 mills. Government forwarded the statement to the Millowners' Association with a request that inquiries should be made into the matter. The Millowners' Association in replying to Government on the 16th June, stated that from investigations made the committee of the association were satisfied that the statements made in the Press and elsewhere by the Joint Strike Committee to the effect that wages had been reduced in many ways, direct and indirect, were without foundation. They further stated, however, that adjustments had to be made occasionally in the rates of wages according as the rates were found too high or too low when compared with the rates in other mills; and that, in certain cases it had been found necessary to reduce wages, they had certainly been increased in certain other cases. The whole question was subsequently examined by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee in connection with Demand No. 1 of the Seventeen Demands which required that "the present practices resorted to by some millowners which result in the reduction of wages shall be stopped, and reductions and altered conditions already effected since 1925 shall be restored." The Joint Strike Committee

submitted to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee that reductions in monthly earnings had been effected owing to the following causes: (a) introduction of new varieties of cloth at rates which did not bring the level of wages to those earned on the production of the old sorts; (b) reduction of piece rates to meet unanticipated high production by individual operatives; (c) adjustments in rates made to bring them in line with the rates prevailing in other mills; (d) no adjustments made to increase rates in cases where mills went on finer counts; (e) introduction of artificial silk and inferior raw material; (f) gradual withdrawal of bonuses such as good attendance and efficiency bonus, free railway passes to workers, etc.; and (g) introduction of a method of paying wages on the weight of the cloth after it had undergone a subsequent process, instead of on the actual weight produced on the looms.

The committee held that in view of the proposed standardization of wages it would serve no useful purpose to discuss the various cases cited with regard to the alleged reductions, whatever foundation there might have been for these allegations and some of which appeared to have been substantiated. The standardization scheme was an effective answer to this demand.

When the standardization schemes come into operation, they will no doubt tend to raise the wages of the operatives in those mills where wages are low but it will also, on the other hand, reduce the wages of the operatives of many mills where the existing rates of wages are higher than those fixed in the standardization schemes. As this subject has been fully discussed in the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee's Report it is not considered necessary to go into it further here.

Complete information is not available with regard to the changes in the rates of wages in the Ahmedabad mills between the years 1914 and 1923. Prior to 1917 no concerted action was taken by the millowners with regard to granting percentage increases and each mill did as it pleased. The differences in the rates between mill and mill although wide were not very abnormal. From December 1917 to 1921 the managing committee of the Millowner's Association or the arbitrators or umpires chosen from time to time awarded increments to different departments in different proportions. The warpers obtained an increase of 25 per cent. in their rates in 1917. The weavers were awarded an increase of 35 per cent. in 1918, and spinners were given an increase of 85 per cent. in March, 1919, when the weavers also obtained a further increase. In the beginning of the year 1920 Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai, the then president, and the managing committee of the Association granted an increase of 62½ per cent. in wages to workers in the sizing, calendering and engineering departments. The same increment was granted to Mochies and the pay of some workers in the cloth folding department was fixed after giving a similar increase. About the same time increases ranging from 60 to 62½ per cent. over the wages of July, 1917, were granted to blacksmiths, to the workers in the yarn bundling department and to some workers in the cloth department. In the same year the hours of work for spinners were reduced from 12 to 10 in consequence of a strike, and a further increase of about 40 per cent. was granted to spinners. In order to keep other workers contented an increase of 40 per cent. was granted to winders and workers in the frame department, 33½ per cent. to weavers, warpers and drawers, and 25 per cent. to bobbin carriers, lorrymen, oilmen, workers in the blow and card rooms and other low paid time workers. In 1921 the arbitrators recommended that blow room and card room workers should be granted an increase of 40 per cent. in place of the 25 per cent. of the previous year. In the same year Seth Mangaldas granted an increase of about 15 per cent. to spinners on account of the high level of house rents and the dearth of food-grains.

In June 1923 wages in the Ahmedabad mills were reduced by 15-625 per cent. on account of depression in the industry and the difference between real wages in Bombay and Ahmedabad. Since the year 1923 no general changes have been made in rates, but slight changes have been effected in piece rates for certain sorts in particular mills, but these changes have not affected the general level of wages to any appreciable extent.

No information with regard to wage movements either in the cotton mills outside Bombay and Ahmedabad or in any other trade or industry is available.

*Amounts sent to Villages.*—As regards amounts sent to villages by the working classes in this Presidency for the support of their dependants living in the mofussil a certain amount of information has been collected by the Labour Office in the course of its family budget investigations.

In Bombay City, the average working class family consists of 4.8 persons, 4.2 of whom live in the city and 0.6 in the mofussil. A large number of workers in Bombay City do not maintain an establishment but live as boarders, and though married, keep their dependants in their villages. In the case of families, the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs. 1-11-1 pie, which constitutes 3.2 per cent. of the family income which is Rs. 52-4-6 pies per month. In the case of persons living singly in the city, the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs. 11-7-1 pie, which constitutes 26.2 per cent. of the monthly income which is Rs. 43-10-3 pies.

It has already been pointed out that the labour force in Ahmedabad is not immigrant to the same extent as in Bombay and therefore remittances to dependants is not such an important item in the worker's budget. The family there consists of 4 persons of whom 3·87 live in Ahmedabad and 0·13 in the mofussil.

From the family budget enquiry made by the Labour Office it appears that nearly 7 per cent. of the working class families in Ahmedabad remit money to their dependants living away from them. The average remittance per family comes to 7 annas 1 pie per month and the average for only those remitting money comes to Rs. 6-6-9 pies. For all the families the average monthly expenditure on this account comes to 1·00 per cent. of the monthly income which is Rs. 44-7-2 pies.

Sholapur draws its labour force from the immediate neighbourhood and the labour there is not of the same cosmopolitan character as in Bombay. The average cotton mill worker's family contains 4·68 persons, only 0·11 of whom live away from Sholapur. Of the total number of families whose budgets were collected during the family budget investigation only 6 per cent. reported that they had to remit money every month to their dependants living away from them. The average of the amount remitted by such families comes to Rs. 4-12-7 pies. The average for *all* the families from whom budgets were collected comes to 4 annas 6 pies per month. This constitutes 0·70 per cent. of the monthly family income which is Rs. 39-14-10 pies.

*Payment in kind and Allied Problems.*—Wages to industrial workers in the Bombay Presidency are almost universally paid in cash. In some cases housing is provided free of rent in addition to the cash wage but this facility is extended more to the employees of the "Watch and Ward" departments of the factories or establishments where the system prevails rather than to the actual process operatives. It also exists in the case of a few establishments where the nature of the work done demands that the workers should live on the premises. The only two known instances where wages in kind are given in addition to a cash wage in industrial concerns are the cotton mills in Sholapur City and the British India Printing Press in Bombay.

In the cotton mills in Sholapur, all operatives who do not lose more than four days in the month get a grain allowance which takes the form of a right ordinarily to purchase 20 seers of grain,—18 seers of jowari and 2 seers of dal—for a sum of Rs. 2, irrespective of the retail selling prices of these food-grains in the city. In the case of one mill, jobbers are allowed to purchase 31 seers of grain for a sum of Rs. 3 8 annas. Half-timers have the right to purchase 10 seers of grain for Re.1. In the case of another mill only two-loom weavers have the right to purchase 20 seers and one-loom weavers and half-timers can only purchase 10 seers. The value of the grain given differs from month to month according to the variation in prices. For the purposes of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office into wages in Sholapur City from the month of July, 1926, for which two mills were covered, the total price of the grain supplied worked out at Rs. 3-12-1 pie in the case of one mill and Rs. 3-14-3 pies in the case of the other, the variation being mainly due to the prices at which the mills bought wholesale. The value of the actual benefit gained by the worker getting this allowance was of course higher than the difference between these figures and the price at which the grain is given to the worker on account of the fact that he would have had to purchase this grain at retail prices. No option of a cash equivalent is given and workers sell the grain if it is not required for their own consumption although such instances are very rare.

In the British India Press, which employs nearly 500 workers, special arrangements are made for boarding and lodging about 30 workers in a special building provided in the premises of the Press. No charge is made for the services of a barber and washing, and medical attendance is also provided free. In addition to free board and lodging they receive in cash the difference between the rates of pay to which they would be entitled if they did not receive these privileges and Rs. 25 the cost per head for the arrangements provided. This system has been established in the Press for several years as the result of the desire of its founder to procure young and intelligent men from his native district for training in printing press work and at the same time to protect them from the evils of town life by providing for their board and lodging in a place close to their work. No restrictions of any kind are, however, placed on these men who are allowed the fullest liberty of movement outside working hours, but all boarders arriving after midnight have to report their names to a night watchman. If any worker persists in the habit of returning after midnight he is warned, and if a warning has no effect he is deprived of his rights of being housed in the firm's hostel.

In almost all factories in the Bombay Presidency which produce articles used or consumed by the workers, the operatives are given the right to purchase limited quantities sufficient for their own consumption at cost price. A number of textile mills in all centres of the Presidency have special cloth shops attached to the mills



for the sale of cloth to their workers and the value of the sale is in some cases deducted from wages. Fents or pieces of cloth spoilt during manufacture are sold at less than cost price to the workers of the establishments concerned. Some factories such as flour mills, in addition to selling flour to their workers at cost price, allow them the right to grind their own corn free of charge.

*Method of fixing Wages.*—By negotiated agreements or other means.—In the section dealing with conciliation and arbitration machinery, full details have been given with regard to the permanent arbitration board which functions in Ahmedabad for settling disputes between the employers and the employed. Appendix XII gives the various awards of the arbitrators since the formation of the permanent board in April, 1920. Most of these awards, however, dealt only with questions concerning percentage increases or decreases for particular groups of occupations. As far as Government are aware, none of these awards related to the fixation of a "basic" rate. Notwithstanding this fact, however, a certain similarity exists with regard to the basic rates of process operatives in the spinning sections of the Ahmedabad mills. This is due not to the formulation of a scheme of standardization or concerted action by all the millowners, but to efforts made by individual mills to have basic rates similar to those in adjacent mills. Wage fixation by negotiated agreements may, therefore, be considered to exist in the Ahmedabad mills only so far as general increases or wage cuts are concerned.

In the Bombay cotton mills there have been many strikes during the last ten years, both general and individual, in connection with demands for increases in rates of wages or proposals for cuts in wages. Similar strikes have also occurred in several industries throughout the Bombay Presidency. The majority of the strikes prior to the year 1923 where workers demanded increases in rates met with considerable success, and the workers have also had some success since then; but in all cases where employers agreed to enhance rates, the increase was made either in the form of a flat percentage covering all workers or an increase in the piece rates for particular sorts. No endeavour was made to ascertain what is a living wage or whether a standard rate should be introduced for a given piece of work in a particular unit or in a particular industry in a particular centre. The first concerted action in this connection was the proposal made by the Bombay Millowners' Association in the year 1928, to adopt standard rates of wages for all cotton mills in Bombay. This will be fully dealt with in the next section. Mention is made of it here because the scheme has been under continual discussion between the Millowners' Association and the representatives of labour since it was framed in July, 1928. The manner in which rates of wages are fixed on railways will be dealt with in the memorandum being prepared by the Railway Board.

The law of supply and demand, in conjunction with custom, appears to have been the basis of wage fixation in all industries in all centres in so far as the existing rates of wages are concerned. These remarks also apply to the Ahmedabad mills subject to the qualification that a greater attempt has been made in that centre to fix general increases or cuts by negotiation between the representatives of the employers and the employed. The Permanent Board of Arbitrators, consisting of Seth Mangaldas and Mr. M. K. Gandhi, are now considering the question of the restoration of the wage cut of 15½ per cent. effected in all the Ahmedabad cotton mills in June, 1923.

The result of the lack of proper wage fixation is that time rates of wages show an enormous variation, not only between district and district and centre and centre, but also between unit and unit in the same industrial class in one town or centre. It may be true that process operatives in textile mills get the same rates of wages that are paid to other operatives doing the same class of work, as far as a particular unit is concerned. But this does not hold good for the majority of the workers in the Maintenance Departments of the textile mills or in the engineering workshops or other classes of factories where a worker who enters into employment for the first time on a time rate does not necessarily get the wage that was paid to his predecessor for doing identical work. He is more often than not paid a lower wage and when there are others who are prepared to take up the work on the wage offered, he has either to take it or leave it. Occasionally, of course, the converse has happened, while in every industry there are many examples where long years of service on the same work, or special efficiency have earned the operative a wage very much higher than that paid to other men doing the same work.

*Extent of Standardization.*—Prior to the proposal made by the Bombay Millowners' Association during the general strike in the year 1928, to standardize wages in all the cotton mills in Bombay City, there was, so far as the Government of Bombay are aware, nothing like standard rates of wages in any industry or centre in the Bombay Presidency except, to a limited extent, in the case of basic time rates for process operatives in the spinning sections in the Ahmedabad cotton mills. Whilst dealing with the question of prevailing rates of wages and earnings in the first section in this chapter it was shown that there was a complete lack of uniformity

in the methods adopted in calculating the different additions and deductions to "basic" rates of wages in the Ahmedabad mills. It is necessary to repeat here that the term "basic" does not apply to any particular period for the whole industry. It varies as between groups and groups and also between mills and mills. In the case of some occupations the term may relate to the pre-war year. In the case of others it may relate to any other year. But for particular occupations covered by the awards of arbitrators it relates to the date on which an award for a percentage or a flat rate of increase was granted.

Similar "basic" rates with small variations are to be found in almost all the cotton mills in Ahmedabad for process operatives in the spinning departments. This is due not so much to the introduction of a scheme of standardization on scientific principles, but to an arbitrary levelling up of rates as the result of the various awards granted by individual arbitrators or by the Permanent Arbitration Board during the years 1917-20. There is no standardization or similarity in rates whatever in the Ahmedabad mills with regard to piece rates. These vary from mill to mill for the same class of production although two or more mills may give similar rates. Proximity plays an important part in the fixing of both time and piece rates in all industries at all centres, and there have been many disputes due to the workers of one mill or concern demanding the higher rates paid for similar class of work in an adjacent mill or a concern of the same type. In the case of skilled artisans such as carpenters, blacksmiths, fitters, etc., and the workers in the maintenance departments (as distinct from process operatives) who are all on time rates, the same wide variation in the methods of wage calculations exists; the general tendency, however, being towards consolidation without any additions or deductions. There is little similarity between the rates of different workers of the same class even in the same mill, the rates depending on the degree of skill possessed by each individual.

The question of standardizing wages in the cotton mills in Bombay City has been under consideration by the Millowners' Association for several years. In the written statement submitted by the Association to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee they stated that "the advantage of standardization was already perceived as far back as 1891 when the late Honourable Mr. N. N. Wadia had prepared a draft scheme." The attempt was, however, not successful. Several attempts were made subsequently but for one reason or another the old system was allowed to continue.

In 1921 the Industrial Disputes Committee recommended standardization of wages in the following terms:—

"Amongst the employers of labour there are strong organizations and the present tendency is for them to become more and more representative; but employers' associations have not yet evolved any standard scales of wages and individual employers are usually ignorant of how their rates compare with the wages given by others. The uncorrelated raising of wages in one factory is almost invariably seized upon as a grievance in other factories of the same class, and instances of strikes caused in this way are within the memory of all. The attempts made to standardize wages on a definite principle have hitherto been largely ineffective, though the Bombay Millowners' Association and more recently, we understand, the Engineering Employers' Federation have begun exploring the ground in that direction. It appears to us that the continual insistence of our witnesses on the differences of machinery and conditions of labour in the various factories, however justified, is liable to obscure the importance of a common practice in the scale of wages which, if it is not reached by agreement amongst the employers, will eventually be arrived at by pressure from amongst the men at a greater sacrifice of industrial peace. We think the subject is one which merits the most careful consideration for all employers."

No effective action was, however, taken on this recommendation. In January, 1927, the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) also recommended standardization of wages. Paragraph 65 (page 140) of the Report of the Board stated:—

"We cannot regard as satisfactory the present system, under which the wages in the Bombay mill industry vary from mill to mill, even when the managing agents are the same, and would recommend, for the consideration of the Millowners' Association, the adoption of a system of standardized wages for the same class of work as between mill and mill. We realize that the adoption of such a system presents very great difficulties in Indian conditions owing to the illiteracy and imperfect organization of labour and that its introduction might probably cause discontent among those operatives whose wages might be prejudicially affected. None the less, we think that the standardization of wages throughout the Bombay industry would tend to strengthen its position. A suitable scheme could, of course, only be satisfactorily drawn up in consultation with representatives of labour. It is obviously preferable that it should be adopted by all mills but if a large proportion of the mills were willing to accept it, it would not be long before the others followed suit."

In pursuance of this recommendation the Committee of the Millowners' Association appointed, on the 6th January, 1928, a special sub-committee "to investigate and report as to the measures which might reasonably be taken towards the standardization of muster-rolls and wage rates." (A full account of the work of this sub-committee is given in paragraphs 185-187 (pages 87-88) of the Fawcett Committee's report.) In the meanwhile, the Joint Strike Committee, which had been formed early in May, 1928, in connection with the general strike of that year, included in the Seventeen Demands which they published on 3rd May, one that "conditions of employment, work and payment should be standardized." In the reply which the Millowners' Association gave to these demands on the 12th May, they stated with reference to this particular demand that the matter had already received their attention and that a scheme had been prepared. This was the first public intimation given by the association of its intention to standardize wages. Subsequently in a statement which the association published on the 17th May, defining the terms on which they would re-open the mills affiliated to their association and readmit the employees to work, they specified that the workers would only be readmitted on standardized rates of wages and revised and standardized muster-rolls. Several discussions on the Millowners' scheme took place between the sub-committees of the association and the Joint Strike Committee appointed to discuss the proposed scheme. A certain measure of agreement was arrived at at one stage, but the negotiations eventually broke down over the proposal made by the association to fix the standard piece rates for weavers in such a manner as to bring about a cut of 7½ per cent. on the average earnings of those operatives. The schemes submitted for consideration of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee were those that were presented to the Joint Conference on the 4th October, 1928.

The Standardization Scheme of the Millowners' Association is divided into two parts:—(1) The standardization scheme proper for the regulation of wages and work in the majority of the mills in Bombay and (2) The efficiency scheme, called in discussion "Rationalization," for the regulation of wages for work requiring greater efficiency, such as attendance by a sider on two sides of a ring frame instead of the ordinary one, or by a weaver on three or four looms instead of the ordinary two with a suitable increase in wages.

The latter scheme was further sub-divided into two parts, one applicable to the mills under the agency of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., Ltd., and the other to the mills under the agency of Messrs. James Finlay & Co.; and to a certain extent, in the Kohinoor mills under the agency of Messrs. Killick, Nixon & Co. Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. were successful in introducing double-frame working in all their mills by the year 1928, although their attempt led to a prolonged strike of about two months during January and February, 1928, in all their mills. The workers were, however, eventually defeated and the Sassoons were successful in introducing the system. An earlier attempt made by the same firm to introduce three-loom working in their Apollo and Manchester mills in 1927, also met with strikes lasting for about a month in both these mills. These strikes also resulted in favour of the employers. In all cases where the Sassoons introduced efficiency measures the percentages granted for the additional work were standardized, but the actual rates, basic or otherwise, in the individual mills remained the same and will continue on the existing bases till such time as the general standardization scheme is introduced by the Millowners' Association in all mills in Bombay City which are affiliated to the association.

The general standardization scheme, as it is to be applied to the majority of the mills in Bombay, follows in the main the "Uniform Lists," which obtain in Lancashire. The fundamental basis of the whole scheme is stated by the Millowners' Association to be "a fair day's wage for a fair day's work." The main principles on which the scheme was based were as follows:—(1) There should be no variation between mill and mill in the rates of wages of operatives of the same class doing the same amount of work with the same skill and similar machinery and material, and that variations in the earnings of individuals should depend on their own individual labour and skill as tested by production. (2) Operatives should not suffer owing to defects in machinery or material. (3) All the operatives except the weavers should get at least the same average wages that they have been hitherto getting provided they work with reasonable efficiency, but that there should be a cut of 7½ per cent. from the present average wages of the weavers.

The scheme as put forward by the association at the Conference on the 4th October, 1928, was considerably modified as a result of meetings that took place between the sub-committees of the association and the Joint Strike Committee in January and February, 1929, during the sittings of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee. This modified scheme was accepted by the Joint Strike Committee, subject to some general objections and some qualifications which have been dealt

with in paragraphs 188 and 266 of the Committee's Report. The Committee held that the scheme, as modified, was fair and reasonable with a few minor alterations on some points of difference between the parties (paragraphs 268, 272, 273, 278, 280 and 281A of the Report), subject to such revision of the part of the scheme that related to the wages of weavers as might be necessary to prevent a cut of 1 per cent. in their wages, if the Committee's recommendations on this point in paragraph 239 of their Report were adopted. The scheme itself reserved various matters for subsequent standardization and it was proposed to revise sections of it after a few months' trial, if necessary. With this object, and that of avoiding strikes and lock-outs, machinery was provided by "Mediation Rules," agreed to by both sides for setting up joint committees to enquire into disputes arising under the scheme and to arrange for their settlement. The part of the Standardization Scheme which is called the "Rational" or "Efficiency" system and which aims at reducing the number of operatives employed in mills while raising their wages and providing conditions favourable for extra efficiency expected from the operatives, was also held to be fair and reasonable. The modified main "Standardization" and "Efficiency" schemes are given in Appendices VIII and IX at pages 202-239 of the Committee's Report.

The Millowners' Association proposed to bring the main standardization scheme into operation with effect from 1st October, 1929, after discussing the recommendations made by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee with the representatives of labour. In view of the fact, however, that the joint discussions on the committee report broke down on the 24th April in consequence of the refusal of the Mill owners' Association to agree to the reinstatement of 6,000 hands displaced as a result of the three strikes in the Wadia group of mills in Bombay, and also in view of the progress of the present general strike, it is not known, at the moment of writing, whether the Association will be in a position to bring the scheme into operation with effect from the date proposed.

*Effect of Wage-changes on Labour Supply.*—Although there have been no general changes in the rates of wages obtaining in the chief industries in the Bombay Presidency since the reduction of 15½ per cent. effected by the Ahmedabad Millowners in June, 1923, several individual concerns have made direct and indirect attempts to reduce wages during the last five years. In the case of some up-country mills outside the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad, and Sholapur, these attempts by employers have met with some success, mainly owing to want of effective trade union organization. But, as far as the Government are aware, these attempts have had no perceptible effect on labour supply. The comparatively high absenteeism which is to be found among the workers employed in Indian industrial concerns give employment to a large number of "badlis" or substitutes who are able to get a fair amount of employment during the month by securing temporary work in different concerns.

Another important factor for consideration in dealing with this question is the fact that the Indian industrial worker is primarily an agriculturist. If he cannot get employment in industry he returns to his native village and either cultivates his own land or works for another cultivator. One of the reasons why the strikers were able to last out for over five and a half months in the big strike of 1928, was that thousands of workers who could not earn a living or raise funds by other means in Bombay, migrated to their villages.

Government possess no statistics or information with regard to the question of unemployment in industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency. Labour leaders frequently state that a good deal of unemployment in industry exists, but this has not been substantiated to any extent by the personal investigations made by the officers of the Labour Office, although there was a displacement of a large number of hands consequent on the introduction of the double-frame working and other efficiency measures in the mills under the agency of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., during the years 1927 and 1928. One of the principal clauses of the agreement of the 4th October, 1928, was, that "the question of musters shall not arise" in so far as the offering of employment to the number of workers who had originally gone on strike was concerned. The Millowners' Association insisted on the insertion of this clause because they wanted to bring their standardization muster into immediate operation on resumption of work. The effect of the introduction of the standardized muster in October, 1928, was to displace about six to eight thousand workers. A few disputes occurred on account of displacements in individual mills, but as it was, some mills were not able to secure the full complements they required because several thousands of the workers who had left Bombay during the strike had not returned. It is probable that many of these were under the impression that their places must have been permanently filled, and did not return at all. The introduction of the standardization schemes, when they are brought into complete operation, will probably result in the displacement of a few thousand more workers.

The question of "effects of wage-changes on labour supply" has, generally speaking, not arisen in the Bombay Presidency in such a manner as to justify an enquiry into it, and consequently no further information than that given above is available on the subject.

It is assumed that the Commission, in this section, do not wish to deal with the question of the effect of *industrialism* on agricultural labour. Every big engineering work, e.g., the Tata Hydro-Electric Schemes, the Irrigation Dams and Canals of the Public Works Department, absorbs for the time being a quantity of labour from surrounding villages attracted by the relatively high wages paid on such works, and causes either a shortage of agricultural labour or sends up its cost. But this is presumably not a matter for discussion under the heading of "Effects of wage-changes on labour supply."

*Minimum Wages—Advisability and possibility of statutory establishment.*—There are three main considerations which govern the adoption of legislation on minimum wages. These are (a) the living wage, (b) the fixing of minimum wages in any trade in relation to the wages paid to workers in the same trade in other districts and (c) the capacity of an individual industry to pay what is regarded as a minimum wage. When it has been decided upon what basis legislation is to be framed, there are various methods of applying the principles. By the first method different minima may be fixed for different industries by *ad hoc* boards appointed to deal with each industry as is done under the Trade Board system in England and in the Wages Boards in certain Australian States. According to the second method, national minima may be fixed for various industries as is done in certain parts of Canada, the United States of America, etc. According to the third method, an actual figure may be laid down in law as a minimum to apply for the whole country as was done by the Minimum Wage Act of New South Wales in 1908.

The Government of Bombay have no information in their possession which suggests that conditions in the Presidency necessitate legislative action on this subject, although they agree that the principle is unobjectionable.

One of the chief objects of Minimum Wage Legislation of the English type is the prevention of "sweating," particularly in what are known as the home working trades. These, in the sense in which the term is usually understood, do not exist to any large extent in this Presidency, and if the object of the legislation is to prevent sweating in such trades, so far as this Presidency is concerned, such legislation would appear to be quite unnecessary.

The question of a minimum wage in the Bombay cotton mill industry has been considered by the Fawcett Committee in their report in connexion with the seventeen demands submitted by the Joint Strike Committee. After discussing the principles underlying Minimum Wage Legislation, and the opinions expressed on this question by various authorities, the committee say, "In the present case, we have material for safely saying that any considerable increase in the wages bill would hamper the industry to an unjustifiable extent in the existing circumstances of trade depression; but we may well decline to go further and say that the state of the trade does not permit of even a small increase in the lowest wage proposed to be paid if it is shown that the wage does not enable the workers concerned to maintain a suitable standard of living." They further observe, "We do not think that in this enquiry we should be justified in importing the principle of a minimum wage to the extent demanded, viz., the fixing of a definite standard of Rs. 30 below which the wages of no mill operative in Bombay should fall. The introduction of such a standard was not contemplated by the parties when they agreed to the reference, as is clearly indicated by the fact that the standardisation scheme put forward by the Joint Strike Committee themselves in opposition to that of the millowners contains a number of instances in which the wages are less than Rs. 30."

While considering the question whether the minimum wage should apply to female as well as male operatives the committee arrived at the conclusion that a woman can maintain herself in Bombay on Rs. 18 per month. They point out that they appreciate the contention that the standard of comfort of textile workers in Bombay is exceedingly low, and sympathise with their aspirations to improve it. But they think that any attempt to do this by raising the general level of wages in the mill industry in the present circumstances of trade depression and fierce outside competition, might only result in the closing down of more mills and thus, in the end, be injurious to the interests of the working classes. In their opinion to impose a minimum wage of Rs. 30, might also probably lead to the return of the former practice of employing boys instead of adults.

*Deductions.*—The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay, conducted a comprehensive enquiry during the years 1926 and 1927, into the subject of Deductions from Wages or Payments in respect of Fines. It was held in response to a Circular Letter issued by the Government of India to all Provincial Governments requesting

them to obtain information on the extent of the practice, in their respective administrations, by which employers in industrial concerns are empowered to inflict fines upon their workmen. The enquiry covered all industrial establishments and also all the larger labour employing organizations, such as the docks, municipalities, building and construction works, railways, tramways, shipping agencies, hotels, restaurants, shops, clubs, stores, etc., and all large offices in the Bombay Presidency. The scope of the enquiry was not confined to the question of deductions only; and many of the other more important matters dealt with in the English Truck Acts were also covered. In the case of the textile industry the period selected was the first ten months of the year 1926. The whole of the year 1925 was taken for all the other factories, industrial organizations, etc., included in the investigation. The results of the enquiry were published in the form of a special report during the year 1928, with the title "Report of an Enquiry into Deductions from Wages or Payments in respect of Fines."

The following notes contain the results of the 1926-27 enquiry conducted by the labour office. The proposals made by the Bombay Millowners' Association to standardize rules governing conditions of employment and discipline, the infliction of fines, etc., which were one of the Terms of Reference of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, appointed by the Government of Bombay, on the 13th October, 1928, are given at p. 180 of the committee's report, together with the recommendations of the committee.

*System of Fining.*—The system of making deductions from wages in respect of fines is general in the textile industry in all parts of the Bombay Presidency. With regard to factories, the system exists in almost all Government and local fund factories and in the majority of the more organized and larger workshops. It is also associated with municipalities, factories and establishments working regularly throughout the year. It does not appear to be the general practice in seasonal establishments such as gins and presses. In offices the system is almost wholly limited to the fining of peons and menials in the establishments where the system exists, although a few cases were reported where clerks were also occasionally fined. Among the classes of concerns included in the group "Miscellaneous Establishments," fining was general in the large hotels, clubs and restaurants but was almost absent in most of the larger commercial organizations such as shops, stores, etc.

The table below shows the number of establishments among those sending in returns in which fines were stated to be inflicted :—

Groups of Establishments covered.	Number of returns.	Number of concerns in which fines were inflicted
I. Textile Mills—		
(a) In Bombay .. .. .	76	76
(b) In Ahmedabad .. .. .	49	49
(c) In Sholapur and Other Centres .. .. .	19	19
II. Factories (excluding Textile Mills)—		
(a) Government and Local Fund .. .. .	32	23
(b) Ordinary Factories .. .. .	277	75
(c) Gins and Presses .. .. .	400	30
III. Public Utility Establishments .. .. .	18	18
IV. Municipalities .. .. .	68	57
V. Government and other Non-Factory Establishments.	15	11
VI. Steamship Lines .. .. .	12	12
VII. Offices .. .. .	180	48
VIII. Miscellaneous Establishments (Shops, Stores, Hotels, Restaurants, Clubs, Theatres, etc.).	85	23
Total ..	1,231	441

All textile mills in Bombay City have printed rules and regulations governing conditions of employment, dismissal with or without forfeiture of wages, fines, etc. Only three mills in Ahmedabad city reported the existence of such rules. In the mills in the remaining centres of the Bombay Presidency rules are occasionally found to exist. All municipalities and Government and local fund factories have properly drawn up rules which, among other things, lay down the conditions under which fines may be imposed. The infliction of fines is also governed by prescribed rules in railway workshops, the larger and the better organized factories, in large public utility companies and in some of the larger non-factory establishments. If the results of the enquiry as a whole are considered, it would appear that outside the textile mills in Bombay and the larger workshops, rules setting out the conditions of fining are the exception and not the rule.

As regards the extent to which fines could be inflicted in industrial establishments by persons in the positions of foremen, jobbers, mukadams, etc., only one or two textile mills in Bombay reported that the power was delegated to jobbers. In many of the Ahmedabad mills this power rests with special employees, who are called "detectors." With the exception of these cases, all the remaining factories and concerns reported that the power to fine rests with the heads of departments. In some cases a confirmation is required by the manager or superintendent-in-charge of the whole establishment. In the smaller concerns the proprietors, who act also as managers, reserve the power to themselves.

With the exceptions of a few workshops and factories, which give employment tickets or check cards with the main rules under which fines are inflicted, printed on their reverse, no endeavour appears to have been made to communicate to employees the conditions under which fines are imposed beyond posting the rules, where they exist, in prominent positions. In the majority of cases the reporting concerns stated that such rules and conditions were known by custom or usage—the few notable exceptions being the few mills and factories which maintain records of signatures or thumb impressions signifying that the rules have been made known to the signatories.

With the exceptions of the railway workshops, the large public utility companies, municipalities, some of the larger Government and non-Government factories and non-factory establishments, no limits appeared to have been prescribed with regard to the extent to which fines may be inflicted.

The offences for which fines are inflicted are generally breaches of discipline, insubordination, disobedience, bad or negligent work, careless or negligent loss or damage to tools or machinery, etc. In some cases special lists of further offences connected with the nature of the work undertaken are drawn up. Deductions made from wages in respect of *actual fines* for bad or negligent work did not appear to cover the loss sustained by the employer with regard to the spoilt or damaged article, but appeared to be in most cases (to quote the Government of India's letter) "*bona fide* fines inflicted as correctives."

Generally speaking, the employee fined is given full particulars relating to the fine at the time of the occurrence necessitating it. In the case of some municipalities and a few of the larger workshops, the procedure is more elaborate. The offence for which a fine is intended to be inflicted is put down on a "charge sheet" and the worker is asked to record his explanation—a fine being imposed only if the explanation tendered is unsatisfactory. In some cases appeals against fines inflicted by subordinate officers in the position of heads of departments lie to the controlling authority.

Out of the 144 textile mills in the Presidency which furnished information on this subject 84 mills, or 58.3 per cent., reported that deductions were made from wages in respect of material spoilt or damaged during manufacture and handed over to the workers concerned. In most cases the deduction was made at the price at which the article would have been sold had it not been spoilt or damaged, and only in a few cases at actual manufacturing cost or at a price intermediate between the cost and the selling value of the undamaged article. This practice is very rare in factories and establishments outside the textile industry.

All amounts realized in respect of these deductions were generally credited to the "sales account," except in the case of a few mills in Ahmedabad, where a certain percentage of such deductions was handed over to detecting folders.

Speaking generally, there are few deductions made from wages in the Bombay Presidency on account of charges for supply of tools or materials to workers. In cases where such deductions were reported they appeared to be on account of the supply of special tools to special workers. In the textile industry some mills require weavers to provide themselves with their own reed hooks and combs, and in cases where these are supplied by the mills their cost is recovered in cash or by deductions from the wages. The conditions governing such deductions, where they exist, are made known to the workers concerned prior to engagement.

A few cases were reported where a worker preferred to resign rather than be fined, but the evidence with regard to this question was overwhelming that workers generally preferred to be fined rather than to forfeit their service instead.

The punishment of suspension is general in municipalities and in Government establishments. A few of the larger workshops inflict no fines at all, and only punish offenders by suspending them from work for some days. This form of punishment is also found to exist in railways, other public utility companies, and some of the larger non-factory organizations in addition to a few concerns in all the other groups.

Speaking generally, some sort of punishment for late attendance is universal except in the case of the majority of the seasonal factories, such as gins and presses. In some cases employees are not admitted to work after a period of grace has expired.

In some others "pay for work" is the rule, i.e., employees only receive pay for the actual number of hours worked. But in the majority of cases where late attendance is punished by the infliction of a fine, the fine is either a fixed amount or it is graded according to the number of minutes late.

Non-attendance is similarly punished in various ways. In the mills in Sholapur city the "double khada" rule is observed—loss of two days' wages for each day's absence without leave. This practice is also followed in various mills and factories in all parts of the Presidency. In some cases the penalty for continued absence without leave over a number of days (prescribed in most cases), is dismissal with or without forfeiture of wages. In some other cases absence without leave is punished by set fines. In almost all cases wages are not given for the days of absence.

*Extent of Fining—The textile industry.*—The following table shows the deductions made in respect of fines together with the numbers of instances in which fines were inflicted in 45 textile mills in all parts of the Bombay Presidency employing an average daily number of 90,819 workers comprising 68,754 men, 20,568 women and 1,497 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 2,63,89,592-14-8. Only 45 mills correctly gave the information in the detailed manner in which it is set out here.

Subject of deduction.	Number of instances in which fines were inflicted during the first ten months of the year 1926.			Total amount of deductions made in respect of fines.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
Fines for—				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
(a) Breaches of discipline or establishment rules.	14,782	6,332	44	4,259 3 6	1,161 14 3	11 10 9
(b) Bad or negligent work.	284,951	15,334	11	68,223 6 3	2,585 6 6	1 6 6
(c) Loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer.	11,568	1,077	236	4,371 13 6	225 12 0	19 15 0
(d) Any other purposes than those enumerated in (a), (b) or (c).	6,928	1,911	932	1,432 12 9	185 6 6	115 13 0
Total ..	318,229	24,654	1,223	78,287 4 0	4,158 7 3	148 13 3

An examination of the above table shows that fines for offences connected with bad and negligent work predominated both in the case of men and women operatives, the proportions of instances under this head to the total number of offences for which fines were inflicted being 89·54 per cent. in the case of men and 62·20 per cent. in the case of women. The incidence of fines for bad or negligent work works out to 3 annas and 10 pies for offences committed by men and 2 annas and 8 pies for offences committed by women. This suggests that fines of this nature are, generally, *bona fide* fines inflicted as correctives and not with a view to recompense the employer for damage sustained. An important caveat to this statement, however, is the fact that in the textile industry nearly 60 per cent. of the reporting mills hand over spoilt or damaged material to the workers concerned and recover the cost—generally at the selling price of the undamaged materials—from the workers' wages. This practice is dealt with in a subsequent paragraph; but it will be obvious that the real extent of the worker's financial loss depends upon the price he obtains for the article and on that point no information was available.



In the case of children, fines were inflicted in 76·21 per cent. of the instances for reasons other than breaches of discipline, bad or negligent work and loss of or injury to materials, tools, etc. Fines, in the case of children, are generally for loss of identification tokens. The incidence of fines under this head works out at 2 annas per offence. If all offences are considered together, the incidence of fining works out at 3 annas and 11 pies per offence in the case of men, 2 annas and 8 pies per offence in the case of women and 1 anna 11 pies in the case of children. The proportion of total fines to the total wages bill for the 45 textile mills covered by the statistics contained in the above table works out at 0·313 per cent.

Many mills did not give particulars under the separate heads (a), (b), (c) and (d) but gave combined figures for one or more of the four sections. It was possible, however, to obtain from these returns figures showing (a) the wages bill, (b) the numbers of workers employed, and (c) the total amount of fines inflicted. Grouping these figures, it is found that in the case of 66 textile mills in Bombay city employing 146,753 workpeople—comprising 113,506 men, 33,192 women and 55 children—with a total wages bill of Rs. 4,73,83,399 for the first ten months of the year 1926, the total fines inflicted amounted to Rs. 1,18,707, or 0·25 per cent. of the wages bill.

In the 30 mills in Ahmedabad which supplied similar information, the total amount of fines inflicted was Rs. 1,02,468 as against a total wages bill of Rs. 1,01,66,879 for 31,396 workers comprising 24,170 men, 6,067 women and 1,139 children. The proportion of fines to wages in this case amounts to 1·01 per cent.

For 16 mills in Sholapur and other centres, employing 26,134 workers, comprising 18,390 men, 5,732 women and 2,012 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 49,80,528, the total amount inflicted in fines during the period covered was Rs. 21,268, or 0·43 per cent. of the wages bill.

If the above figures are combined for all the textile mills in the Bombay Presidency, it is found that in 112 mills employing 204,283 workers comprising 156,066 men, 45,011 women and 3,206 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 6,25,30,800 the total amount of fines inflicted was Rs. 2,42,463, or 0·39 per cent. of the wages bill.

*Factories (excluding textile mills).*—The following table presents statistics in respect of 25 factories and workshops employing 25,359 workpeople, comprising 25,031 men, 251 women and 77 children with a total wages bill of Rs. 88,17,530 for the year 1925 which furnished detailed information under group I (a), (b), (c) and (d) :—

Subject of deduction.	No. of instances in which fines were inflicted during the year 1925.			Total amount of deductions made in respect of fines inflicted.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Fines for—						
(a) Breaches of discipline or establishment rules.	6,785	—	—	5,274 1 9	—	—
(b) Bad or negligent work.	2,668	1	—	4,434 0 4	1 0 0	—
(c) Loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer.	1,659	1	20	1,787 14 1	5 0 0	10 0 0
(d) Any other purposes than those enumerated in (a), (b) or (c).	2,799	—	—	4,437 5 6	—	—
Total ..	13,911	2	20	15,933 5 8	6 0 0	10 0 0

An examination of the above table shows that fines were inflicted in factories for breaches of discipline to a greater extent than for bad or negligent work, the proportion of instances under this head to total instances amounting to 48·77 per cent. Women operatives were only fined in two cases, Rs. 5 in one case and Re. 1 in the other. The incidence of fining per offence works out at Rs. 1-2-4 for men, Rs. 3 for women, and 8 annas for children, and the proportion of total fines to the total wages bill amounts to 0·18 per cent.

*Public utility establishments.*—Out of the 18 returning organizations or departments of organizations included under the category of "public utility departments" eight departments submitted detailed information in the schedule with regard to deductions made under the various subheads under Group I. The following table summarises the deductions made in the case of these eight departments during the year 1925 out of the earnings of 8,512 workpeople comprising 8,223 men, 167 women and 122 children with a total wages bill of Rs. 40,19,980 :—

Subject of deduction.	No. of instances in which deductions from wages were made.			Total amount of deductions.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
I. Fines for—				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
(a) Breaches of discipline or establishment rules.	7,096	5	3	4,595 12 0	1 14 0	2 0 0
(b) Bad or negligent work.	725	—	3	1,352 12 6	—	1 0 0
(c) Loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer.	756	—	—	652 1 7	—	—
(d) Any other purposes than those enumerated in (a), (b) or (c).	2,185	—	—	1,849 8 0	—	—
Total ..	10,762	5	6	8,450 2 1	1 14 0	3 0 0

It will be seen from the above figures that the incidence of fining per offence amounted to 12 annas 7 pies in the case of men, 6 annas in the case of women and 8 annas for children. The proportion which the total amount of fines bears to the total wages bill is 0·21 per cent. The majority of fines were inflicted for breaches of discipline.

Five public utility establishment or departments did not supply detailed information under each subhead but gave total amounts for fines inflicted and the numbers of instances. All these five departments gave figures for the total wages bill for the year 1925, but information regarding workpeople involved was furnished by only three departments. If the figures for these five departments are combined with the group figures for the above eight departments it is found that in 13 departments with a total wages bill of Rs. 55,18,301 fines were inflicted in 11,602 instances and amounted to Rs. 9,337, or 0·17 per cent. of the total wages bill. The average amount of fine per instance works out at 12 annas 11 pies.

*Municipalities.*—All the 68 municipalities which furnished replies in the questionnaire did not give figures with regard to the numbers of workers employed and the wages bill—only twenty municipalities giving complete information with regard to numbers employed, the total wages bill, the amounts inflicted in fines and the numbers of instances in which they were inflicted. The tabulated results for these

twenty municipalities showed that out of a total number of 1,832 employees comprising 1,252 men, 545 women and 35 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 3,24,098 for the year 1925, the total amount imposed in fines was Rs. 337 inflicted in 569 instances. The incidence of fining per offence works out at 9 annas 6 pies, and the proportion of fines to the total wages bill at 0·10 per cent.

Six municipalities employing a total of 263 workers, comprising 174 men, 77 women and 12 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 37,690 reported that no fines were inflicted during the year covered by the enquiry.

Five municipalities which did not supply information regarding either the wages bill or the numbers of workpeople employed, although called for, showed that a total amount of Rs. 461-8-0 was deducted as fines in 386 cases. The incidence of fining per offence in these cases worked out at Rs. 1-3-2. If the combined figures for all municipalities which supplied information regarding amounts of fines and instances are taken, it is found that the incidence of fining worked out at 13 annas 5 pies per offence.

Four other municipalities supplied figures for the total amounts of fines deducted, but gave no information regarding the number of instances in which they were inflicted or figures for the wages bill and the numbers of workpeople employed. The total amounts of fines inflicted in these four municipalities during the year 1925 amounted to Rs. 422-12-6.

*Government and other Non-factory Establishments.*—The returns from the Kandivli quarries of the Bombay reclamation scheme, the Shivrajpur mines, and the works and dredging fleet and stores departments of the Bombay Port Trust submitted properly classified information under each head under Group I of the schedule. The following table gives a summary of the deductions made under each head in the case of 8,264 employees, comprising 6,959 men, 1,288 women and 17 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 36,84,102 for the year 1925 :—

Subject of deduction.	No. of instances in which deductions from wages were made.			Total amount of deductions.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
I. Fines for—				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
(a) Breaches of discipline or establishment rules.	329	—	—	342 5 0	—	—
(b) Bad or negligent work.	871	—	—	400 8 0	—	—
(c) Loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer.	169	—	—	161 11 0	—	—
(d) Any other purposes than those enumerated in (a), (b) or (c).	234	—	—	145 10 0	—	—
Total ..	1,603	—	—	1,050 2 0	—	—

It will be noticed that no deductions on account of fines were made in the case of women and children. The proportion of the amount of fines to the total wages bill is 0·03 per cent. The incidence of fining per offence works out at 10 annas and 6 pies.

Two other establishments did not give classified figures under the various sub-heads under Group I, but gave only the total amounts inflicted in fines together with the number of instances in which the fines were recovered. If the figures for these two departments are combined with the figures of the four departments already

dealt with, it is found that the amount of fines inflicted in the case of 12,439 work-people comprising 11,129 men, 1,293 women and 17 children, with a total wages bill of Rs. 67,63,400 was Rs. 1,527 recovered in 1,637 cases. The proportion of fines to the wages bill in this case works out at 0.02 per cent. and the incidence per offence at 14 annas and 11 pies. One manganese mine employing over 1,000 work-people reported that the total amount of deductions in respect of fines during the year 1925, amounted to Rs. 14 2 annas recovered in two instances. The mine, however, did not give its total wages bill for the year. The dredging section of the Bombay Reclamation which employed over 500 workers with a wages bill of nearly Rs. 2½ lakhs for the year 1925, reported that deductions in respect of fines amounted to Rs. 48 11 annas, but no information was available regarding the number of instances in which these deductions were made.

Twelve offices employing 2,102 clerks and peons, comprising 2,083 men, 1 woman and 18 children, with an annual wages bill of Rs. 23,69,837 for the year 1925, reported that the total amount deducted in fines during the year was Rs. 508 1 anna recovered in 266 instances. The proportion of fines to the total wages bill was 0.02 per cent. and the incidence of fining worked out at Rs. 1-14-7 per offence.

Nineteen other offices in which no fines were inflicted during the period covered by the enquiry gave the number of workers and the total wages bill. The tabulated results for these offices showed that the total wages bill for 849 workers, comprising 838 men, 7 women and 4 children, amounted to Rs. 11,63,611. If these figures are combined with the previous figures, it is found that in the case of 2,951 workers comprising 2,921 men, 8 women and 22 children, with a total wages bill of about Rs. 35,33,450 the total amount of fines inflicted was Rs. 508 1 annas, or 0.01 per cent.

*Miscellaneous Establishments\*.*—Thirty-five out of the 76 reporting concerns gave information in the schedule. In 16 out of these 35 concerns no fines were inflicted. In the 19 concerns where fines were inflicted the results of the tabulations showed that out of a total wages bill amounting to Rs. 8,99,113 for the year 1925, for 2,664 workers comprising 2,417 men, 89 women and 158 children, fines amounting to Rs. 6,094 were deducted in 5,621 instances, the proportion of fines to total wages being 0.68 per cent. and the incidence of fining per offence amounting to Rs. 1-1-4. If these figures are combined with the 16 concerns in which no fines were inflicted, it is found that deductions amounting to Rs. 6,094-14-2 were made in 5,621 cases out of a total wages bill of Rs. 12,62,951 for 3,278 employees comprising 2,967 men, 133 women and 178 children. The proportion of fines to the wages bill in this case worked out at 0.48 per cent.

*Steamship Companies.*—No information was available with regard to the extent of fining in the steamers under the agencies of the various companies with offices in Bombay and Karachi. Fines to seamen are regulated by law and are laid down in the articles.

*Other Deductions.*—The figures returned in the enquiry on account of deductions made from wages under the various other heads were not capable of tabulation in summary form. Deductions from wages on account of supply of tools, materials, etc., provided by the employers were negligible. Deductions for supply of water were fairly frequent. Only a small number of textile mills reported that deductions from wages were made for the supply of medicines and medical attendance. Almost all establishments which provided housing for their workers stated that rent was collected by making deductions from the wages of their employees. Education appeared to be an item for which no deductions of any importance were made from the wages. Deductions on account of provident fund were generally confined to Government organizations, public utility concerns, larger non-factory establishments such as port trusts, etc. Establishments mainly connected with the railways reported deductions from the salaries of their better paid employees for the provision of reading rooms and libraries. All the textile mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad which charge interest on advances granted to their employees frequently make deductions on that account. Although a few returns showed that deductions were made in respect of compulsory contributions to charity this practice appeared to be very rarely followed. Deductions for articles damaged during manufacture were almost entirely confined to textile mills, and 84 mills in the Bombay Presidency reported such deductions. In the 46 mills which furnished statistics regarding both the amounts realized for such deductions and the number of instances in which they were effected, it was found that these deductions amounted to Rs. 1,60,326-5-4 and related to 50,981 instances.

*Utilization of fines.*—*Textile industry.*—In Bombay City, all deductions from wages in respect of fines, and the value of spoilt or damaged material handed over

\* The group "Miscellaneous Establishments" includes shops, stores, wholesale book depots, hotels, restaurants, clubs and gymkhanas, theatres, cinemas and other similar concerns.

to the workers were made in the pay books from the gross wages payable and disbursement was only made of the net wages due. In the case of fines, 67 out of the 76 reporting mills stated that the amounts of fines were deducted from the gross wages bill and only net wages actually payable were drawn from the bank for wage payments. The amounts for fines thus went to the reduction of the total wages bill. Out of the remaining 9 mills, 6 mills reported that the amount recovered in fines was utilized for workmen's welfare work. One mill had a special fines fund to which all fines were credited. This fund is entirely used for welfare. One mill reported that it utilized fines not only for welfare but also for payments of gratuities to retiring operatives and heirs of deceased workmen. Another mill stated that it proposed to devote all fines collected for donations to various charitable objects. The total value of the deductions made in respect of spoilt material handed over to the workers was generally credited to the sales account but in some cases the amount was considered as a reduction in the wages bill.

As in the case of the textile mills in Bombay so also in Ahmedabad, amounts recovered in fines and deductions for the value of spoilt or damaged material handed over to the workers are not recovered after payment of gross wages have been effected but are deducted from the gross wages payable, and net wages only are disbursed. The amounts recovered in fines either go towards a reduction of the wages bill or are computed separately and variously credited either to the wages account, the general fund account or to some other special account. In some cases the amounts were utilized for cost of replacement and were credited to depreciation. Out of the 49 reporting mills in Ahmedabad only 2 mills utilized the amounts recovered in fines specifically for welfare work. One mill devoted all money thus recovered entirely to charitable purposes and another mill appropriated half the total amount and made over the other half proportionately between the informers who brought offences punishable by fines to the notice of the management.

With regard to deductions made in respect of spoilt or damaged articles handed over to the workers, the proceeds were credited to sales account in 9 cases. Ten mills reported that half the amount thus recovered was credited to the company's accounts and the other half handed over to the "detecting folders." One mill made over the whole of the amount so realized towards rewards to detectors, whereas in one case the proportion of the amount realized handed over to these detectors was nine-sixteenths. Two mills credited this amount to the wages account and in the remaining mills the amount went directly to the credit of the profit and loss account.

In Sholapur and other centres in all cases where deductions were made on account of spoilt material handed over to the workers the amount realized in such deductions was appropriated by the company either by crediting the amount to sales account or some other head of revenue. With regard to the disposal of fines, 17 mills credited the amount of fines to the wages account and only two mills utilized the amount realized in connection with welfare work.

*Factories.—Government and local fund.*—One factory reported that the amounts recovered in deductions for spoilt material or lost tools were used entirely for welfare work. Five factories reported that all fines were credited to special fines funds. In the remaining cases, fines are recovered in the pay bills submitted either to Government or to the controlling authority as the case might be, and automatically go towards the reduction in the wages bill. In all cases where fines funds exist, the funds are governed by prescribed rules. These rules provide that all fines shall be credited to the fines fund and that the assets of the fund are to be placed in a bank to the credit of the controlling officer under his official designation. The following is legitimate expenditure from the fund :—

(a) Gratuities or donations to workmen on discharge; (b) donations to widows and families of deceased workmen; (c) allowances to sick or injured men in special cases; (d) relief in deserving cases, e.g., losses from floods or fires in the houses of men who have claims on the factory; (e) cost of construction and maintenance of such buildings and institutions as rest and dinner sheds, grain and other shops and schools for the benefit of the workmen and their families provided that the entire expenditure on this account, capital as well as recurring, is met from the fines fund and no portion thereof is charged against the working expenses of the factories; and (f) bonuses which may be given periodically for good attendance or long service or for specially good service.

Separate cash books are maintained for the fines fund and it is laid down that this fund should not appear in the factory balance-sheets. It is a distinct fund at the disposal of the controlling officer and is not to be merged in the factory permanent advance or general cash account.

*Ordinary Factories (excluding Gins and Presses).*—Eighteen concerns included under the group of non-Government or ordinary factories, did not appropriate the amount of the fines inflicted to their own credit. In six cases which included almost all the larger railway workshops, all fines are credited to special fines funds which are entirely devoted to welfare work. In 2 cases fines were credited to the employees'

sports funds ; in 1 case it was utilized for the purchase of medicines for employees ; in 1 case it was distributed, at the end of the year, amongst those who showed specially good conduct ; in 1 case they were utilized in giving an annual feast to the workers ; in 1 case all fines were added to the annual Divali bonus ; in 2 cases they were devoted to charity ; in 1 case the amount was utilized for gratuities to good workers and to donations for charitable objects ; in 1 case all fines were refunded to the workers at the end of the year if their conduct, subsequent to being fined, was found to be satisfactory ; in 1 case fines were credited to the subscriptions and donations account and, in the last case, they were applied to the school fund. In the case of the remaining factories all fines were appropriated by the establishments concerned.

Deductions made in respect of damaged materials handed over to the workers went to the credit of " sales " accounts.

*Other Establishments.*—In the case of the other classes of establishments fines inflicted for damages to or loss of tools, materials, etc., were generally utilized for replacements. Fines inflicted for other reasons were utilized in some form or other for the welfare or benefit of the employees in the majority of the " public utility establishments," " offices " and " miscellaneous establishments." In the case of " cotton gins and presses " all Municipalities except the Bombay Municipality which reported the existence of special fines funds utilized for the benefit of the workers, and the majority of " Government and other non-factory establishments " the amounts realized in fines were generally credited to the establishments concerned.

The question of standardizing the various rules in the Bombay mills regarding the conditions of employment of operatives arose at an early stage of the general strike of the year 1928. The Joint Strike Committee in May, 1928, included in their demands one that the conditions of employment, work and payment should be standardized (No. 10), and another that all the rules that are usually posted in the mills or departments should be standardized by the Millowners' Association so that they should be uniform in all the mills (No. 15). In reply, the committee of the Association answered that they agreed that there should be such standardization, and said that rules accordingly had been already formulated, and would be published in due course. During the strike, draft rules were discussed with some of the labour representatives, and some of the proposed rules amended. The draft that was submitted to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee for consideration was the one finally presented by the Millowners' Association on the 4th October, 1928. Some proposals for amendments and additions were submitted to the committee by the Association on the 15th January, 1929, but the committee concerned themselves primarily with the draft of the 4th October.

It is not necessary for the purposes of this memorandum to summarise the comments made by the committee on these rules or the considerations which led them to frame the rules in the form given. These matters are discussed at pp. 13-58 of the committee's report.

*Desirability of fines legislation.*—Having carefully considered the results of the Labour Office Enquiry, Government came to certain conclusions with regard to the desirability of legislation and the form it should take, and these conclusions were submitted to the Government of India in 1927. The Government of Bombay see no reason to modify the opinion then formed. Briefly the following principles should govern any legislation that is proposed :—

(1) Fines cannot be altogether abolished as a method of maintaining discipline and efficiency. The alternatives of suspension and dismissal would be unsuitable in cases of offences of a minor character. Legislation, therefore, should not prohibit fines, but only aim at their regulation and control.

(2) The maximum amount of fine should be fixed and no fine should be paid by instalments or carried over to another wage period.

(3) All fines should be devoted to welfare work for employees.

(4) No employee whose remuneration depends in any shape or form on the amount of fines which he inflicts should be allowed either to recommend or to inflict a fine on a worker. The power to fine should be vested only in managers and heads of departments.

(5) Employers should be required to maintain complete and detailed registers of all fines inflicted.

(6) All offences for which fines could be inflicted should be clearly defined and made known to the workmen.

(7) The withholding of wages as a form of punishment should be prohibited.

(8) Forfeiture of wages as a punishment should not be permitted except where, as laid down by the Fawcett Committee in Rule 15 of the rules referred to above, a workman does not give the employer the prescribed notice demanded by his conditions of service. In such cases wages due at the time could be forfeited as liquidated damages.

(9) A fine should be substituted for the present system of handing over spoilt material to the worker and charging him its value.

(10) The "double khada" system whereby employers have the power to cut a man two days' wages for each day's absence without leave should be abolished. Government understand that the Bombay Millowners' Association have definitely condemned this system, and that no provision to this effect has been incorporated in their standardized rules.

(11) Employers should not be allowed to make compulsory deductions for medical attendance as such deductions are not fair to employees not taking advantage of the facilities offered and also because the worker is made to pay for something over which he has no control.

(12) Compulsory deductions for the use of reading rooms and libraries should not be made although there is no objection to employers asking for voluntary contributions.

(13) Compulsory contributions to charities selected by the employer should be abolished.

(14) The rate of discount charged for cashing "havala" tickets, i.e., the pay-note given to employees who leave the service of an employer before pay-day, as explained in the wages section of this memorandum, should be limited to the amount necessary to defray the extra cost of making payments other than on pay-day.

(15) Every employer must frame rules and bring them to the notice of his employees showing the terms of employment and the conditions under which fines may be inflicted. The amount of the fine inflicted together with the reasons therefor should be made known to the worker at the time of inflicting the fine, i.e., when the offence is detected.

(16) The power of suspension should be retained, but all punishments of this kind inflicted should be recorded in a register.

(17) Every employee should be given a notification slip informing him of the reasons for his dismissal.

The results of the labour office enquiry showed that the system of fining prevailed in almost all the various types and classes of establishments and concerns covered by the enquiry, but only in the large industrial establishments did it appear to have reached such proportions as to necessitate legislation. Government consider that it would be premature at the present stage to apply to all concerns the provisions of any legislation that might be passed and it does not appear necessary. Even if a simple act were passed the present inspecting staffs of the Factories and Mines Departments would have to be considerably strengthened for its proper administration. Detailed legislation might cost more than would be justified by the results. Besides it might not be possible to administer the law effectively if it entered into too many details. Government further held that the employers' interests would also have to be taken into account as too much interference with industry was undesirable. It was recommended therefore, that the proposed legislation should be confined, for the present, to factories and mines coming under the Factories and Mines Acts.

Government were of the opinion that even if the proposed legislation was confined to factories and mines coming under the Factories and Mines Acts its proper enforcement would present innumerable difficulties. The existing Factories and Mines Departments appear to be the most suitable agencies for administering the law in its broader aspects. The work of inspecting the registers and of prosecuting defaulting employers could be entrusted to them. Their activities would however have to be supplemented by some other agency who would hear complaints, investigate into their causes and bring them to the notice of the prosecuting authority. This appears to be essential if the spirit of the law as well as the letter is to be observed.

Government did not consider it necessary to recommend to the Government of India that the proposed legislation should cover such matters as fines for damage to or loss of property; deductions for supply of materials and tools, in respect of rents for housing provided by employers, for supply of food grains, for supply of water, for contributions to provident funds, or for entertainments provided by the employer, because no abuses appeared to exist in connection with such deductions. It was also not considered desirable to have any legislative control for bonuses for regular attendance or for better work.

*Periods of Wage Payment—Periods for which wages are paid and periods elapsing before payment.*—In September, 1924, the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour requested all local governments to collect full and authoritative information as to the extent to which wages are paid daily, weekly, fortnightly, monthly or for other periods, the normal time which elapses between the close of the month in which the wage was earned and the actual payment of the wage; and the extent to which the practice of providing rations or giving advances prevails.

The Labour Office conducted a comprehensive enquiry on the subject, the results which were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1925. To the best of the knowledge of the Labour Office no radical changes have taken place in any industry in the Bombay Presidency with regard to the systems which prevailed

in the year 1924, both with regard to the periods for which wages were paid and the periods elapsing before payment. The results of the 1924 enquiry may therefore be considered as exhibiting the conditions which prevail to-day.

In the *Cotton mill industry* which is the premier industry in this Presidency two different systems of wage payment prevail. In the mills in Bombay City and, it is believed, in mills at such other centres as are affiliated to the Bombay Millowners' Association, wages are calculated on a monthly basis and payments are effected from 12 to 15 days after they become due. One of the terms of reference which the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, appointed on the 13th October, 1928, in connection with the general strike in the Bombay textile mills of the year 1928, were asked to consider was: "whether the standing orders for operatives as amended and presented by the Millowners' Association on the 4th October, 1928, are fair and reasonable." Standing Order 12 of these rules laid down that "before the beginning of each month a notice will be posted outside the time-keeper's office and in the mill stating (a) the dates on which the mill will be closed during the following month and (b) the date or dates on which wages will be paid." A list submitted by the Millowners' Association showed that in recent years pay days were mostly between the 11th and 15th of a month and in some cases even the 9th was suggested if falling just before a Sunday or other holiday. As the advisability of legislation to prevent undue delay in the payment of wages to industrial workers was already under the consideration of the Government of India, the committee were of opinion that this question should best be left to the Government of India and to the decision of the legislature of a Bill on the subject was introduced. The committee were, however, of opinion that there are undoubtedly good arguments to be urged in support of the proposal that monthly wages should ordinarily be paid within a week of the close of the month for which they are due; but, on the other hand, they appreciated the difficulty in the way of making a general rule to that effect. The committee recommended that the Millowners' Association should, without waiting for legislative effect, try to get their members to agree to a reduction of the period, at any rate, to 10 days and they considered that as the joint committee of the employers and the employed was to be established under the proposed mediation rules, this was a matter which could very well be referred to them for discussion.

In the *Ahmedabad mills* and, it is believed in mills at such other centres as are affiliated to the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, wages in the case of piece-workers are calculated on a fortnightly basis and are paid about 8 days after they are due, and in the case of time workers are calculated on a monthly basis and are paid about 15 days after they are due. The term "fortnightly" is used with reference to what is known as "haptas." A "hapta" is a period which varies from 14 to 16 days, not according to the solar or lunar calendar, but according to the convenience of each particular mill and which may begin and end on any day in the month. In all centres when important holidays fall a day or two before the pay-day, payment of wages is usually made a day or two earlier.

With regard to the facilities for purposes of mitigating the extent of indebtedness due to the withholding of payment of wages, the Bombay Millowners' Association conducted an enquiry on behalf of the Labour Office in the year 1924, the results of which showed that out of 62 mills which supplied information 40 per cent. were conducting cheap grain shops where food grains were sold at wholesale market prices on the basis of cash as well as credit. In the latter case payment was recovered on pay-day. Just before and during the time when prices were controlled in Bombay City, namely, in 1918-19, 49 mills out of the 62 mills which provided information to the Bombay Millowners' Association in 1924 had opened cheap grain shops. The object of these cheap grain shops was not so much the offering of any particular facilities for the purpose of mitigating the hardships caused by the withholding of wages as to afford some measure of relief against the high prices charged by unscrupulous retail grain dealers at a time when the market was disorganized. With the return to normal market conditions 24 out of these 49 mills had closed these special shops. Thirteen out of the 62 reporting mills had no grain shops at any time. Since 1924 these cheap grain shops have been discontinued in most cases, the cause for discontinuance being that the workmen would not take advantage of these shops because their *Bawias* (retail grain dealers) did not give those who did not buy grain from them credit for other purchases they might choose to make. This worked as a hardship on the men and they preferred to buy the grain also from the *Bawias*.

In the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office in the years 1926-27 in connection with the question of deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines only 12 out of the 76 reporting mills stated that grain was given in the shape of advances to workers, who required loans for purchasing articles of food. At the present moment, Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., who are the agents of 11 textile mills in Bombay City are about the only large employers of textile labour in the city who provide cheap grain shops at their mills for the benefit of their workers. The total sales from these shops during the year 1928 amounted to Rs. 24,554 and to Rs. 37,398 for the half-year ending 30th June, 1929.



In the 1924 enquiry 56 per cent. of the mills were found to advance money to the workmen in times of difficulty, either against the provident fund or wages, at nominal or no interest, or through co-operative credit societies, where the rates of interest varied from 9 per cent. to 18½ per cent. per annum. In the 1926 enquiry 46 or 60·5 per cent. of the reporting mills stated that no advances were granted either directly by the mills or through privileged "pedhiwalas" or grain dealers appointed or recognized by the mill authorities. Twenty mills or 26·3 per cent. of the reporting mills granted advances against wages due. Interest at 9 per cent. was charged in three cases, at one anna per rupee in two cases and at half an anna per rupee in one case, in all cases up to next pay day. In the case of "havala" tickets they were cashed at a discount of 3½ per cent. The term "havala" requires to be understood. When a worker leaves the service of a mill before pay-day and has arrears of wages due to him at the time of leaving, he does not generally receive his wages in cash at once. Instead he gets a ticket on which the amount of wages due to him is entered. This ticket is called a "havala." The worker, if he remains in Bombay can present the ticket for payment on the regular pay-day or ask one of his friends to collect the money and remit it to him in case he leaves Bombay. If the worker, however, requires the money at once, he presents the "havala" ticket to a pedhiwala (money-lender) or a grain dealer who is often both a retail merchant and a money-lender and cashes the ticket at a varying rate of discount. Eight mills permitted recognized grain dealers or pedhiwalas to grant advances to their workmen at specified rates of interest. In two cases the rate permissible was half an anna per rupee: in one case one anna per rupee and in four cases a quarter of an anna per rupee. One mill, which permitted a privileged money-lender to grant advances at one anna per rupee, prescribed that the interest which could be charged on "havala" tickets should be half an anna per rupee only.

In the case of the Ahmedabad mills only 5 out of the 49 reporting mills for the 1926 enquiry did not grant advances to their operatives. In the remaining 44 cases advances were granted, but only for bigger festivals such as Divali, Holi, etc., in 5 cases. In 26 mills no interest was charged. In the remaining 18 mills interest was charged at varying rates. In 9 cases the rate charged was either 3 pies per rupee per fortnight or per month according as the worker concerned was a fortnightly or monthly employee. In one case it was 2 pies per rupee and in another 1½ pies per rupee up to the next pay-day. In 2 mills the rate charged was 3 pies per rupee for fortnightly workers and 1 anna per rupee for monthly workers. Two mills charged 6 pies per rupee—in one case per month and in the other up to the next pay-day. Three mills, however, charged 1 anna per rupee per "hapta" or per month according as the workers concerned were fortnightly or monthly employees. It is interesting to observe that the rate of interest in these cases works out at 150 per cent. per annum in the case of loans given to fortnightly workers and at 75 per cent. in the case of loans granted to monthly workers.

In the mills in Sholapur and other centres, 8 out of the 19 mills which furnished information for the 1926 enquiry reported that advances were normally granted on demand; in 2 cases only if the circumstances under which advances were asked for were considered to be sufficiently sound to warrant them and in another case loans against wages due were given only before special festivals or holidays. In one case advances were made from the provident fund provided that an employee who asked for such an advance was a subscribing member to the fund. Interest was charged in three cases—at half an anna per rupee in one case, at one anna per rupee in another and at a nominal rate of interest in a third. In the cases where advances were granted from the provident fund account the rate of interest charged was 6½ per cent.

In *Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories* wages are paid in as many as four different ways—daily, weekly, fortnightly and monthly. In the first two cases there is no delay in the payment of the wages due; but when wages are paid fortnightly the interval between the completion of the period and the actual payment varies from 3 to 30 days. A similar period in the case of monthly wages varies from 1 to 14 days. The 1924 enquiry showed that no facilities for rations were provided for gin and press workers, but advances were granted in some cases to regular monthly paid workers. In the 1926 enquiry no fewer than 191 concerns out of the 400 reporting gins and presses stated that advances were granted to their employees. In four of these cases advances were granted before employment owing to the fact that gin and press labour is difficult to secure. The limit to which advances could be granted was laid down at 75 per cent. of the wages due in one case. In all cases where advances were granted no interest was charged. It was not possible to ascertain the reasons which led up to a greater latitude in the matter of granting advances to gin and press workers between the years 1924 and 1926. In a few cases where owners of presses forwarded covering letters commenting on the 1926 enquiry they expressed the view that the system of fining could not be introduced in the mofussil gins and presses owing to a shortage in the labour supply during the season. It

was also pointed out that advances had to be granted to prospective employees in order to attract them into service. Sometimes advances have to be granted to the Mukadums who act as labour recruiting agents. But these facts alone would not account for the great increase in the number which reported in 1926 that facilities in the form of advances against wages were given.

In the *Engineering Industry* payment for regular workers is generally on a monthly basis. In a very few cases wages are calculated on a fortnightly basis. The number of days for which wages are withheld in the case of monthly payments varies from 1 to 30, but 15 to 20 days is the general rule. In cases where wages are settled fortnightly payment is withheld for periods varying from 6 to 15 days. Where workmen are engaged for job work the method varies according to the particular arrangements made, but payment is generally effected within one or two days after the close of the period. There is very little in the nature of the granting of any special facilities to the workpeople. In *iron and steel works* wages are generally calculated on a monthly basis, and the period after which payment is made varies from 1 to 15 days. Advances are seldom made, but, if given at all, are granted to the extent of one-fourth to one-half of the pay earned at the time when the advance is asked for. In the case of contract labour wages are calculated for fortnightly periods, and are paid from 10 to 28 days after they are due.

In *Brick Factories* the systems mostly in vogue are daily and weekly payments with no delay in payment of the wages due. In cases where wages are paid weekly payment is made after a lapse of one day in one case, and on the following marketing day after the completion of the week in another. Fortnightly and monthly systems are also to be found, and in one case wages are calculated on the completion of a particular contract or a definite piece of work, and are paid either at the end of the year or on the completion of the work. Advances are, however, given from time to time against wages earned, but there are no other special facilities.

In *Flour Mills* the monthly system may be said to be general with a delay of 1 to 10 days in respect of payment of wages due although in some cases the period of delay is as long as 30 days. Daily and weekly systems exist generally with no delay in payment. In one case of weekly payment a delay of ten days was reported. Where wages are paid monthly cash advances are often given, but there are no facilities for rations. In one case a mill reported sales of flour to its employees at production prices.

In *Printing Presses* the monthly system is general and wages are paid from 1 to 30 days after they are due. In one case a delay of 20 days to 2 months was reported. Cash advances are generally given. In two cases where wages are paid fortnightly the period of delay varies from 5 to 25 days and no advances are given. There is one case of weekly payments and wages are paid 10 days after they become due.

In *Rice Mills*, the monthly system was found to prevail in 8 cases, the weekly and daily system in 4 cases, and the fortnightly and the bi-weekly systems in one case each. There is generally no delay in payment where wages are calculated weekly, fortnightly or bi-weekly, but where wages are paid on the daily method payment is made every second day in two cases and daily in others. Where wages are paid monthly the period of delay in payment varies generally from 1 to 7 days, but cases have been reported of delays up to 10 and 15 days. In a few cases advances are given, but there are no other facilities.

In *Tanneries* wages are paid weekly, fortnightly and monthly, and the period of delay varies up to 15 days, but 5 days is the general rule. Advances are given to workers where wages are calculated on the monthly basis, but no facilities at all are granted in other cases.

In *Docks* and other outdoor establishments there are five different methods of wage payments. In the case of monthly and fortnightly payments the period of delay varies from 1 to 15 days, and in the case of weekly payments it varies from 3 to 7 days, while in the case of daily payments there is no delay. In one case wages are paid on a 10-day basis but 2 or 3 days after they become due. Facilities in the shape of cheap grain and advances are given in some cases and Employee's Co-operative Credit Society advances loans in one case. In the case of *Tramways* wages are in two cases paid monthly after a lapse of 10 days, and in one case fortnightly after a lapse of a period which may vary from 1 to 20 days. No facilities of any kind are given.

In *Municipalities* the monthly system is fairly general, with a delay which varies up to 15 and 20 days in one case each. The weekly method was reported in 4 cases, with a delay of 1 to 8 days for payment, and the fortnightly method in 6 cases with a delay of 1 to 10 days. There are practically no facilities allowed.

In *Government Factories* wages are paid monthly after a lapse of 1 to 10 days. In one case, piece workers are reported to be paid after a lapse of a period varying from 10 to 15 days.

The following table gives a general summary of the 1924 enquiry for the whole of the Presidency by industries or classes of establishments covered —

Establishments.	Period of payment (daily, weekly, monthly, etc.).	Number of days normally elapsing between conclusion of period of work and actual payment.	Notes regarding facilities, if any, for obtaining rations from employers.
Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills.	(a) Fortnightly (Process workers in mills affiliated to the Ahmedabad Mill-owners' Association). (b) Monthly (all other workers).	8 days. 12 to 15 days.	
Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories.	(a) Daily .. .. . (b) Weekly .. .. . (c) Fortnightly .. .. . (d) Monthly .. .. .	Nil .. .. . Nil. 1 or 2 days in a few cases. 3-4 days in one case and 20 days in another case. 1 to 14 days .. .. .	None None. None. Advances are in a few cases paid if required.
Engineering Works ..	(a) Monthly in 14 cases .. (b) Fortnightly in three cases (c) Contract labour on completion of jobs or according to terms agreed upon.	Two weeks on an average in 11 cases. 20 to 30 days in three cases. One week in two cases and one to two weeks in one case. 1 or 2 days .. .. .	Advances given in 3 cases only. No facilities. Advances given if required except to daily wage-earners.
Iron and Steel Works	(a) Monthly in four cases .. (b) Contract labour fortnightly in one case.	1 to 15 days .. .. . 10 to 28 days.	(a) Advances given in one case to the extent of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the pay.
Brick Factories ..	(a) Daily in three cases .. (b) Weekly in five cases .. (c) Fortnightly in one case .. (d) Monthly in one case .. (e) On the completion of work in one case.	Nil .. .. . One day in one case, on the market day in one case, in all other cases nil. 10 days. Nil. When the work is finished or at the end of the year.	No facilities. Advances paid in two cases. Money paid in advance from time to time.
Flour Mills .. ..	(a) Monthly in 15 cases .. (b) Weekly in four cases .. (c) Daily in three cases ..	1-10 days, 15 days in one case, 7-30 days in one case, and 2-25 in one case. Nil .. .. . One day in one case only.	Advances paid in 7 cases. Advances paid in only one case.
Printing Presses ..	(a) Monthly in 18 cases .. (b) Fortnightly in two cases .. (c) Monthly in 8 cases ..	1-15 days. 20 days to 2 months in one case. 5-25 days in one case .. 1-7 days but 7-10 and 10-15 days in one case each.	Advances paid in 7 cases. No facilities Advances paid in 4 cases.
Rice Mills .. ..	(b) Weekly in three cases .. (c) Daily in four cases .. (d) Fortnightly and Bi-weekly in one case each.	Nil .. .. . Every second day in two cases and every day in two cases. Nil.	Advances paid in 1 case only. Advances paid in 1 case only.
Tanneries .. ..	(a) Monthly in three cases .. (b) Fortnightly in one case .. (c) Weekly in one case ..	10-15 days in one case. Within five days in other cases. Only one day .. .. . 1-15 days .. .. .	Advances paid if required. No facilities. No facilities.
Docks .. ..	Monthly .. .. .	14 days .. .. .	Employees' Co-operative Credit Society advances loans.
Tramways .. ..	(a) Monthly in 2 cases .. (b) Fortnightly in one case ..	10 days .. .. . 1-20 days .. .. .	No facilities. No facilities.
Municipalities ..	(a) Monthly in 30 cases .. (b) Fortnightly in 5 cases .. (c) Weekly in four cases ..	3-18, 5-15 and 1-12 in one case each and 1-10 days in other cases (1-15 days in 12 cases). 1-10 days .. .. . 1-3 days .. .. .	Practically no facilities. No facilities. Advances paid labourers in one case only.
Local Government Factories.	Monthly .. .. .	1-10 days. Piece-workers 10-15 days in one case.	No facilities.
Government Offices ..	Monthly .. .. .	1-15 days. School teachers up to 30 days and village officers up to the end of the following month.	No facilities.

*Desirability of legislation to Regulate periods of Wage Payments.*—The question of shortening the period for which wages are paid in the Bombay cotton mills received the earnest attention of the Government early in the year 1924. His Excellency the Governor of Bombay endeavoured to bring the Millowners' Association round to the view that wages should be paid fortnightly. The association originally agreed with His Excellency on the point that wages should be paid on a fortnightly basis, but eventually decided in full committee that the proposal was not a popular one because (1) the workers themselves did not desire more frequent payment; and (2) it was impracticable from the employers' point of view. The association quoted the instance where the system had been introduced into the mills under the agency of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Company, and had to be abandoned subsequently at the request of the employees themselves.

In October, 1924, the Government of India invited the views of all local governments on a private Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly by Diwan Chaman Lal for weekly payment of wages. After consulting the various interests concerned the Government of Bombay arrived at the conclusion that the demand for such legislation should precede its introduction, and that it would be futile to place on the Statute Book an Act which is asked for by nobody, and would, therefore, remain a dead-letter in a great number of cases, and be used as an engine for blackmail and false accusations in the remainder. In replying to the circular letter issued by the Government of India, the Government of Bombay said that it would probably come as a surprise to many members of the public, and especially to the public of other countries, to learn that it has been repeatedly ascertained from the Bombay mill hands that they do not desire any change in the monthly system of wages now prevailing. One of the main reasons why the mill hands appear to prefer the monthly system is their apprehension that, if wages are paid weekly, the traders who deal with them on credit, as also their money-lenders, will demand the making up of accounts weekly without any reduction in the rate of interest. It is an axiom that when dealing with compound interest any given rate operates more severely the more frequently it is computed. The money-lender probably argues with the customer that one anna per rupee per month is the same as one pice per rupee per week. But as a matter of fact, with these two rates of interest, the former made up monthly and the latter weekly, the sum of Rs. 100 invested at the beginning of the year (without any repayment during the year) will amount at the end in the one case to Rs. 206-5 annas 1 pie, and in the other to Rs. 223-14 annas 4 pies. This apprehension was believed to be perfectly genuine, and would constitute the main objection to the acceptance of the principle asked for by Diwan Chaman Lal.

It was stated that from the point of view of the employers, there was no doubt that, having regard to the character of Indian labour, industrial concerns on this side of India would suffer considerably more from absenteeism under the weekly than they do now under the monthly basis for payment of wages. It has been observed in studying the returns from mills supplying information to the labour office that there is almost invariably a marked drop in the number of workmen attending the mill on the day succeeding pay-day. With weekly payment instead of monthly payment of wages this marked drop would occur four times instead of once in the month. It is believed that if weekly payment of wages were the best method in the general interests of the industry, the Bombay Millowners' Association would have introduced it long ago. The Government of Bombay see no reason to modify now the views then expressed. In view of almost general opposition, Diwan Chaman Lal withdrew his Weekly Wage Payment Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 4th February, 1926.

*Desirability of Legislation to prevent Delay in Payment.*—The Government of India in the department of industries and labour issued a circular letter to all local governments in July, 1926, requesting their views, after consulting the interests concerned, regarding the advisability of legislating for the purpose of preventing undue delay in the payment of wages to industrial workers. The Government of India briefly outlined the matters to govern which legislation might be provided. The main points for consideration were (1) the principal of such legislation; (2) the scope of the proposed measure; (3) the method of its enforcement; (4) the statutory limits to the time within which wages must be paid; (5) the statutory limits for wage payments in the case of piece workers; (6) the dates on which periods for which payments are to be made should begin and end; (7) the question of including bonuses within the scope of the legislation; (8) the limitation of wages to payments in cash; (9) penalties; (10) disposal of fines inflicted under the Act; (11) power of local Governments to grant exemptions; (12) advisability of legislation providing for shorter periods of wage payments; (13) forfeiture and withholding of wages; and some other miscellaneous points such as the necessity for providing co-operative societies amongst workers, etc.

In replying to the Government of India's letter, the Government of Bombay agreed with the view expressed by the Government of India, that if abuses can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of the Government to introduce such legislation. It was, however, essential first to ascertain whether the evil it was desired to eradicate was a real one, and prevailed to such an extent as to justify the somewhat drastic remedy of penal legislation with its natural accompaniments—interference with long established methods of conducting business and an addition to the expenditure of local governments. Such considerations ought to carry no weight if the lot of the workers in this Presidency could be improved by legislation of the kind proposed, and it was necessary therefore to examine the proposed legislation and the assumptions on which it was based in order to see if the conditions laid down had been fulfilled.

The Government of India's letter suggested that Government action was necessary because systematic delays in the payment of wages add appreciably to the economic difficulties of workmen. This was perfectly sound theoretically, but it required examination in the light of the practice as regards payment in industry generally, and when so examined this argument lost a good deal of its force. As was pointed out by the Bombay Millowners' Association, who quoted a speech of the Honourable Sir B. N. Mitra, Member of Industries and Labour, in the Legislative Assembly in February, 1926: "What the worker wants is that his wages should be paid quickly." The workers whose economic difficulties were affected by the present delay of a fortnight in the payment of monthly wages were those who take up employment in a particular mill or other establishments for the first time, i.e., it is only the first period of wages that is withheld for longer than a month because after the first period of waiting is over the worker gets his wages regularly every month. Under the monthly system of payment prevalent throughout India,—*will which if not proposed to interfere*—a new worker entering a mill, etc., at the beginning of a month has to wait nearly six weeks for his first month's wages. Thereafter he is paid promptly every month. The legislation that was proposed would therefore, in practice, benefit only the irregular or casual worker or the person entering into employment for the first time and then only to the extent that at the best he more than a week earlier than usual. The Government of Bombay were unable to see that the economic position of industrial workers generally would be materially assisted by legislation of this kind. There was an almost general consensus of opinion that legislation of the kind proposed should be, and could in practice only be, applied to those establishments coming under the Factories and Mines Acts, but those are the establishments where the regular payment of wages is the rule. The practical effect of such legislation therefore would be to permit a relatively small number of workmen to receive their first month's wages a week earlier than they do at present. The Government were unable to agree that penal legislation was necessary in such circumstances, for the practical benefit to the worker in industry generally would be negligible. While being of opinion that the proposed legislation was not required, the Government of Bombay after consulting various labour and employers' interests, submitted the following views on the points raised in the Government of India's letter in case it was decided by that Government to proceed with the proposed legislation.

*Scope of the Measure.*—Opinion was overwhelmingly in favour of confining such legislation, if it was necessary, to establishments subject to the Factories and Mines Act, the main reason for such limitation being the practical impossibility of enforcement if it were made generally applicable. The workers' interests generally agreed to this limited application but suggested that State employment, railways, municipalities and all organised industries and large establishments should be covered while the Central Labour Board were of opinion that it should also be extended to other industrial concerns "where the more intellectual classes such as clerks are employed." The Bombay Textile Labour Union recognised that additional staff would have to be employed but considered it worth while incurring this extra expenditure.

*Method of Enforcement.*—Opinion on this subject was largely in favour of the responsibility for enforcing legislation being confined to the existing Factories' and Mines staff. The workers' interests, however, favoured an "outside and independent agency" to enforce the Act. The Bombay European Textile Association (which is composed of mill managers) objected because the duties of the factory inspector should not entail having to take sides between employers and employees where wages are concerned.

After carefully considering the various suggestions that were made, the Government of Bombay were unable to agree that the power of putting the penal law in motion should be given to any other authority than the officials who would be responsible for administering the Act, that is, factory inspectors. The Director

of Information and Labour Intelligence pointed out that a clear distinction should be drawn between procedure for the prompt recovery of wages due to a worker and the punishment of an employer for an infringement of the law. A workman or an organization of workmen might draw attention to breaches of the Act and ask for the law to be put in motion, but the initiation of proceedings should be in the hands of the administrative authority. Government concurred with this view and were opposed to any suggestion that the power to prosecute should be given to private individuals or associations of individuals.

*Statutory Limits of Wage Payments.*—Government agreed with the view expressed in the Government of India's letter that a bill providing for the weekly payment of wages was not likely to receive the support of public opinion or to prove effective in its operation. It was pointed out by one group of mills that, in 1912, they made the experiment of fortnightly payments, but the attempt had to be given up owing to opposition from the workpeople. The workers' interests who dealt with this point in their reply to the Government of India's letter recognized that the system of monthly payments was the one most favoured by the workers. The Social Service League hoped, however, that public opinion would soon be unanimous for weekly payment of wages, while the Bombay Textile Labour Union felt confident that if the advantages accruing from a weekly system of wage payments were fully explained to the workers, they would withdraw their opposition and agree to the system of payments for shorter periods. One labour organization, however, definitely stated that the monthly system of wages was more advantageous to the majority of workers. The Bombay European Textile Association pointed out that the association had approved of the fortnightly payments of wages but when their members were instructed by their respective employers to persuade the operatives employed under them to accept this system, they were in almost every case informed by the operatives themselves, that any departure from the present monthly system would be detrimental to their interests. The operatives refused to accept any change from the present system and said that any attempt to change would be met by a strike.

Government were in entire agreement with the views expressed almost unanimously by well-informed opinion. They considered that legislation therefore should deal only with wages paid under the existing system which in the Bombay Presidency is almost universally monthly, the chief exception being the Ahmedabad mills.

*Period within which Wages should be paid.*—There was a wide difference of opinion on this point. The view of the Government was that in organized industries wages were already paid *regularly*, and the practical benefit of reducing the period within which wages must be paid after they become due would be very small. The Government were therefore inclined to the view that so far as piece workers were concerned 14 days should be allowed after the end of the month, but in the case of workers on time rates, the period should be seven days. In the Ahmedabad mill industry, where payment on a fortnightly basis is general—the men affected being mostly piece workers—and for fortnightly wages generally, the period should be seven days. For weekly workers it should be three days, but where workers were engaged from day to day they should be paid off at the end of each day. It was important in framing legislation that the period for which wages were paid and the rate at which they are calculated should be kept distinct because workers may be engaged on weekly or daily rates of pay, but may be paid once a month or once a fortnight, or once a week as the case may be. Employers should also be empowered to fix the date upon which they elect to begin and close the month and to fix different dates for different departments.

*Inclusion of Bonuses.*—Only a few opinions were received on the question of including bonuses within the scope of the legislation. Government were of opinion that where a bonus was another name for a high cost of living allowance or an allowance at a fixed percentage over basic rates or was a reward for good work or good attendance and is provided for in the muster rolls and paid regularly month by month, it should be treated as other wages were treated. Bonuses which take the form of payment to the employees when the profits of the business, in the opinion of the employers, justify such a distribution, should clearly not be affected by the operation of the Act.

*Limitations of Wages to Payments in Cash.*—Government did not consider that any expression of opinion was called for upon this question as it could more appropriately be dealt with in any legislation which might be considered necessary as the result of the enquiry which was being conducted at the request of the Government of India into the question of fines in industry and deductions from wages.

*Penalties for Infringement.*—None of the non-official bodies consulted and very few officials expressed any opinion as to the extent of the penalty. Government concurred with the suggestion of the director of information and labour intelligence

that penalties might be fixed at Rs. 100 for the first offence, Rs. 250 for the second offence, and Rs. 500 for the third and subsequent offences, the fines recovered under the Act to be credited to the Public Treasury in the same way as the fines inflicted for any other breach of the law.

*Exemptions.*—Government were of opinion that power should be reserved to local Governments to grant exemptions from the Act in cases where special circumstances rendered this necessary.

*Payment of Wages for Broken Periods.*—Several questions were raised in the course of the enquiry regarding points not specifically covered by the Government of India's letter. The most important related to the question of the forfeiture and withholding of wages. Government held that the period of notice in any particular industry varies and is largely a question of custom which it will be difficult to deal with by legislation, but the question of payment for broken periods should be considered.

Government were of opinion that this question of prompt payment for broken periods depends upon whether the period of employment is broken by the action of the employer or of the employee. Where an employee takes a job which is payable monthly and leaves before the end of that period it is not unreasonable for the employer to insist that the ordinary procedure should be followed and that the wages should not be payable until the regular pay day. Where, however, an employer himself gives notice to an employee at any time in the course of the month he should be compelled to pay the wages of that employee up to date and the wages of that employee should continue until payment is received.

*Indebtedness.*—Indebtedness prevails to a very large extent among industrial workers in the Bombay Presidency and there is considerable statistical information available on the subject, mostly collected by the Bombay Labour Office during the course of its family budget investigations.

According to the report on an enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay City published by the Labour Office in 1923, interest on debts forms nearly 3 per cent. of the total monthly expenditure. Of the families considered, no fewer than 47 per cent. were in debt. The extent of the indebtedness of the family in debt is ordinarily the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings. The extremes were 14 months' and one-third of a month's earnings respectively. The usual rate of interest is one anna per rupee per mensem or 75 per cent. per annum and in a few cases 150 per cent. The interest is often not paid monthly and the worker frequently does not know what his interest charges are. Some money-lenders obtain in fact even a higher rate than 150 per cent. by taking promissory notes for larger amounts than the loan actually given.

As regards single men, for whom 603 budgets were collected, 45 per cent. were in debt, the average expenditure on interest being 12 annas 3 pies and the average expenditure on interest for those in debt being Re. 1-11-2 pies per month.

The Labour Office made in the year 1926-27 an enquiry into the social and economic conditions of workers belonging to the Bombay Port Trust and living in the tenements built by the Trust. Over 80 per cent. of the families considered were found to be in debt. In the majority of cases the amount of debt varied from a month's income to four months' income. The rates of interest paid on the money borrowed were very high. In over 40 per cent. of the cases the rate was 150 per cent., in three cases it was 225 per cent., and in three other cases it was 300 per cent.

The Ahmedabad worker is also heavily in debt. According to the Labour Office enquiry made in the year 1926, 69 per cent. of the families were in debt. The amount of debt varies from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. The most common rates of interest are from 12 to 24 per cent. but higher rates of interest are not unknown and in fact in one case the rate of interest reported was as high as 225 per cent.

According to an enquiry made by the Labour Office in the year 1925 into the family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur City, 63 per cent. of the cotton mill workers' families in Sholapur are in debt, the extent of which varies from less than a month's income to many times the monthly income. In 49 per cent. of cases, however, it is equal to between one and four months' income of the family. The rate of interest paid is between 36 and 42 per cent. in 40 per cent. of the cases. The highest rate of interest reported was 150 per cent. These conclusions regarding the heavy indebtedness of the working classes are confirmed by investigations made by social workers and the experience of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.

In Bombay City money is usually borrowed either from a Marwari or from a Pathan. The Marwari generally lends money on good security such as ornaments, utensils, etc. The Pathan, on the other hand, usually lends money on personal

security only and charges a higher rate of interest than the Marwari. The Pathan's methods of collecting his debts seldom require him to have recourse to a Court of Law. In Ahmedabad and Sholapur money is usually borrowed from the local *sowcar*.

As regards the causes of indebtedness, it is difficult to generalize. The almost universal system of paying wages monthly means that the workers live on credit all the year round. A man taking up a job for the first time, or after a spell of unemployment or on return from a holiday, if his place has not been kept open for him, may have to wait for as long as six weeks before he draws any pay, for pay-day is usually ten days after the expiry of the month in which the pay was earned. It is easy for such a man to get into debt and be forced to borrow money to cover it. Once he gets into debt high interest charges usually keep him in debt. The extraordinarily high amounts which are spent on marriages and other ceremonials, however, account for the bulk of the money which the workers owe to the money-lenders. Social customs and religious observances are responsible for great waste of money, because the amount a working man spends on them is out of all proportion to his income. Drink, amongst those who do drink, often leads to indebtedness, while the available surplus on a working man's budget leaves but a small margin for emergencies or extraordinary expenses.

*Bonus and Profit Sharing Schemes.—Nature and effect of schemes which are or have been in operation.*—The system of paying bonus in addition to a cash wage either for better work or for better attendance obtains in several industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency, and may be said to be almost general in textile mills especially in Bombay and Ahmedabad. The Labour Office collected complete information with regard to this subject during the enquiry conducted by it in the years 1926-27 with regard to deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines. In the textile industry no fewer than 109 out of the 144 mills in the Presidency which furnished returns reported that bonuses were granted for regular attendance and 76 or 52·8 per cent. stated that bonuses were given for turning out work better than specified standards. Several cotton gins and presses also reported that such bonuses were granted, but in the majority of such cases, these rewards took the form of annual bonuses given on the results of a season's working. In a few cases the system is similar to that of profit sharing—the bonuses payable being dependent on the profits made by a concern during the year. Bonuses for better work were, however, not generally granted in railways, public utility companies, municipalities, commercial offices, and Government and other non-factory organizations. The results of the 1926-27 Labour Office enquiry are summarized below according to the classes of industries covered.

*The Textile Industry.*—Fifty-eight mills in Bombay City granted bonuses for regular attendance. These bonuses were generally found in the carding, winding, spinning and frame departments for time-workers. As the earnings of piece-workers such as weavers are dependent on their output and production, the system of bonuses for good and regular attendance has not been introduced to any appreciable extent amongst piece-workers although a few mills reported that such bonuses were also granted in the weaving departments. In one case bonuses for better attendance were granted to young workers only, in order to encourage them in regularity. With regard to bonuses for better work, 51 out of the 76 reporting mills stated that no inducement was offered in the form of higher wages or bonuses for work better than specified standards. Twenty-five mills, however, reported that such bonuses were given. In one case it was only granted in certain departments. In another case, operatives of the card and frame departments received 15 to 20 per cent. more over their earnings per day if output was greater than normal specified standards. Similar bonuses on a greater number of hanks than the averages laid down were also given in the frame department, but two mills which reported with regard to this did not give any information in respect of the rates of increase.

During the proceedings of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, the Bombay Millowners' Association stated that the system of granting bonuses was to be entirely done away with as soon as their proposals with regard to standardization of wages in cotton mills in Bombay City take effect—the standard rates fixed having been based on consolidation of average earnings, which include rates *plus* bonuses.

In Ahmedabad bonuses both for regular attendance and for work done above specified standards were more frequently found than in the case of the Bombay mills no fewer than 40 out of the 49 reporting mills stating that such bonuses were granted. Bonuses for good attendance were generally confined to time-workers only and were extended to weavers and other piece-workers only in a few cases. In some cases, the bonus granted for better output was conditional on regularity in attendance also.

With regard to bonus for better work, three up-country mills reported that special efficiency bonuses were granted to jobbers who showed production figures higher



than specified standards for the workers under their control. Eight mills reported simply that bonuses for better work were given but no information was furnished as to the form which such bonuses took. Eleven mills excluding those in Sholapur stated that bonuses were allowed for better attendance. In most cases this bonus, as in the case of the Bombay and Ahmedabad mills, was given in the form of a cash payment. The mills in Sholapur, however, observe an entirely different system. The Millowners in Sholapur pay all workers, who have not lost more than four days' work in a month, a grain allowance. The system adopted is that a worker who has put in a required minimum is allowed to purchase a quantity of grain for Rs. 2, the market price of which may be about Rs. 3.8 annas or more. Full details with regard to this practice have already been incorporated in the section dealing with "Payment in kind and allied problems."

*Government and Local Fund Factories.*—Bonuses for turning out better work were reported as having been granted to all classes of workers in three cases, and to certain classes of operatives only in one case. In one Government printing press a bonus for better attendance was granted to compositors only. Annual bonuses covering both better work and better attendance were granted in one case.

*Ordinary Factories (excluding Gins and Presses).*—Bonuses for regular attendance were granted in 34 factories. In one factory all employees who put in full attendance during the month received a special bonus of Rs. 5 per head. Special prizes were granted periodically in one factory to those workers who showed the best attendance on the muster-rolls. It is interesting to observe that one factory reported that they had introduced a system of 29 days' pay for 28 days' regular work, but "dropped it because the attendance improved marvellously." Regular bonuses for better work were granted by 31 factories and one factory gave bonuses only if production was specially good. In two cases it was rewarded by rapid promotions and in six cases only those workers who showed a better output than the normal received special annual bonuses.

*Gins and Presses.*—About 120 gins and presses reported that bonuses were given to their employees. These took various forms. In three cases there was a special regular attendance bonus, and in 38 cases, bonuses were given for better work. In most cases it took the form of an annual payment, generally dependent upon profits, and varied from a gift of clothes to the equivalent of a fortnight's or a month's pay. In some cases, all the employees in a factory were covered; but, bonuses were generally given only to the permanent staff on a monthly basis of pay. In two cases the rate of bonus was determined at 2 annas per rupee on the wages earned by each employee at the end of a season.

*Public Utility Establishments.*—Better work and better attendance in the departments of public utility companies were generally rewarded by more rapid promotion and not by special time bonuses. In one case one month's extra pay was, however given for 12 month's regular service.

*Municipalities.*—Municipalities do not give any bonus for better attendance. Bonuses for better work were, however, reported as having been given in one instance and for especially praiseworthy work in another. One municipality reported that cases were known where a bonus of better work had been granted. In the case of one municipality better work and better attendance counted whilst calculating the amount of gratuity payable to a municipal employee on leaving service.

*Government and other Non-Factory Establishments.*—Bonuses for both better work and better attendance were given in three establishments included in this group. In three other cases they were rewarded by promotion.

*Miscellaneous Establishments.*—Bonuses for better attendance were granted in one case, but no concern reported special bonuses for better work only. In the case of clubs there is a general practice of collecting "Christmas Boxes" by voluntary donations from the members. Two clubs reported that the amounts of gratuities from "Christmas Boxes" to the members of the club establishments were determined according to the attendance put in and work done. One large confectionery shop in Bombay City gave conditional remuneration for both better work and better attendance up to a maximum of 25 per cent. of pay in addition to fixed wages. This concern also gave 13 months' pay for 12 months' regular work throughout the year.

*Annual Leave.*—Leave on pay is generally not granted to industrial employees in the Bombay Presidency, except in the case of some Government factories and public utility concerns, which extend the privileges of the Government Fundamental Rules with regard to leave for workers on fixed monthly rates of wages. For example, in the Government Central Press at Bombay every employee on a time-rate is entitled to a month's leave on full pay for every 11 months of service in addition to 20 days

casual leave on full pay during the calendar year. In the case of piece-workers, one month's pay for every 12 months' attendance in all cases where workers have not been absent for more than 15 days during the year is granted.

During the General Strike in the Bombay textile mills of the year 1928, Demand No. 14 of the Seventeen Demands put up by the Joint Strike Committee required that the Millowners' Association should make standard rules for the guidance of its members regarding the grant of leave to their employees. In the reply which the Millowners' Association gave on the 12th May, 1928, to these demands, the Association stated that the question of granting leave on pay to the operatives was considered by the Association in the past, but in view of the high percentage of absenteeism and the migratory habits of the workers, it was decided that no such concession could possibly be granted. This answer was given under the impression that the demand referred to leave *on pay*. The Millowners' Association, during the proceedings of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, drew up rules regarding the grant of leave without pay to all employees.

The Committee recommended that the following re-draft, of which the main features were accepted during the course of the discussions on this rule, should be adopted :—

" Any operative who desires to obtain leave of absence must apply previously to the head of his department or any officer appointed by the Manager for this purpose, who if he thinks fit, may grant him leave for a period not exceeding two months. If the leave granted exceeds one day, the officer granting it shall keep a record of its grant, and give the operative a written and signed certificate as to the period of leave granted to him. In the event of an operative taking leave in excess of the period granted, he shall lose all his rights to re-instatement, unless he has previously secured written permission to extend the leave originally granted, and returns to work on the first working day following the period covered by any such extension, or unless on his return to work he gives a satisfactory explanation for his omission to apply for such an extension, and the extension is retrospectively sanctioned."

The Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company Limited grants one day " off " on pay per week to those men who have not been absent without leave during the week, and pay for 15 days is also granted at the end of each year in respect of other casual leave taken during the year without pay, thus making a total of 67 days leave on pay during the year.

The Bombay Municipality grants 12 days' leave in the year on pay to all male employees in the Conservancy department, and women get 42 days' leave on full pay for confinement. The employees of the superior and subordinate clerical grades are governed by Municipal Leave rules.

In the Parel and Matunga workshops of the G.I.P. Railway, 15 days' leave on full pay is granted every year to all employees. With regard to other railway workers Government Fundamental Leave Rules are generally followed in the case of all Government-owned railways ; but full particulars with regard to this question will be incorporated in the memorandum being submitted by the Railway Board.

No particulars are available with regard to the manner in which leave is granted or controlled in industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency not specifically dealt with above. The information gained, however, from the personal observations of the Investigators of the Labour Office shows that industrial workers are apt to take leave whenever they want to do so, and that in almost all cases where it is specifically asked for it is granted without pay. The returns received by the Labour Office for the wage census conducted by it in the textile mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad, and Sholapur in the year 1926 showed that in some cases full pay was granted to the workers, although they had been shown as having been absent for several days during the month. Personal enquiries which were made in connection with some of these cases elicited information that leave on pay was granted to particular individuals in view of their length of service and meritorious work in the past.

Information regarding the Engineering trades will be found in Appendix XIII.

#### Chapter XI.—Industrial efficiency of workers.

No systematic attempt has been made to study this question scientifically either by Government, or, so far as is known, by anyone else. The Government of Bombay has therefore no information on the subject, but the following note is of interest.

*Effect on Production of Changes in Working Conditions.*—At Ahmedabad weaving shed adopted a fairly efficient gutter system of ventilation and humidification in

1926 in one of its sheds. An average of the average yardage multiplied by the picks per  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. produced in the first four months of 1926 and 1927 was worked out in the factory office as follows:—

Year and month.	Shed I.	Shed II.
1926		
March .. .. .	599	626
April .. .. .	605	636
May .. .. .	563	578
June .. .. .	558	579
Total .. .. .	2,325	2,419
1927		
March .. .. .	592	594
April .. .. .	644	633
May .. .. .	609	609
June .. .. .	587	582
Total .. .. .	2,432	2,418

Thus shed No. 1 showed an increased production of 4.6 per cent. which as far as could be judged was solely due to the improvement in working conditions. This figure was confirmed by the agent.

A second mill reported an increased production in the weaving shed of 9 per cent. after installing a ventilating cooling, and humidifying plant. It appears from the figures given in the Annual Factory Report for 1928 that Ahmedabad is convinced that expenditure on such apparatus means increased production.

### Chapter XII.—Trade Combinations.

*Extent of Organisation—Employers.*—There are nearly thirty associations in the Bombay Presidency representing almost every important trade and industry in the province. In addition to these there are some associations of professional men as distinguished from associations or unions of clerical or manual workers such as the Bombay Architectural Association and the Bombay Association of the Institute of Engineers. The three Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi and Aden, the two Indian Chambers of Commerce in Bombay and Karachi, the Maharashtra and the Marwari Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, the Bombay Presidency Trades Association, the Motor Manufacturers and Importers Association, Ltd., and the Buyers and Shippers Chamber in Karachi are associations of both commercial houses and industrial employers, but their main interest is commercial.

Among the more important associations of purely industrial employers may be classed the Bombay and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Associations and the Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation. The Bombay Type Foundry Owners' Association and the Press Owners' Association are also associations of industrial employers, but their memberships do not include many of the larger and the more important concerns in their respective trades.

With the exception of eight mills (six cotton, one woollen and one silk), all the textile mills in Bombay City and Island, including Kurla, are members of the Bombay Millowners' Association. The membership of the association also covers the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills, the Vishnu Cotton Mills, the Lakshmi Cotton Mills, and the Jam Shri Ranjitsinghjee Mills in Sholapur; the Khandesh Spinning and Weaving Mills, and the Bhagirath Spinning and Weaving Mills in Jalgaon, Khandesh; and the Gokak Mills at Gokak Falls in the Belgaum district. In addition to these, some mills in the Madras Presidency, Bengal, the Central Provinces and Berar, the Nizam's Territory, Central India, Coimbatore, Tinnevely and Ceylon, and three spinning and pressing factories are also affiliated to the association.

The membership of the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association covers almost all the textile mills in Ahmedabad city, the Kadi Laxmi Cotton Mills at Kadi, the New Shorrock Spinning and Manufacturing Mills at Nadiad, the Saraswati Ginning and Manufacturing Mills at Broach and the Surat Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills at Surat. Unlike the Bombay Millowners' Association, which has a membership confined to the textile industry, the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association covers the Gujarat Oil Mills, the Ahmedabad Dyeing Factory, the Ahmedabad Victoria Iron Works, the Imperial Iron Works, the Bansri Roller Flour Mills, the Gujarat Islam Match Manufacturing Company, the Gujarat Chemical Works, the Nowrojee Vakil Brick and Tile Works and the Ahmedabad Electricity Company, Limited.

The membership of the Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation, formed in 1921 mainly in order to combat the growing industrial unrest prevalent in the Bombay Presidency during the years immediately following the end of the war, is confined to those concerns whose administration is mainly in the hands of Europeans, but notwithstanding this fact it covers the industrial operations of almost all the larger non-textile employers of labour in Bombay such as the G.I.P., the B.B. and C.I., and the Port Trust Railways, the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co., Ltd., the Standard and the Burma Oil Companies, the Asiatic Petroleum Co., the Bombay Gasworks, the Government Dockyard, Messrs. Mackinnon McKenzie & Co.'s Mazagon Dock, the Telegraphs, and the workshops under the control of Messrs. Richardson and Cruddas, Messrs. Turner, Hoare & Co., Ltd., Messrs. McKenzies Ltd., Messrs. Mather and Platt, the Jost's Engineering Co., Ltd., the British Thomson Houston Co., Ltd., Messrs. Turner, Morrison & Co., Messrs. H. L. Rochart & Co., etc. According to the constitution of the association concerns as such are not admitted as members, and the membership is personally limited only to European representatives of each large labour employing organization having some engineering interest.

Among purely commercial associations having little or practically no interest in industrial labour may be included the Bombay Fire Insurance Association, the Association of Wiring Contractors, the Bombay Native Piece Goods Merchants' Association, the Bombay Paper and Stationery Merchants' Association, the East India Cotton Association, the Grain Merchants' Association, the Motor Trade Association (Western India), Ltd., and the Sugar Merchants' Association. The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association affords opportunities for promoting acquaintanceship and interchange of opinion amongst employers, managers, engineers, foremen, draughtsmen and apprentices connected with the diverse Textile and Engineering Trades in all their various branches, including merchants, salesmen, and suppliers directly connected with these trades.

The Bombay European Textile Association is an association of Europeans employed in the organization and management of the textile industry of Bombay, and has for its objects the protection of the mutual interests of its members, and the advancement of the industry, chiefly. The Indian Textile Association is a body similar to the European Textile Association, but its membership is mainly confined to Indians. These associations primarily represent the employers' interest in the textile industry as far as labour is concerned, and include in their memberships superintendents of groups of mills attached to the offices of the agency firms of various mills, although the main object of these associations is the promotion of the welfare of their members as employees of the owners.

The Bombay Accident Insurance Association is an association of those insurance companies which underwrite insurances under workmen's compensation. The majority of the mills affiliated to the Bombay Millowners' Association have their own association for underwriting workmen's compensation risks, and this is known as the Bombay Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd. These two associations are very important bodies in connection with questions relating to the Workmen's Compensation Act, and from this point of view they may be considered as representing the interests of industrial employers.

*Employed.*—Active trade unionism in the Bombay Presidency may be said to have commenced after the end of the war, although four unions had been formed during the previous twenty years. The first union was the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma, formed in April, 1897, and registered under the Indian Companies Act. This society on registering under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in August, 1928, changed its name to the National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma. Its membership is spread over more than fifty branches at various stations on almost all railways in India and Burma. Just after the end of the war the Amalgamated Society had a membership of nearly 10,000, but as a result of the formation of various unions having a more local character as far as the individual railways are concerned, its membership has been steadily declining, and now stands at about 1,600. The activities of this association are primarily concerned with providing various benefits for its members such as legal defence, sickness insurance, life assurance, etc.

The next union to be formed in the Bombay Presidency was the Bombay Postal Union, founded in 1907 mainly for the clerical classes employed in the Bombay post offices. A union of the warpers of the Ahmedabad Cotton Mills was formed in 1917 by Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, but the members of this union were absorbed in the Weavers' Union, formed in the year 1920. The Clerks' Union was established in April, 1918, in order to organize various classes of clerical labour employed in commercial and other offices in Bombay City. This union remained dormant between the years 1924 to 1927, but has revived its activities since its registration under the Trade Unions Act in October, 1928.

The acute industrial unrest of the years 1919 to 1921 was responsible for the formation of several unions of postal employees in various parts of the Bombay Presidency, of railway employees in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Karachi, Barsi, and Sukkur, of textile workers in Ahmedabad, and of Port Trust employees and seamen in Bombay. No figures are available to show the growth of the movement prior to the year 1921, when the newly formed Labour Office of the Government of Bombay started the collection of statistics for trade union membership.

The workmen of the carriage and wagon (workshops) departments of the G.I.P. Railway formed a union under the name of the G.I.P. Railwaymen's (Carriage and Wagon Departments) Union in May, 1919. This union subsequently changed its name in August, 1928, to the "G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union." Just prior to its amalgamation in October, 1928, with the G.I.P. Railway General Employees' Union, formed in May, 1927, to cover the line staff and the subordinate services of the administrative establishment of the railway, the membership of this union covered, and was fairly representative of, the employees of the G.I.P. Railway workshops at Parel and Matunga, in Bombay. The employees of the B.B. and C.I. Railway at stations in the Gujarat Division of the Bombay Presidency formed the B.B. and C.I. Railway Employees' Association in February, 1920, with its head office in Ahmedabad, and the workmen of the B.B. and C.I. Railway workshops at Parel formed the B.B. and C.I. Railway Employees' Union in August, 1920. The workers of the Bombay Port Trust workshops formed a union in March, 1920, and those of the Bombay Port Trust Railway formed the Port Trust Railway Staff and Employees' Union in June of the same year. Two unions of the employees of the North-Western Railway were formed at Karachi and Sukkur in September, 1920. The Sukkur branch of the union ceased to function as a separate entity with effect from April, 1928. A union of the employees of the Barsi Light Railway, which was formed in March, 1921, was wound up in September, 1925. The Indian Seamen's Union, with a membership of 10,000 Goans, employed as saloon crews mainly in the steamers run by the Peninsular and Oriental and the British India Steam Navigation Companies, was also one of the earlier formations established in April, 1921, by an amalgamation of two small unions—the Asiatic Seamen's Union and the Portuguese Seafarers' Union, which were formed in 1919.

Among the earlier unions of workers employed in the textile industry were the Mill Jobbers' and Mukadams' Union, formed in Ahmedabad in February, 1919, and the seven separate unions of the employees of the throstle, the weaving, the folding, the sizing, the winding, the card, blow and frame departments, and the drivers, oilmen and firemen of the Ahmedabad Cotton Mills, formed between February and September, 1920, and which had a total membership of 24,185 in June, 1922. The Jobbers' and Mukadams' Union ceased functioning in the latter half of the year 1922, but was re-created in March, 1926. The separate unions of the employees of the folding and the sizing departments were wound up during the latter half of the year 1923. The unions of the employees of the cotton mills in Ahmedabad are practically the only instance of unions of industrial employees which are organised laterally, that is to say, by occupations, and not vertically by mills, factories, or establishments, or territorially by town localities, although the lateral method of combination exists in the case of unions of clerical workers, and peons and menials, both of the postal department and of administrative offices. The unions of the Ahmedabad Cotton Mill operatives are run by a central organization called the Labour Union. Separate accounts are maintained for the individual unions, which make *pro rata* contributions for expenses of administration and the various welfare activities conducted by the Labour Union. These activities have been dealt with in other sections.

Curiously enough there were no stable and effective unions of textile operatives in Bombay City until the formation of the Bombay Textile Labour Union by Messrs. N. M. Joshi and R. R. Bakhale of the Servants of India Society in January, 1926, although several so-called unions or strike committees had been formed from time to time since the year 1919, whenever a general strike took place in the industry. The interests of labour employed in the Bombay Cotton Mills were more or less vested in the Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha, an association founded in the year 1909 by the late Mr. B. R. Nara, a retired weaving master, and Messrs. S. K. Bole, M.L.C., and H. A. Talcherkar, "for watching the interests of Indian working men." During normal times the activities of the Sabha were confined to social welfare, but in times of industrial unrest the Sabha did its best to carry on negotiations between the masters and the men. In 1926 it was the intention of this association to reconstruct its constitution with a view to making it a thoroughly representative trade union to be registered under the Trade Unions Act, but the idea was subsequently abandoned owing to the success met with by the Bombay Textile Labour Union, on the committee of which Mr. S. K. Bole, the moving spirit of the Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha, was appointed a vice-president.

The Girni Kamgar Sangha was founded by Messrs. Kanji Dwarkadas, Laxmidas Raojee Tairsee and D. R. Mayekar, a storekeeper in the Colaba Land Mills, during the general strike of cotton mill operatives in Bombay City in the year 1919. This union passed through various changes and vicissitudes, and eventually was registered by Mr. Mayekar under the Indian Trade Unions Act under the name of the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal on the 21st May, 1928. According to the constitution of this union no persons who are not employed as workers in the Bombay Cotton Mills can be admitted as members of its executive.

There was practically no expansion in the trade union movement in the Bombay Presidency during the years 1922 to 1925. The number of unions, as recorded in the list of trade unions maintained in the Labour Office, fluctuated between 19 and 23 from June, 1922, to December, 1924, when the addition of 15 unions, mainly of postal employees, which had been formed between the years 1918 to 1924, and which had not previously been included in the Labour Office list on account of the fact that they were considered to be quasi-unions, were added, and this brought the recorded number of trade unions to 36, with a membership of 52,227. The figures for the membership of the unions prior to the year 1925 are not quite satisfactory, owing to the fact that most unions did not maintain proper registers of members and supplied round figures for membership from recollection, or gave exaggerated figures with a view to overstate the importance of the unions concerned. As a result, however, of a demand made by the Labour Office for an examination of registers of members before accepting the figures supplied by trade union officials most unions began to record membership figures systematically in special registers from about the end of the year 1924, and since that date more or less accurate figures have been supplied. This statement, however, needs qualification owing to the fact that in many cases the membership figures represent the total number of names on the registers rather than an effective paying membership.

There was a sudden growth in the movement in the first quarter of the year 1926, when fifteen new unions were added to the Labour Office list of trade unions in the Bombay Presidency, bringing the number of unions as at 1st March, 1926, to 51, with a total membership of 59,544.

By the end of the year the number of unions increased to 56 with a membership of a little under 75,000.

At the end of the year 1927 the total number of unions stood at 72, with a membership of 87,340.

The year 1928 saw a very rapid expansion of the trade union movement, not only in the number of new formations, but also in the figures of membership of the existing unions. This was mainly due to the tendency of employers to recognize unions which had been registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, which came into operation with effect from the 1st June, 1927. The number of individual unions, excluding federations of trade unions, stood at 94 as at 1st December, 1928, and the total membership of these unions amounted to 198,072. The increase of nearly 70 per cent. in the number of trade unionists in the Presidency over the figures of the previous quarter as at 1st September was mainly due (a) to the success met with by the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union after the settlement of the general strike of last year on the 4th October, 1928, when, within two months, this union was able to enrol an effective membership of 54,000 workers in the Bombay Textile Mills, and (b) to the large increase in the membership of the G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union.

The Bombay Girni Kamgar Union owes its formation directly to the general strike of the year 1928. At the beginning of that year there were five unions of textile workers in Bombay City:—(1) The Bombay Textile Labour Union, formed in January, 1926, and registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act on the 23rd December, 1927; (2), (3) and (4) three unions known as Girni Kamgar Mahamandals at Chinchpokli, Prabhadevi, and Ghorupdeo, and (5) the Bombay Mill Workers' Union, formed in March, 1928, by Mr. S. H. Jhabwalla, a vice-president of the Bombay Textile Labour Union, who was not in agreement with the policy of that union. The moving spirit in calling out the workers at the beginning of the general strike of 1928 on the 16th April was Mr. Jhabwalla. Within a few days of its commencement Mr. Jhabwalla sought and secured the assistance of Messrs. S. A. Dange, B. F. Bradley, S. S. Mirajkar and R. S. Nimbkar from the Workers' and Peasants' Party, an organization which had not previously been prominent in the textile labour movement in Bombay, except in the case of a few strikes immediately preceding the general strike. These persons were successful in persuading Mr. A. A. Alwe, the President of the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal (Prabhadevi Mandal) to join them in forming a strike committee for the conduct of the strike. When His Excellency the Governor of Bombay met the Millowners' Association on the 27th April to discuss the situation in connection with the strike, the representatives of the association gave an assurance to His Excellency that they would be prepared to receive representatives of registered trade unions with a view to opening negotiations for a settlement of the dispute. The Bombay Textile Labour Union was the only union of

cotton mill workers in Bombay city which had so far registered under the Act. Mr. Mayekar registered the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal on the 21st May, and Mr. A. A. Alwe thereupon formed a new union under the name of the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union with himself as president and an executive consisting of Messrs. S. H. Jhabwalla, B. F. Bradley, R. S. Nimbkar and P. T. Thambhanekar as vice-presidents, Messrs. B. T. Alwe and S. V. Ghate as treasurers, Mr. S. A. Dange as general secretary, Mr. K. N. Joglekar as one of three secretaries, and Mr. S. S. Mirajkar as one of the members of the managing committee. All these persons, excepting Messrs. P. T. Thambhanekar and B. T. Alwe, were active members of the Workers' and Peasants' Party. This union was registered on the 23rd May. Mr. Jhabwalla registered his Bombay Mill Workers' Union on the 1st June. After the settlement of the 4th October, 1928, which resulted in the appointment of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee with Sir Charles Fawcett, Kt., I.C.S., as chairman, the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union, as mentioned above, rapidly increased its membership.

As regards railway workers there are two unions of the employees of the B.B. and C.I. Railway in Bombay and Ahmedabad. The Bombay union covers the workers in the B.B. and C.I. Railway workshops at Parel, and the Ahmedabad Union covers line workers in the stations in Gujarat and other classes of workers excluding those employed in the Parel workshops. The N.W. Railway has only one union of its workers in the Bombay Presidency at Karachi.

The position in connection with the workers of the G.I.P. Railway is very complicated.

The G.I.P. Railway Staff Union is a federation which was registered on the 17th August, 1928, and has the following nine district unions with a total of 3,740 members as at 1st March, 1929, affiliated to it:—(1) The Wadi Bunder Staff Union (G.I.P. Railway). (2) The Victoria Terminus Commercial Section Staff Union (G.I.P. Railway). (3) The G.I.P. Railway Cabin Staff Union, Bombay. (4) The G.I.P. Railway Poona Staff Union, Poona. (5) The G.I.P. Railway Audit Staff Union, Bombay. (6) The G.I.P. Railway Dhond Staff Union. (7) The G.I.P. Railway Sholapur Staff Union. (8) The G.I.P. Railway Administrative Office Staff Union, Bombay. (9) The G.I.P. Railway Mechanical Department Office Staff Union, Bombay.

As a counter move to the G.I.P. Railway Staff Union, another union of the employees of the G.I.P. Railway in May, 1927, under the name of the G.I.P. Railway Employees' General Union was formed. This Union amalgamated with the G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union to form the G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union which was registered on the 5th October, 1928, with Mr. F. J. Ginwala as president, Mr. B. F. Bradley as one of three vice-presidents, Mr. S. H. Jhabwalla as general secretary and Mr. K. N. Joglekar as an organizing secretary. Messrs. Bradley and Joglekar were members of the Workers' and Peasants' Party. At the general meeting of the Union held at Chalisgaon on the 25th May, 1929, Mr. Ginwala was not re-elected as the president and the members who were present at the meeting elected Mr. B. T. Ranadive on the new executive in place of Messrs. Bradley and Joglekar. As Mr. F. J. Ginwala and his group were against the inclusion of outside persons with communist tendencies on the executive of the Amalgamated Union, those members of the Amalgamation who had come in from the G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union decided to resign from the Union and to form a new union under the name of the G.I.P. Railway Kamgar Union to cover the workers in the G.I.P. Railway workshops in Bombay. The constitution of this Union has not yet been finally decided upon but Mr. F. J. Ginwala has already been elected its president.

The G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union claims a membership of 41,000.

It has already been stated in an earlier paragraph that the Indian Seamen's Union comprised of Goans working as members of Saloon Crews, was formed in April, 1918. In July, 1926, it was decided to make the Union thoroughly representative of all classes of seamen and as a result of extensive propoganda the Union succeeded in registering 5,968 Khalasis, Seranga, Tindals, etc., from engineering and deck crews as members. The constitution was remodelled and at a meeting of the members held on the 19th October, 1926, Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., was elected treasurer and Mr. Syed Munawar, M.L.C., was appointed general secretary. The Union was registered under the Trade Unions Act on the 1st December, 1927. Mr. N. M. Joshi was elected president of the Union about the middle of the year 1928, and Mr. S. V. Parulekar, another member of the Servants of India Society, was appointed treasurer. The membership of the Indian Seamen's Union stood at 21,512 as at 1st March, 1929. A few years ago a number of members of this Union broke away and formed a separate union called the Bombay Seaman's Union which now has a membership of 8,548. Efforts to bring about a reconciliation between these two Unions with a view to an amalgamation have failed. A third Seamen's

Union in the presidency was formed at Karachi in July, 1927, under the name of the Indian Seaman's Union, Karachi, but the membership of this Union as at 1st March, 1929, stood at only 25.

Among the best organized workers in India are the employees of the Postal Department. In the first place there is the Bombay Presidency Postal and R.M.S. Association formed in April, 1920, which is a federation of 16 district unions of workers in the Postal and Railway Mail Services. There is also the Bombay Presidency Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union with 12 affiliated unions with a membership of 2,729.

The Trade Union movement among municipal workers began early in 1927, with the formation of the Karachi Municipal Sweepers' Union. This was followed by the organization of the employees of the Bombay Municipality into the Bombay Municipal Workmen's Union in March and of the clerical classes into the Bombay Municipal Official's Association in April, 1927. In view of the fact that the Workers' and Peasants' Party was represented on the executive of the Bombay Municipal Workmen's Union, the Servants of India Society and the Social Service League formed another Union of the workmen of the Bombay Municipality under the name of the Bombay Municipal Kamgar Sangh in September, 1928. A union of municipal sweepers in Ahmedabad was formed in January, 1928, by the Labour Union. The total membership of these five municipal unions stood at 4,092 as at the 1st March, 1929.

The workers of the Bombay Port Trust were among the earlier groups to unite and a Bombay Port Trust Employees' Union covering the Workshops Department was formed in March, 1920, and this was followed by the formation of the Bombay Port Trust Railwaymen's Union in June. The Dock Staff Offices under the administration of the Port of Bombay formed a union in July, 1926. This was followed by the organization of two separate unions of the employees of the Royal Indian Marine and the Mazagaon Docks in March, 1928. The employees of the Karachi Port Trust also formed a union in November of the same year. The total membership of the five unions of Port Trust and Dock employees, excluding that of the Bombay Port Trust Railwaymen's Union, amounted to 5,906 as at the 1st March, 1929.

Among unions of clerical workers outside posts and telegraphs, railways, municipalities and the Port trust may be mentioned the Clerks' Union formed in 1918 to which reference has already been made; the Central Body Military Accounts Association founded in February, 1920; the Bombay Currency Association formed in March, 1923; the Professional Letter-Writers' Union; the British India Steam Navigation Co.'s Staff Union; the Central Board of Revenue Ministerial Officers' Union formed in January, May and November, 1927, respectively; and the Bombay Mill Clerks' Union, founded by the Servants of India Society with Mr. N. M. Joshi as president, in May, 1928.

Among unions of workshop employees other than those of railway, municipal and port trust workshops are the General Workshopmen's Union formed in May, 1928, and the Bombay Engineering Workers' Union formed in December in the same year. A union of the workers in the government arsenal at Kirkee was formed in July, 1928.

The employees of the Kurla and the Ambernath Match factories were also organized into separate unions in May, 1928. In addition to the above, there is a union of the employees of the Bombay Telephone Company formed in March, 1928; two unions of office peons, the Government Peons' and Menial Service Union with 907 members as at 1st March, 1929, formed in February, 1926, and the Bank Peons' Union with 331 members formed in June, 1928; two unions of press workers, the Poona Press Workers' Union, founded as early as February, 1921, and the Bombay Press Workers' Union formed in March, 1927. Among unions of gold thread workers are the Bombay Kasbi Karigars' Union and the Jari Workers' (Gold Thread Workers') Union, both formed in March, 1927. A union of the employees of the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Co. Ltd., was first formed in January, 1921, with 1,500 members. This ceased to exist in 1922, but a further attempt to reorganize the tramway employees was made in April, 1927, when Messrs. Ginwalla and Jhabvala formed the Tramwaymen's Union. In October, 1927, the union was again reported to be defunct owing to the fact that the Tramway Company's employees did not take sufficient interest in it. A still further attempt was made by Messrs. Jhabvala and S. A. Dange to organize these workers early last year with the result that the Tramwaymen's Union with 769 members was formed and registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act on the 24th May, 1928. The present membership of this union stands at a little over 800.

Other unions in the Bombay Presidency are the Shop Assistants' Union in Bombay and the Sind Workers' Union formed in May and October, 1927; and the Bombay Taxi Drivers' Union and the Bombay Oil Companies' Employees' Union formed in August and October, 1928.



In addition to the Bombay Presidency Postal and R.M.S. Association, the Bombay Presidency Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union, the G.L.P. Railway Staff Union and the Ahmedabad Labour Union—Federations of trade unions which have already been dealt with above—there are the Central Labour Board and the Bombay Trades Council both with their head offices in Bombay. The Ahmedabad Labour Union is not exactly a federation of individual trade unions in the accepted sense of the term, but rather a Central Bureau controlling the administration of the individual unions of cotton mill operatives and of the municipal sweepers in Ahmedabad city.

The Central Labour Board was formed in Bombay in 1922 to federate into one Central union the various unions in Bombay city irrespective of the trade or industry which they represented. Since 1925 its principal activities have been centred in propaganda for the creation of new unions and the carrying on of Purity Mission work. Although intended to be a very active and live trade union organization when formed, the Central Labour Board has not achieved many of the objects for which it was created beyond the propaganda work conducted by Mr. Jhabvala personally. Its membership is now limited to only 4 unions in Bombay: (1) The G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union; (2) the B.B. & C.I. Railway Employees' Union; (3) The Bombay Port Trust Employees' Union; and (4) the Bombay Presidency Telegraph Peons' Union. All these unions with the exception of the last are also affiliated to the Bombay Trades Council which was formed in February, 1928.

Thirty-two representatives of 12 trade unions in the City of Bombay met on the 11th February, 1928, on the invitation of Mr. S. H. Jhabvala and a resolution was passed at the meeting to form a trades council for the City of Bombay. Mr. S. H. Jhabvala was appointed President of the Council, Messrs. R. S. Nimbkar and Marcel Fernandes, joint honorary secretaries, and Mr. Syed Hussain, honorary treasurer. The Executive Council was to consist of Messrs K. G. Kulkarni, V. N. Juvekar, B. K. Parab, K. N. Jogtekar and S. S. Mirajkar in addition to the other officers. It will be seen that the Workers' and Peasants' Party was thoroughly represented. The objects of the council are to co-ordinate the efforts and activities of all the labour unions and the branches of such unions in the City of Bombay and suburbs, generally to further the interests of the workers in economic and political matters, to assist in local industrial disputes and generally to watch local conditions of labour in the interests of the workers, to organize educational classes on trade unionism and to carry on propaganda among the working classes by organizing periodic demonstrations, to become the co-ordinating body in Bombay to assist in the economic and political emancipation of the workers, etc. The council has not achieved any results up to the moment of writing. The following eleven unions are affiliated to it:—

(1) The Bombay Port Trust Employees' Union	..	..	1,891
(2) The Bombay Port Trust Railwaymen's Union	..	..	457
(3) The G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union	..	..	41,000
(4) The Bombay Kashi Karigars' Union	..	..	600
(5) The Jari Workers' (Gold Thread Workers') Union	..	..	120
(6) The Bombay Municipal Workmen's Union	..	..	2,109
(7) The Bombay Mill Worker's Union	..	..	984
(8) The General Workshoppers' Union	..	..	500
(9) The Bombay Press Workers' Union	..	..	310
(10) The B.B. & C.I. Railway Employees' Union	..	..	6,108
(11) The Bombay Tramwaymen's Union	..	..	824
		Total	54,903

In addition to the six federations of trade unions there is also the central council of the employees of the Bombay Port Trust. This council has no separate identity of its own and functions only when the interests of all the workers of the different departments of the Bombay Port Trust are affected. There is also the All-India Trade Union Congress to which some unions in the Bombay Presidency are affiliated. Mr. N. M. Joshi is the general secretary of the Congress.

To sum up, the position in connection with the trade union movement in the Bombay Presidency as at the 1st March, 1929, was that there were six federations of trade unions and 95 individual unions with a total membership of a little over 200,000. Of these 95 unions, 46 with a membership of 162,187 are in Bombay city, 10 with a membership of 24,152 in the City of Ahmedabad, and 39 with a

membership of 13,986 in the rest of the Presidency. The following table shows the development of the movement, according to the statistics collected by the Labour Office every three months since June, 1922.

*Summary Table shewing the Membership of the Unions.*

Three months ended 1st	Number of Unions	Membership at end of quarter	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (-) on previous quarter	Three months ended 1st	Number of Unions	Membership at end of quarter	Percentage increase (+ or) decrease (-) on previous quarter
June, 1922	22	57,914	—	Dec 1925	38	49,318	- 8.97
Sept, 1922	23	52,776	- 8.87	Mar, 1926	51	59,544	+20.73
Dec, 1922	22	51,472	- 2.47	June, 1926	53	64,572	+ 8.44
Mar, 1923	22	48,669	- 5.45	Sept, 1926	56	72,411	+12.14
June, 1923	21	51,276	+ 5.08	Dec, 1926	56	74,875	+ 3.4
Sept, 1923	19	41,646	-18.77	Mar, 1927	56	75,602	+ 0.97
Dec, 1923	19	46,037	+10.54	June, 1927	66	75,847	+ 0.32
Mar, 1924	21	48,502	+ 5.4	Sept, 1927	68	81,107	+ 6.94
June, 1924	21	49,729	+ 2.5	Dec, 1927	72	87,340	+ 7.68
Sept, 1924	21	47,242	- 5.0	Mar, 1928	74	95,321	+ 9.14
Dec, 1924	36*	52,227	+ 10.7	June, 1928	87	111,320	+16.78
Mar, 1925	36	51,625	- 1.25	Sept, 1928	88	117,004	+ 5.11
June, 1925	38	53,591	+ 3.8	Dec, 1928	94	198,072	+69.29
Sept, 1925	38	54,175	+ 1.09	Mar, 1929	95	200,325	+ 1.14

\* The rise in the number of Unions from 21 to 36 in December 1924 is due to the inclusion of 15 Unions of Postal employees formed between 1918 and 1924 which were not included in the Labour Office list of Trade Unions prior to that date.

The table in Appendix XI gives the names of all known Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency, together with their dates of formation and membership as at 1st March, 1929, grouped territorially by industries and trades in the order in which they were formed.

Details regarding the names of the principal office-bearers, rates of subscription, and the average monthly income and expenditure of the individual unions will be found in three tables published at pages 796 to 824 of the April, 1929, issue of the *Labour Gazette*. Since the publication of the information contained in these tables the following three unions of textile workers in Bombay have been formed :—

Name of Union	Date of formation.	Number of members.
1. The Chinchpokli Textile Workmen's Union (registered on 5th August, 1929.)	5th July, 1929	11
2. The Fergusson Road Textile Workmen's Union .. .. .	6th July, 1929	9
3. The Elphinstone Road Textile Workmen's Union .. .. .	9th July, 1929	9

An examination of the classified list of trade unions given in Appendix XI shows that employees in almost every important trade and industry in the Bombay Presidency, and especially in Bombay city are now organized to a greater or less degree. Both the G.I.P. and the B.B. & C.I. Railways have unions of their workers as also the port trusts, the large municipalities, the posts and telegraphs, workshops, match factories, tramways, printing presses, the telephone company, Government and private offices, etc. Seamen are also organized at both the Bombay and the Karachi ports. In the textile industry, there are seven separate unions in Bombay city, six unions under the central control of the Ahmedabad Labour Union in Ahmedabad and a branch of the Bombay Textile Labour Union in Sholapur. But although trade union organization has permeated into almost all branches of trade and industry in the Presidency, the number of workers who are organized form a comparatively small percentage of the total numbers employed in many of the

trades or industries concerned. In the textile industry, 42·50 per cent, of the operatives in the Bombay Cotton Mills are organized. In Ahmedabad only 28·52 per cent. of cotton millworkers are covered and in Sholapur less than 5 per cent. In the cotton mills in the rest of the Presidency, there are no unions representing the 22,000 odd workers employed. It has not been found possible to work out percentages to show the extent of trade union organization in other trades and industries, but it may be safely said that outside the posts and telegraphs, and possibly the G.I.P. Railway, no other administrative or industrial unit has a trade union membership amounting to more than 50 per cent of the total numbers employed. Moreover the organization is very loose. Members do not pay their subscriptions regularly and generally show little interest in the unions in normal times.

*Effect of Organisations of Employed on conditions of Workers generally.*—The condition of workers in the Bombay Presidency has undoubtedly been improved during the last ten years as a result of their organization into trade unions, although there has also been a considerable amount of distress, particularly during the last two years, among the workers in the Bombay cotton mills on account of prolonged strikes. The strike of 1928, however, enabled the millhands to secure many important concessions as a result of the appointment of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, e.g., the recommendation that the millowners should give up their proposal to reduce the wages of weavers by 7½ per cent., the granting of most of the seventeen demands and the remodelling of the proposed standard rules in favour of labour.

The Ahmedabad Labour Union has done much to ameliorate conditions of work in the Ahmedabad cotton mills and has provided medical and educational facilities for its members. The creation of a permanent arbitration board for the consideration of all disputes which cannot be settled between the workers and the mills concerned or between the labour union and the Millowners' Association is, in itself, a great achievement. It is hoped that when the mediation rules proposed by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee are brought into effect, trade unions of textile workers in Bombay city will be able to achieve a certain amount of success by friendly negotiation rather than by resorting to frequent strikes.

In the case of the railways, recognition following registration of unions of railway employees has led to the systematic representation of grievances which are assured of receiving sympathetic consideration.

There is still a vast amount of spade work to be done before labour in the Bombay Presidency can expect to reap the full benefit of trade unionism. It is essential that the unions should build up an organization, accumulate funds, start benefit schemes and in other ways impress on members that strikes are not the only method by which a trade union shows its utility. For example, the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation has commented on the fact that except in Ahmedabad no trade union systematically takes up the work of obtaining compensation for the workers who are mostly represented by claims agencies. Here is a simple way in which unions can be of assistance to its members and thereby help forward the movement as a whole. A spirit of aggression towards capital and the importation of political prejudice into the relationship between employers and employed will do no good to the trade union movement. On the contrary it will definitely retard its growth.

*Nature of Activities—Workers.*—The activities of trade unions in the Bombay Presidency have so far been confined to attempts to secure the redress of the grievances of their members by making representations to their employers. With the exception of the Ahmedabad Labour Union whose welfare activities have been dealt with in the chapters on health, housing and welfare, there are very few unions in the Bombay Presidency which are financially strong enough to render any monetary help to their members during strikes or to undertake activities in the direction of paying any sickness, unemployment or superannuation benefits. There are some unions which give death benefits, some meet the burial expenses on the death of a member and there are one or two others which have made special provision for legal defence, insurance and sickness benefit. The National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma, formerly known as the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma, has separate funds for insurance, legal defence and sickness insurance, but in each case only those members who specifically subscribe to these funds are entitled to the privileges afforded by them. Most unions in the Presidency include all kinds of trade union benefits for their members in their rules but very few have been able to carry out any effective work in connection with them. About 25 unions, however, publish weekly, monthly or quarterly journals for the benefit of their members. These journals are more or less devoted to the ventilation of grievances. The following list of objects taken from the constitution of the Bombay Textile Labour Union is more or less representative, with minor variations here and there, of the "objects" adopted by the majority of the Unions:—(a) To organize and unite the workers; (b) to secure to members fair conditions of life and service; (c) to try and redress their grievances; (d) to try to prevent any reduction of wages.

and, if possible, to obtain an advance whenever circumstances allow ; (e) to endeavour to settle disputes between employers and employees amicably so that a cessation of work may be avoided ; (f) to endeavour to provide against sickness, unemployment, infirmity, old age and death ; (g) to endeavour to secure compensation for members in cases of accidents under the Workmen's Compensation Act ; (h) to provide legal assistance to members in respect of matters arising out of, or incidental to, their employment ; (i) to endeavour to render aid to the members during any strike or lockout brought about by the sanction of the union ; (j) to obtain information in reference to the industry in India and outside ; (k) to co-operate and federate with organizations of labour, having similar objects in India and outside ; (l) to help, in accordance with the Indian Trade Unions Act, the working classes in India and outside in the promotion of these objects ; and (m) generally to take such other steps as may be necessary to ameliorate the social, educational, economic, civic and political condition of the members.

The activities of the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union with regard to strikes and particularly the general strike which is now in progress in the Bombay textile mills are matters which are *sub judice* owing to their being covered by the terms of reference to the Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act. The report of the Court, when published, will give a full account of these activities ; and, it is not considered necessary, therefore, to enter into a description of them here.

*Employers.*—Generally speaking, employers in the Bombay Presidency have organized themselves in the interests of commerce and trade, and not with reference to the regulation of the relations between employers and employees. Their object has been the collection of commercial and industrial information and its dissemination to members and the maintenance of arbitration machinery for the settlement of disputes between members in connection with the purchase and sale of goods, etc. The examination of legislation affecting their interests has also been one of the important objects of these associations. Some of the employers' organizations are directly represented on the local legislatures and in the central legislature. A few years ago it was proposed to organize a federation of employers' associations, one of whose objects would be the "inauguration of a concerted policy in regard to labour legislation," but no such federation has been formed. Some of the members of all these bodies employ industrial labour but in very few cases do the aims and objects of the association specifically refer to the relations of the association with labour. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, however, has for one of its objects "the promotion of good relations between employers and employees," while the specific object of the Engineering Employers' Federation is to "discuss matters of mutual interest which have relation to the general conditions of service of members' employees." As will be apparent from the various sections of this memorandum, the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association have had a great deal to do in their collective capacity, with wage questions and other matters affecting the labour employed in the textile industry. The other associations have not been prominent in such matters and have not taken concerted action for the regulation of wages in the industries with which they are connected. Both the Government of India and the Government of Bombay consult these associations when labour legislation is being considered as well as, of course, in regard to legislation which affects commerce and industry, and the views of these bodies undoubtedly receive very careful consideration and have had some influence upon the measures proposed. The action taken by the Millowners' Associations has had a direct effect on labour conditions. For example, the success of the propaganda for the removal of the excise duty saved a cut in the wages of operatives in Bombay in 1925, while the strike of 1928 was due to concerted action on the part of employers to enforce standardization in the mills. Apart from matters of this kind, the effect of employers' associations on industry and on the conditions of workers generally cannot be estimated.

*Individual Trade Unions—History.*—While dealing with the question of the "extent of organization of employed" in the Bombay Presidency, historical details with regard to the growth of some of the more important individual unions of industrial workers were given. It is not necessary, therefore, to go into further detail here, but if the Commission require any additional information with regard to any particular unions it can be supplied.

*Attitude of Workers and extent of their control.*—The outstanding feature of trade union administration in the Bombay Presidency—and, indeed, in India generally—is the fact that it is largely controlled by persons who are not engaged in the industry with which the union deals, and that many of these people are interested in several unions in different industries. The illiteracy of the workers is the principal reason for this peculiarity. Another is the fact that social reformers have taken the lead in organizing labour and rousing them to a sense of their grievances and insistence on

their rights. Up to very recently the bulk of the unions were very loosely organized and activity was only apparent when a strike was in existence or threatened, or when wage increases were being discussed. This is particularly seen in the case of the Ahmedabad Unions. While the unions were successful in securing favourable awards from the Board of Arbitrators during the years 1920 to 1922 the membership figures of the individual unions under the control of the Ahmedabad Labour Union stood at their peak, but after the wage cut of 15½ per cent. was effected in June 1923 and during the years 1924 to 1927, when no dispute went up to the Arbitration Board, there was a sharp decline in the membership of all the unions. Generally speaking the workers of Bombay did not appreciate the necessity for building up a strong organization, accumulating funds, and increasing membership. They took little interest in the work of their unions and were wholly indifferent to the movement as a whole. The position is not much better to-day, although as regards management the rank and file are undoubtedly taking a keener interest.

While the above remarks apply to the majority of the unions in the Presidency, there are notable exceptions. The members of all the various unions of workers in the Postal Department of the Government of India which exist in the Bombay Presidency take a considerable interest in the unions' affairs largely because they are better educated and more homogeneous. Outsiders are admitted on the executive, not so much for purposes of assistance in administration, but primarily for the advantages that can be secured by having prominent and influential persons as Presidents or Secretaries—the main advantages being the facilities thus afforded for asking questions and raising debates in the Legislative Assembly on matters connected with the grievances and conditions of service of Postal Employees. There are also the National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma, formerly known as the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma Limited, and the All India and Burma Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Services' Association whose affairs are directly under the control of the members themselves. The only outsider on the executive of the former union up to two years ago was a paid general secretary. The present general secretary, is an ex-railway employee. Amongst unions of industrial employees the only other instance where no outsider is admitted on the executive of the union is the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal, a small union in the Bombay mill industry.

The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, has had a good effect in securing greater recognition for trade unions. Registration under the Act has in most cases resulted in the recognition of the unions by employers. This recognition has stimulated membership and done away with any reluctance on the part of workers to join a union of which their employer might not approve. The Trade Unions Act permits the executive of a union to contain 50 per cent. of "outsiders" that is to say, persons not engaged in the industry. Few unions have so large a proportion and the management of affairs nominally devolves on the workers themselves. As a result the members of various unions have for the last two years been taking a greater interest in their activities and are also participating to a greater extent in the control of the union. Questions of policy are, however, still largely decided by the "outsiders" on the executives.

Perhaps the best example of true trade union organisation is that which obtains in the Ahmedabad textile unions although none of them have registered under the Act—for political reasons, largely. The affairs of the individual unions are controlled by a Council of Representatives elected by the workpeople triennially in the proportion of one seat for every 50 members or less and two seats for more than 50 or less than 100 with an additional seat for every 100 or fraction in excess thereof. The Council of Representatives elects an Executive Committee consisting of the office-bearers and three to nine workpeople. The office-bearers can be dismissed by the Council of Representatives. The Ahmedabad Labour Union consists of the constituent unions. In order to ensure close contact with the various departmental unions a Joint Council of Representatives of the different unions has been formed, invested with exclusive authority to determine, with the help of the Advisory Committee, all questions involving the common interest of two or more individual unions. The total strength of the Joint Council is about 160. The Executive Committee of the Central Union consists of office-bearers, viz., the president, the treasurer and the assistant secretary and at least one non-official member from the Executive Committee of each union. The Executive Committee of the Central Union administers the funds and other assets of the union, subject to the control of the Joint Council of Representatives. The surplus funds are invested in the name of the president in a bank or banks in the manner approved of by the Advisory Committee. The Advisory Committee consists of Mr. M. K. Gandhi, Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, Mr. Shantarlal G. Banker and Lala Gulzarilal Nanda. This committee lays down the policy for the guidance of the Council of Representatives, engages the staff, distributes the work among office-bearers, and generally advises in all matters connected with the work of the individual

unions. The office-bearers and members of the Executive Committee of the Central Union are, strictly speaking, "outsiders". The Council of Representatives takes a keen interest in the affairs of the union. During 1928 there were 31 meetings of the Joint Council and the average attendance of the members at these meetings amounted to 77 per cent. The workers follow the proceedings of the Council intelligently and are able to suggest changes in details. If the workers prove obdurate and do not accept a certain line of action suggested by the Advisory Committee, the Advisory Board and the officers resign and leave the workers to conduct their own affairs. This actually happened in 1922 when the spinners struck work for a bonus against the mandate of the Advisory Board. Left to themselves they were not able to do anything owing to their illiteracy and so they requested the Committee to take up their cause again. They were allowed to join the union after paying a fine of As. 4 each and expressing regret for their hasty action in declaring an unauthorized strike.

As has been pointed out above, a characteristic of the trade union movement in the Bombay Presidency is the association of a few individuals with a large number of unions. Mr. N. M. Joshi, B.A., M.L.A., in addition to being the General Secretary of the All India Trade Union Congress and the President of the G.I.P. Railway Staff Union, is connected, either as president or treasurer, with eleven other unions in the Presidency. Mr. S. H. Jhabvala, B.A., is actively interested in two Federations and eighteen unions. Mr. F. J. Ginwala, M.A., LL.B., M.L.C., is the President of the Central Labour Board and is on the executives of thirteen other unions. Mr. S. C. Joshi, M.A., LL.B., M.L.C., is the General Secretary of two Federations and is either the President or the General Secretary of eleven other unions. Mr. S. V. Parulekar, M.A., a member of the Servants of India Society, is connected as a Treasurer, General Secretary or Assistant Secretary with seven different unions. Mr. P. S. Bakhle, B.A., LL.B., is connected with six unions; Messrs. B. D. Mistry, B.A., LL.B., R. S. Asavale, M.L.C., and A. H. Kirtikar are connected with four unions each. Mr. R. R. Bakhle, the General Secretary of the Bombay Textile Labour Union, is also a Vice-President of the Bombay Engineering Workers' Union and the General Secretary of the Sholapur Branch of the Bombay Textile Labour Union. Mr. Syed Munawar, B.A., M.L.C., the General Secretary of the Indian Seamen's Union is also connected with the R. I. M. Dock Workers' Union and the Bombay Textile Labour Union.

Early in 1928 when Mr. S. H. Jhabvala found that he could not cope with the work that was devolving on him in view of his association with 20 unions in Bombay City he brought in Messrs. S. A. Dange, R. S. Nimbkar, K. N. Joglekar and S. S. Mirajkra, all of them belonging to the extreme left wing of labour, into the trade union movement. Mr. S. A. Dange was put in charge of the Tramwaymen's Union, Mr. K. N. Joglekar was put on the executive of the G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union, Mr. S. S. Mirajkra on the Bombay Municipal Workmen's Union, Mr. R. S. Nimbkar on the Bombay Trades Council and the Bombay Oil Companies' Employees' Union. Mr. B. F. Bradley, an English Communist, was put on the executive of the B. B. and C. I. Railway Employees' Union. Messrs. Jhabvala, Dange, Nimbkar, Bradley and Joglekar were all nominated on the executive of the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union.

It is inevitable, for many years to come, that the educated non-industrial worker shall play a large part in the guidance and control of trade unions, and that labour leaders will be drawn from the ranks of the intelligensia rather than the workers. Where such leaders are imbued with sound trade union principles and have no other interest at heart but that of the workers the trade union movement stands to gain by their leadership. It is otherwise when the intelligensia seek to exploit labour for political ends, or have no knowledge of trade unionism and its functions.

*Attitude of Employers towards individual Trade Unions and relations with them.*—Prior to the passing of the Trade Unions Act, the attitude of employers towards unions of their employees was generally lukewarm if not actively hostile. It was only after the unions were registered under the Act that employers began to extend their recognition to associations of their employees. This question will be further dealt with under the heading "Opportunity afforded to workpeople of making representations."

*Trade Union Act, 1926—Extent to which utilized.*—The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, was brought into operation with effect from the 1st June, 1927. During the first ten months ending 31st March, 1928, 12 unions with a total membership of 52,201 had registered out of 74 unions (as recorded in the list of trade unions maintained by the Labour Office) with a total membership of 95,321. During the next 12 months ending 31st March, 1929, one Federation—the G. I. P. Railway Staff Union—and 24 more unions were registered. The G. I. P. Railway Workmen's Union, which was registered on the 27th October, 1927, amalgamated with the G. I. P. Railway Employees' General Union (registered on the 31st October, 1927) on the 5th October, 1928, to form the G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union. The total number of registered unions as at 1st April, 1929, stood at one Federation and 35 unions with a membership of 156,787 out of six federations and 95 unions with a total membership of 200,325.

The following table shows in a comparative form the progress of registration of unions (excluding federations) under the Act by quarters since September, 1927, together with the membership figures for all Unions :—

Period.	Total Number of Unions.	Membership.	Number of registered Unions.	Membership.
September, 1927 .. ..	68	81,107	1	1,200
December, 1927 .. ..	72	87,340	11	45,243
March, 1928 .. ..	74	95,321	12	52,201
June, 1928 .. ..	87	111,320	18	64,660
September, 1928 .. ..	88	117,004	27	74,176
December, 1928 .. ..	94	198,072	30	152,061
March, 1929 .. ..	95	200,325	35	156,787

In the list of Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency which is given in Appendix XI those unions which have been registered under the Act have been marked with an asterisk. The Ahmedabad Labour Union which controls six unions of cotton mill workers in the Ahmedabad mills and the Municipal Sweepers' Union in Ahmedabad do not intend to register for political reasons. Among the six federations and 95 individual unions in the Presidency as at 1st April, 1929, there were two federations of postal unions and 37 unions of Government servants comprising 29 unions of postal employees, two unions of telegraph employees, the Government Peons' and Menials' Union, the Central Board of Revenue Ministerial Officers' Union, the Central Body Military Accounts Association, the Bombay Currency Association, the Kirkee Arsenal Workmen's Union, and the R. I. M. Dock Workers' Union. The last union was formerly known as the Bombay Dock Workers' Union and was registered as such on the 24th May, 1928. Subsequently on account of the fact that some members of the Workers and Peasants Party were represented on the executive of that union, the workers employed in the R.I.M. Dock, who formed a majority in the union, ousted the old executive and changed the name of the union into the R. I. M. Dock Workers' Union. If employees of State owned railways, although technically Government servants, are excluded, the R. I. M. Dock Workers' Union is the only union of Government servants that has been registered under the Act. And this union was registered as stated above under the name of the Bombay Dock Workers' Union comprising workers from all Docks in Bombay.

Recognized associations or unions of Government employees have been asked not to apply for registration under the Act pending the consideration by the Secretary of State, of amendments to the Government Servants' Conduct Rules which are in conflict with the Trade Unions Act. It is anticipated that as soon as a decision with regard to this matter is reached, all unions or associations of Government employees will register under the Act.

*Effects.*—Out of the one federation and the 35 individual unions registered under the Act in the Bombay Presidency, one federation and 29 unions are in Bombay City. As has already been shown in the previous section there is no question that registration of trade unions under the Act has led to increased recognition of unions by the employers. The consequences of both registration and recognition have led to a considerable improvement in the conduct and administration of the registered unions and the proper maintenance of accounts and registers of members. In the form prescribed under the Bombay Trade Union Regulations, 1927, for the annual return to be made by all registered unions "Unpaid Subscriptions Due" have to be shown separately and this has led to a more careful scrutiny of the membership registers in order to avoid bloated figures being shown under this head. Some unions, however, still continue to maintain on their registers names of members who have not, in many cases, paid their subscriptions for a year or more.

The effect of Section 17 of the Act was exemplified in May, 1928, when a union of cotton mill operatives was formed in Sholapur which the Bombay Textile Labour Union claimed to be a branch of their Bombay Union. This branch appointed a separate executive including a president and a treasurer, and took an active part in the general strike in the Sholapur mills of last year. One of the mills in Sholapur prosecuted certain members of the union for criminal conspiracy under Section 120B of the Indian Penal Code on the ground that the union was not a registered union and was, therefore, not protected by the Trade Unions Act. The case is still proceeding.

Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 8th September, 1928, to amend the Indian Penal Code in order to give the members and office-bearers of any union protection from criminal liability under Section 120B of the Indian Penal Code in respect of acts by any two or more persons acting in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute or in restraint of trade. This was sought to be done by adding the following proviso to Section 43 of the Indian Penal Code :—

“ Provided that nothing is illegal if done or procured to be done by two or more persons in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute or in restraint of a trade unless it be an offence when committed by one person.”

The Government of Bombay stated that they were definitely and entirely opposed to the Bill, as they considered it most undesirable that any encouragement should be afforded to the organization of unregistered trade unions. The effect of the Bill might be most disastrous so far as registration of trade unions was concerned and might seriously affect the organization of labour in this country on true trade union lines.

On the 8th September, 1928, Mr. Joshi moved a motion in the Legislative Assembly that the Bill should be referred to a select committee. The motion was strongly opposed both by Government and by commercial interests in the Assembly and when put to the vote was lost by 57 votes to 49.

In view of the considerable unrest which has existed in Bombay since the Trade Unions Act was brought into operation it has not been possible to form any definite opinions as to the effects of the Act.

*Possible Amendments.*—Before proceeding to deal with the question of possible amendments of the Trade Unions Act it may be of interest to give the rulings by the Registrar of Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency in connection with the interpretation of the Act and the Bombay Trade Unions Regulations, 1927, in respect of matters with regard to which the Act or the Regulations were not quite clear.

*Section 2 (h).*—It was held that a retired or an ex-employee in a particular trade or industry can be an ordinary member of a union connected with that trade or industry.

*Section 4.*—It was held that honorary members as well as ordinary may be signatories to applications for registration.

*Section 6 (d).*—It was held that a provision in the rules of a union to the effect that a week's notice should be given by members wishing to inspect the books of the union did not appear to be in accordance with the requirements of the Act.

*Section 6 (e).*—A paid official of the union who is neither on the executive nor engaged in the industry concerned may be made an honorary member of the union, and in that capacity be a signatory to the application of the union for registration.

*Section 6 (f).*—The definition of fines and forfeitures includes the limitation of the rights of membership and the conditions under which restrictions may be imposed.

*Section 8.*—It was held that the application for registration and the rules of a registered trade union should be considered as a part of the register of trade unions and should be open for inspection by the public.

*Section 15 (1).*—It was held that the division of the funds of the union on the secession of certain members from the union to form a new one is not governed by this section.

*Section 15 (2).*—Subscriptions from any part of the general funds to any association, charitable or otherwise, was held to be *ultra vires* of the Act unless that institution or fund was intended to benefit workmen in general.

*Section 15 (3).*—It was held that the general funds of the union may be utilized for payment of fines imposed on office-bearers under Sections 31 and 32 of the Act provided no fraudulent intention was proved against them.

*Section 15 (4).*—It was held that the general funds of a registered trade union cannot be spent for the maintenance of a co-operative society. In this connection it was further held that as Section 62 of the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act, 1925, lays down that “no person other than a registered society shall, without sanction of Government, trade or carry on business under any name or title of which the word ‘co-operative’ or its vernacular equivalent forms part,” and also in view of the fact that the registration of registered trade unions under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act would be void, *vide* Section 14 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, no registered trade union could form a co-operative society for its members unless an entirely separate society was formed and registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

*Section 15 (5).*—It was held that it would be *ultra vires* for a registered trade union to raise a legal defence fund by compulsory levy on the members of the union



for the defence of a member charged with an offence under the Penal Indian Code. It was also held in the same case that there is no objection to subscriptions being raised for such a fund on an entirely voluntary basis from members who might desire to contribute provided that the failure of a member to contribute does not in any way affect his rights as a member and that he is not deprived of any of those rights for refusing to contribute.

Section 15 (6).—It was held that the general funds of a union could be utilized for the prosecution of any legal proceeding covering a dispute between a member and "a person whom the member employs" provided the employment is connected with the member's trade, i.e., where weavers employ their own beam carriers, or in coal-mining and stevedoring where workmen employ other workmen and there is no question of sub-contracting.

Section 20.—The word "members" alone was considered sufficient to connote the meaning conveyed by the words "an officer or member" occurring in this section in view of the fact that office-bearers must be either honorary or ordinary members.

Section 28 (2).—If a vacancy in the executive is filled after registration of the trade union the appointment made should be notified to the Registrar for entry in the register; but if the individuals holding posts on the executive change posts after registration, these changes are to be notified in accordance with Section 28 (2), i.e., in the Annual Return.

Section 29 (2) (a).—It was held that when a fresh certificate of registration is issued for the registration of an amalgamation of two or more registered trade unions, the full fee under regulation No. 7 of the Bombay Trade Unions Regulations, 1927, should be charged.

No appeals against any of the rulings given by the Registrar of Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency have yet been preferred; and it is not possible, therefore, to state, at the present moment, whether any amendment of the Act in respect of any of the matters dealt with above is necessary. However, there are two or three matters regarding which it has been suggested that an amendment of the Act is desirable. Section 16 of the Act deals with the constitution of a separate fund for political purposes. Section 6 sets out the matters for which the rules of a trade union must provide. There is nothing in this section which makes it obligatory for a registered trade union to make rules regarding its political fund. One union applying for registration had a separate political fund. When its rules were submitted for examination it was suggested that rules should be framed for dealing with the political fund. The reply was that the Act did not compel the union to do this, and that the union did not propose to make any rules. Section 16 (3) of the Act lays down that no member shall be compelled to contribute to the political fund, but as the average trade union member is ignorant of the Act it is more than probable that when a levy for a political fund is made the members will contribute under the impression that they must do so. It appears to be desirable that where a union has a political fund it should be compelled to incorporate in its rules the provisions of Section 16 in order that members of the trade union shall know precisely what their rights are and that their membership of the union cannot be affected by their refusal to contribute to this fund.

Section 15 (g) of the Act permits the "general funds" of a registered trade union to be utilized for "the issue of or the undertaking of liability under policies of assurance on the lives of members . . ." Insurances would normally be undertaken only on the lives of those members who subscribe premia for policies. But if the premium rates are not drawn up on sound actuarial lines there is every possibility of the general funds of the trade union being applied to meet the claims of its members. Section 3 of the Provident Insurance Societies Act, 1912, limits the application of that Act only to those societies which do not insure lives for amounts greater than Rs. 500 for full life policies. A trade union carrying on a scheme of life insurance for its members under the provisions of the Provident Insurance Societies Act, 1912, becomes immune from the operation of the restrictive provisions of that Act (*vide* Section 14 of the Trade Unions Act) when it registers under the Trade Unions Act. The Act does not empower the registrar to exercise any control over the conditions under which a registered trade union offers benefits to its members. In view of the possible danger to the interests of members of unwarranted rates of premia or the maximum amounts for which life policies may be under-written it appears desirable that the safeguarding provisions of the Provident Insurance Societies Act, 1912, should be made applicable to insurances undertaken by trade unions. The Government of India considered that this matter could be provided for by asking for a separate return from registered unions submitting annual returns in respect of any insurance business undertaken by them. The Government of Bombay are, however, doubtful whether this is a matter which can be satisfactorily dealt with in the manner suggested by the Government of India and whether the interest of the members should not be safeguarded by amending the Act in the manner suggested.

Section 7 (2) of the Act provides that if the name under which a trade union has proposed to be registered is identical with that by which any other existing trade union has been registered or, in the opinion of the Registrar, so nearly resembles such name as to be likely to deceive the public or the members of either trade union, the Registrar shall require the persons applying for registration to alter the name of the trade union stated in the application and shall refuse to register the union until such alteration has been made. The question arises whether under this section the Registrar of one province should confine his scrutiny to his own register or should consult the registers of other provinces as well in order to ascertain whether the name of a trade union applying for registration is identical with or nearly resembles the name of any other union. *Prima facie* there is nothing in the section to limit the Registrar's scrutiny to his own province although in practice that is all he could do as there is no official record published of registered unions in other provinces. If a trade union registered outside the Bombay Presidency under a name identical with or similar to the name of a union on the register of this Province transfers its head office to Bombay, the Registrar has no alternative but to enter the name of the transferring union in his register (*vide* Rule 11 (2) of the Bombay Trade Unions Regulations, 1927). He cannot refuse to place its name on the register in exercise of his power under section 7 (2) of the Act because the provisions of the section referred to are applicable only to an original application for registration under the Act. Consequently there would be on one and the same register two unions the names of which are identical, a position that is not intended by the Act. The contingency cannot be considered as by any means remote especially in the case of unions of employees of railways which extend into two or more provinces. The Government of Bombay have suggested to the Government of India that all provincial Registrars should furnish to the Government of India the names of trade unions as soon as they are registered and that the Government of India should publish those names regularly in the *Gazette of India*. There would then be an official record which could be consulted by Registrars before registering any trade union. This would be a possible means of getting over the difficulty but it might be advisable to make a definite provision for this in the Act itself.

#### CHAPTER XIII.—Industrial Disputes.

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay has collected statistics of all industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency since the 1st April, 1921. A dispute, as reckoned by the Labour Office, is an interruption of work involving 10 or more persons and of not less than 24 hours' duration, no distinction being made between a "strike" and a "lock-out." Complete and detailed information with regard to every dispute has been published in the *Labour Gazette* monthly in articles under the heading "Industrial Disputes in the Presidency." In addition to the monthly articles, annual reviews for calendar years have also been published for most years. The May, 1926, issue of the *Labour Gazette* contained a quinquennial review of industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency for the five years ending 31st March, 1926. For the purposes of this section the statistics published in that review have been brought up to date for a total period of 8 years and 3 months, ending the 30th June, 1929.

No detailed or statistical information is available with regard to industrial disputes prior to 1st April, 1921, but the following extract from the Report of the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay, in November, 1921, "to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes" is of interest in connection with those strikes which occurred during the period immediately after the end of the war and prior to the collection of full statistics by the Labour Office:

"Since the mill strikes of 1918-19, and January, 1920, which lasted for a month and a half and a month, respectively, and involved about 150,000 men, there have been no general strikes in the textile industry in Bombay City. But we have had a postal strike lasting five months from September, 1920, till February, 1921; a tramway strike in October, 1920, lasting six weeks, and another lasting a fortnight in December of the same year; a gas strike lasting nearly three months in October, 1920; and two strikes among the oil companies in September, 1920, and January, 1921. Each of these strikes involved about 2,000 men. We have had, besides, a strike in the B.B. & C.I. Railway Parel workshop for a fortnight in February, 1921, involving 5,500 men, and a more serious strike in August, 1920, in the G.I.P. Railway Parel workshop, involving 7,000 men and lasting for two months, and a general strike involving 33,000 men in Ahmedabad in October, 1921. Before that the last serious strike at Ahmedabad was the spinners' strike in 1920, involving 30,000 men. In Sholapur the whole labour force is now on strike. This is the first strike in that

centre since the strike of 1920, which involved some 16,000 men and was an organized extension of the Bombay mill strike. Short strikes in single factories, often on trivial grounds, have, however, become matters of daily occurrence and are always liable to start a general conflagration."

The following table shows the number of disputes, the number of work-people involved in these disputes, and the number of working days lost, in a summary form, year by year, from the 1st April, 1921, to the 30th June, 1929 :—

Year.	Number of disputes.	Number of workpeople involved.	Number of working days lost.
1921* .. .. .	104	131,999	1,272,362
1922 .. .. .	143	173,386	756,747
1923 .. .. .	109	109,332	2,836,000
1924 .. .. .	50	179,522	7,559,401
1925 .. .. .	69	175,631	11,387,797
1926 .. .. .	57	29,314	78,113
1927 .. .. .	54	28,078	165,061
1928 .. .. .	114	326,196	24,629,715
1929† .. .. .	38	161,587	5,249,096

\* The figures are for nine months from April to December.

† The figures are for six months from January to June.

*Extent of Strikes and Lock-outs.*—The total number of disputes during the period 1st April, 1921, to 30th June, 1929, amounted to 738. Of these, 22 were strikes affecting more than one industrial concern, as shown in the table below :—

	Number of factories and concerns affected.
1. Strike in Ahmedabad (7th October, 1921) ..	6 spinning and weaving mills.
2. Do. do. (19th October, 1921, to 29th October, 1921).	47 Do. do.
3. Do. do. (27th January, 1922, to 28th January, 1922).	13 Do. do.
4. Do. Sholapur (2nd March, 1922, to 24th March, 1922).	6 Do. do.
5. Do. Karachi (10th March, 1922, to 11th March, 1922).	5 firms of stevedores.
6. Do. Bombay (1st August, 1922, to 2nd August, 1922).	34 spinning and weaving mills.
7. Do. Surat (3rd October, 1922, to 23rd October, 1922).	4 Do. do.
8. Do. Ahmedabad (10th November, 1922, to 17th November, 1922).	29 Do. do.
9. Do. do. (1st April, 1923, to 4th June, 1923).	56 Do. do.
10. Do. Karachi (16th April, 1923, to 26th April, 1923).	6 firms.
11. Do. do. (25th May, 1923) ..	6 Do.
12. General strike in Bombay (17th January, 1924, to 25th March, 1924).	75 spinning and weaving mills, 2 silk mills, 2 woolen mills and 2 dye works.
13. Strikes in Sind (17th April, 1925, to 30th June, 1925).	Carriage and loco. shops and rumaug shed, Karachi; fitting staff, Kotri; loco. and carriage shop and engine shed, Sakkar.
14. General strike in Bombay (15th September, 1925, to 3rd December, 1925).	76 cotton mills, 2 silk mills, 2 dyeworks.
15. Strike in Bombay (2nd January, 1928, to 25th February, 1928).	9 spinning and weaving mills under the agency of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co.

Table—contd.

	Number of factories and concerns affected.
16. General strike in Bombay (16th April, 1928, to 6th October, 1928).	All spinning and weaving mills in Bombay except the Colaba Land and the Jehangir Wadia Mills; 2 silk mills and one bleaching mill.
17. Strike in Sholapur mills (21st April, 1928, to 6th October, 1928).	5 spinning and weaving mills.
18. Strike in Kurla mills (14th May, 1928, to 6th October, 1928).	2 Do. do.
19. Strike in Bombay oil companies (7th December, 1928, to 23rd February, 1929).	3 oil companies.
20. Strike in Bombay (25th February, 1929, to 18th March, 1929).	7 Spinning and weaving mills.
21. Strike in Bombay (3rd March, 1929, to 18th March, 1929).	5 Do. do.
22. Strike in Bombay (26th April, 1929, to )	64 Do. do.

It is not intended in this memorandum to examine these strikes in great detail, as full particulars in connection with them have been given in the tables and articles published every month in the *Labour Gazette*. In the event of the Commission requiring fuller details in connection with any of these disputes these will be immediately supplied. The following summaries give the main features of each of these 22 disputes:—

(1) On the 7th October, 1921, 289 mukadams and oilmen from six cotton mills in Ahmedabad struck work demanding a bonus equal to one month's pay. The managements of the mills affected immediately paid Rs. 36 to each striker drawing under Rs. 40 per month, Rs. 40 to those earning Rs. 40 per month, and promised to give one month's pay to those who earned more than Rs. 40 per mensem. The workmen resumed work the same day and the result was completely successful from the view point of the employees.

(2) With the success of the above strike it was natural that a demand similar to that made by jobbers and mukadams would also be made by the general body of workmen employed in the Ahmedabad cotton mills. On the 19th October, 1921, the workmen of nine cotton mills demanded a bonus amounting to 1½ month's pay, and when this demand was refused all the operatives of these nine mills went on strike. By the 26th October the strike had spread to 47 mills in all, of which 31 had completely closed down and 16 remained partially closed. Mr. M. K. Gandhi represented the case of the workers and Seth Mangaldas that of the owners. When these two arbitrators failed to arrive at a satisfactory agreement, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya was asked to act as an umpire. Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya published his award on the night of the 28th October, 1921, recommending (1) that to everyone whose salary was below Rs. 75 per month a bonus equal to one month's average salary plus a sum of Rs. 15 should be given, the maximum not to exceed Rs. 75. In calculating the salary or the wages earned by time-workers or piece-workers the bonus earned for regular attendance or good work should be included. In the case of half-timers the bonus should be one month's salary plus Rs. 7-8-0; (2) that to everyone whose salary was Rs. 75 or more a bonus of Rs. 75 should be given; (3) that the method of calculating the period of service of each employee should be the same as was adopted at the time of the settlement of the last bonus dispute; (4) that in calculating the period of service absence due to child-birth and accidents in the mills should be counted in such period. Other recommendations included suggestions for the removal of minor grievances. The strikers accepted the award of the umpire and normal working was resumed in all mills on the morning of the 29th October, 1921. Although the result of this strike has been considered as a compromise it must be admitted that it was a very satisfactory conclusion from the view point of the workmen.

(3) Thirteen cotton mills in Ahmedabad were affected by a strike on the 27th January, 1922, owing to the Muhammadan millhands demanding the weekly holiday on Friday instead of on Sunday. The number of workpeople affected amounted to

3,672. The secretary of the Labour Union issued a mandate to the strikers to resume work until the question was decided by the Ahmedabad millowners. The men accordingly resumed work unconditionally on the next day. This strike therefore, ended unfavourably to the employees.

(4) On the 25th February, 1922, the workpeople of all the six cotton mills in Sholapur made a joint representation by distributing leaflets printed in Marathi to the managers of their respective mills, demanding (1) that all workpeople who had been dismissed during the 1920 strike should be reinstated; (2) that the newly formed labour union should be recognized by the Sholapur millowners; and (3) that all representations of workers' grievances made through the Union should receive proper recognition. The operatives threatened that if these demands were not acceded to within eight days, they would go on strike. The men, however, did not wait till the period of the expiry of the notice, and 18,000 operatives struck work on the 2nd March, 1922. Two mills which attempted to re-start on the next day found that it was not possible to continue work on account of the rowdiness of the strikers. The owners consequently declared a lock-out, which continued up to the 16th March. On the 17th, 3,500 men resumed work unconditionally and three mills began partial working. By the 24th March normal working had been resumed.

(5) About 150 daily-wage labourers engaged in sewing up filled gunny bags for shipment in five commercial firms at Karachi struck work on the 10th March, 1922, demanding an increase of 4 annas per head in their daily rates of wages. The firms affected were Messrs. Ralli Bros., Messrs. Strauss & Co., Messrs. Louis Dreyfus & Co., Messrs. Sanday Patrick & Co., and Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. The Jamedars and the contractors of these companies carried on the work in the absence of the coolies, but on the next day the strikers in the first three firms resumed work as their wages were increased. The men in the other two firms did not return to work as their employers no longer required their services. This strike thus resulted favourably to the employees of the first three firms and unfavourably to those of the other firms.

(6) The strike which occurred in the cotton mills of Bombay in August, 1922, can hardly be termed a dispute according to the accepted meaning of this term. 61,000 odd strikers in 34 cotton mills in Bombay\* struck work on the 1st August, 1922, on account of the second anniversary of the death of Mr. B. G. Tilak. On the next day all the strikers returned to work peacefully. The question whether the result of this strike was favourable or otherwise to the employees does not arise because the strike was organized only for abstention from work for one day in honour of a departed national leader.

(7) The strike of October, 1922, in the cotton mills of Surat was due to the demand for the payment of the usual annual bonus; 2,296 out of 2,765 workers in the four cotton mills of Surat went on strike on the 3rd October and elected a committee of 20 representatives from their ranks to negotiate with the owners on their behalf. The owners proposed to give bonuses calculated on varying percentages of the previous year's bonus except in one mill, which was to give no bonus. The strikers refused to accept this offer and made a counter offer of their own, asking for a bonus equivalent to 42½ per cent. of the average monthly pay for the last twelve months, but agreeing to work for one day without wages as a punishment for going on strike without notice. On the 11th the operatives of the Surat Weaving Mills submitted a petition to the Collector and District Magistrate to arbitrate with the owners on their behalf. The workmen of the Surat Spinning and Weaving Mills presented their case to the Collector through a local pleader. On the 12th and 13th all the operatives of the Hatim Mills and Surat Weaving Mills resumed work. The men of the Surat Spinning and Weaving Mills resumed work on the 14th in accordance with the settlement arrived at in that mill as a result of the intervention of the collector. The men of the Industrial Mills refused to accept a bonus of 25 per cent. which was offered to them by the management and decided to have their wages paid up. There was no change in the situation in this mill till the 19th, when 370 men returned to work unconditionally. Of the remaining employees, 171 hands were paid off on the 20th and the rest on the 23rd. The result of this dispute was on the whole not successful to the employees.

(8) The next big strike which occurred in the Ahmedabad cotton mills in November, 1922, also arose over the question of the payment of the annual bonus. The arbitrators elected by the Millowners' Association and the Labour Union gave their award on the 1st October. Whilst the negotiations in connection with the question as to the payment of this bonus were in progress between the Association and the Union the Association put forward certain proposals to reduce the *Mogharri* (dearness) allowance granted to spinners, whilst high prices prevailed. The throatiemen in 29 cotton mills, however, impatient at the delay in the payment of the bonus, struck work on the 10th November, 1922. The President of the Millowners' Association promised to give a sympathetic hearing to the case of the workers if work was resumed. The operatives of ten mills accordingly resumed work on the

12th November, of 13 mills on the 13th, of five mills on the 14th, and of one mill on the 17th November. The result of this strike was mainly favourable to the employees in all the mills except one, where some new hands were engaged and some were admitted only on payment of a fine of Rs. 3 each.

(9) The strike in the cotton mills in Ahmedabad of the year 1923 was by far the biggest and the most disastrous from the workers' point of view that has ever occurred in that city. It affected 56 mills, involved 43,113 workpeople, and resulted in a total time loss of 2,370,933 working days. It began on the 1st April and continued till the 4th June. The reasons for the strike were (1) the announcement that the millowners in Ahmedabad would reduce wages by 20 per cent. with effect from 1st April, 1923; and (2) the alleged non-payment by many mills of the bonus on the precise terms agreed on by the arbitrators to whom the settlement of this question was referred. The strike lasted for 64 days and the men were almost completely defeated. On the 4th June a compromise was arrived at by the terms of which (1) wages were to be reduced by 15½ per cent. instead of by 20 per cent.; and (2) the question of the interpretation of the last bonus award was to be again referred to arbitration. The president of the Millowners' Association also gave an assurance that wages would not be reduced again for at least six months from the date of the compromise.

(10) The strike of 650 employees out of a total number of 2,000 labourers employed by six commercial firms in Karachi which occurred in April, 1923, has a close parallel to the similar strike in Karachi of the year 1922. In this case the workers went on strike on the 16th April, 1923, demanding enhanced wages and the removal of certain grievances such as extortion by tindals. During the first week of the strike the men unsuccessfully endeavoured to persuade the Pathan labourers in the Karachi docks to join them as well. On the 26th April work was resumed on a promise being made to the effect that the employers would favourably consider the question of an increase in wages. This strike thus ended in favour of the employees.

(11) The six firms referred to in the above dispute were again affected by another strike on the 25th May, 1923. On this occasion the cause was a demand for the payment of Rs. 2 per day instead of Rs. 1-12-0, as was hitherto paid; 160 sack-sewers were affected. The increase of 4 annas demanded was immediately granted and work was resumed forthwith.

(12) The general strike of 1924 in the cotton mill industry in Bombay City had its origin in the no-bonus decision of the millowners of Bombay. The men had been paid bonus regularly for five years and had come to regard its payment as an annual affair. The bonus was usually paid in the middle of January in each year along with the pay due for the month of December. When the bonus was not paid at pay-time in January the operatives of one mill demanded the payment of bonus on the 17th January and on its being refused went on strike. The strike fever soon spread, and in about a week almost all the cotton mills in Bombay had to close down. On the 22nd February, 1924, His Excellency the Governor of Bombay appointed a committee of enquiry, with the Honourable Sir Norman Macleod, Kt., Chief Justice of the High Court in Bombay, as chairman to enquire into the dispute. The terms of reference were (1) to consider the nature and basis of the bonus which was granted to the employees in the cotton mills of Bombay since 1919, and to declare whether the employees had established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable; and (2) to enquire into the profits made in each year since 1917 with a view to comparing these profits with the profits made in the year 1923, and to report on the contention of the millowners that the grant of a bonus such as was given in previous years was not justified by the profits of the mill industry as a whole in 1923. The findings of the committee on these points were submitted to Government on the 11th March and were (1) that the millworkers had not established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable to the annual payment of a bonus; and (2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the millowners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus. The strike, however, did not terminate till the 25th March, when work was resumed in almost all the mills, although with considerably reduced staff due to the fact that there was an almost general exodus of all up-country workers to their homes before the strike ended.

(13) The N.W. Railway strike of 1925 is the only important railway strike which has occurred in the Bombay Presidency during the last five years. The remote cause of the dispute was the secession from the N.W. Railway Union of Mr. J. B. Miller, who, in conjunction with Messrs. Hall and M. A. Khan, started agitation against the recognized union. In addition to indeterminate demands for increases in pay the men's demands included an eight-hour day, reinstatement of men dismissed in 1922, 50 per cent. increase of pay when no free quarters were given, no one who had served more than five years to be dismissed, all retrenched employees to be reinstated, all union fees to be recovered by the railway administration from the pay

of the men and credited to the union, etc. The unrest was originally confined to the Punjab but spread to the Bombay Presidency on the 17th April, when 2,223 workmen of the N.W. Railway carriage and loco. shops and the running shed at Karachi struck work in sympathy with the strikers at Rawalpindi and other stations on the N.W. Railway line in the Punjab; 154 railway men at Kotri and 742 men from the loco. and carriage shops and engine shed at Sukkur joined the strike on the 20th. By the 7th June the total number of workmen affected at Karachi, Kotri and Sukkur amounted to 6,186. The Punjab strikers resumed work on the 19th June, from which date the railwaymen affected in the Bombay Presidency also started resuming work in increasingly larger numbers until conditions had become normal on the 30th June. No settlement was reported in the case of this strike, but it would appear that the employees failed completely in getting any of their grievances redressed.

(14) There was a general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City and Kurla at the end of the year 1925. The strike had its origin in the decision arrived at by the Bombay Millowners' Association in July, 1925, to reduce the wages of all workpeople in the mills affiliated to the association by 11½ per cent. with effect from the 1st September, 1925. The Millowners stated that they were forced to reduce wages on account of the severe and unprecedented depression which had overtaken the cotton mill industry in India during the year 1925 on account of (a) high prices ruling for cotton; (b) increased costs of production due principally to the high standard of wages paid to workpeople and generally to increased prices of coal and stores and heavier interest charges; (c) Japanese competition; (d) the maintenance of an excise duty of three and a half per cent. on cotton manufacturers; and (e) unprecedented accumulations of cloth and yarn due to the demand for cloth not keeping pace with production. Several representations were made to the Government of India urging them to abolish the excise duty entirely or, alternatively, to suspend the collection of this duty for the remainder of the current financial year. The millowners maintained that the non-collection of the duty would afford relief to the industry to the extent of nearly a crore of rupees which would help to tide over an exceptionally critical period. Proposals were also put before Government to afford protection to the industry either by increasing the import duty on Japanese cotton manufactures and/or by the levy of an export duty on raw cotton purchased by Japan in India. His Excellency the Viceroy in his reply to the address presented to him by a joint deputation of the Bombay and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Associations said that it was impossible to remove the excise duty in the middle of the financial year before the commitments and the prospects of the next year were fully known, and that it would only be at the time of the next budget that the situation could be thoroughly reviewed and a proper estimate formed. His Excellency pointed out (a) that the remission of provincial contributions to the central exchequer was the first charge on the consideration of the Government of India; (b) that the position of the industry could not be considered at that juncture to be so exceedingly critical as to justify the abolishing of the duty; and (c) that the duty would be abolished as soon as financial considerations permitted.

The millowners stated that in view of the very unsatisfactory reply received from the Government to their various representations regarding the abolishing of the excise duty they had no other alternative left open to them except to call on their workpeople to share the burden of the bad and difficult times through which the industry was passing and to consent to a cut in their wages.

The workpeople refused to agree to any reduction in their wages. They stated (a) that they had obtained the increases granted to them in the shape of dearness allowances on their pre-war wages as the result of several hard and bitter struggles during which they lost very heavily owing to loss of wages for the periods for which they were on strike; (b) that the present rates of wages received by them were insufficient to provide for a decent standard of living; and (c) that the millowners ought to hold an enquiry with a view to effecting a decrease in the cost of production by retrenchment in other directions. Labour leaders, after consulting the workpeople, offered to meet the millowners half way by agreeing to follow the example of Lancashire and to work shorter hours with a view to lessening the evils of over-production. The millowners contended that if the working hours were reduced by one day's work in a week the wages of the workmen would be reduced by 16½ per cent. instead of by 11½ per cent. as proposed by the owners; and that the proposal for going on short time was not feasible in view of the fact that the cost of production would go up by five-eighths of an anna per lb. of cloth which would only result in still further increasing the prices of cloth and making it more difficult to sell the products of the mills in the home market against competitive Japanese goods. The millowners therefore adhered to their decision to cut wages and the men went out on strike.

No warning was given of the threatened strike; 33,249 workpeople from 15 mills suddenly downed tools on the 15th September and by the 2nd of October there was a complete stoppage of work in all the mills in the city. The two cotton mills

at Kurla, employing a total number of 4,600 workpeople and which are usually the last to be affected by a strike in the Bombay mills, were also compelled to close down on the 6th October. The total number of workpeople involved in the general strike therefore amounted to 151,986.

Several meetings were arranged between the owners and the representatives of the men, and His Excellency the Governor received frequent deputations from time to time from both parties with a view to formulating some basis for a compromise. Several discussions also took place on the subject in the Legislative Assembly and in the Bombay Legislative Council. The only point on which there appeared to be a general unanimity was the necessity for the immediate suspension of the excise duty. His Excellency the Governor and the Government of Bombay made representations to the Government of India to suspend the duty, and the press in India constantly demanded its total abolition. Both the parties to the dispute remained quite firm in the respective standpoints which they had taken up and the strike dragged on till the end of November, when, at length, His Excellency the Viceroy suspended, by Special Ordinance, the collection of the excise duty with effect from the 1st December, 1925.

In view of the repeated assurances given by the Bombay Millowners' Association that the old rates of wages would be restored in the event of the excise duty being removed, the strike virtually ended as soon as the Ordinance was published. The mills started their engines from the 3rd December onwards according as sufficient numbers of workpeople offered themselves for employment; but the strike cannot be considered to have terminated on that date in view of the almost complete exodus of up-country workers to their homes. On the 7th December only 44,584 or nearly 30 per cent. of the workpeople had returned to work and on the 13th December 88,388 or nearly 60 per cent. The total number of working days lost as a result of the strike amounted to nearly eleven millions. If the average daily earnings of all workpeople in the mills in Bombay City be taken as Re. 1-4-2 according to the figure published by the Labour Office in its second Report on an Enquiry into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency in August 1923, the workpeople lost 137 lakhs of rupees in wages during this strike.

(15) At the beginning of the year 1928 a strike broke out in 9 cotton mills under the management of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Company, Bombay, over the question of the introduction of new systems of work in accordance with the recommendations of the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) whereby each weaver was to look after three looms instead of two as before and each spinner two sides of the spinning frame instead of one at an increase of 50 per cent. in wages. The dispute lasted 54 days and in the end the workers resumed work unconditionally. The total number of workpeople involved was 14,187 and the time loss amounted to 535,602 man-days. This strike may be considered as the most important dispute immediately preceding the General Strike of the year 1928 because the chief reason which led to that strike and which helped to maintain it for a period of nearly six months was the fear of unemployment consequent on a probable extension of the efficiency methods introduced by Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Company in their own mills to other mills in the city.

(16) The General Strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City which lasted from the 16th April to the 6th October, 1928, and involved 147,644 workpeople was mainly due as stated above to the threatened general introduction of new systems of work and standardisation in accordance with the recommendations of the Textile Tariff Board. The new systems of work, which were adopted for achieving greater efficiency of labour, naturally involved retrenchment of hands. The hours of work for certain operatives were increased and additional emoluments in the form of bonus, etc., were curtailed. These reforms began to be gradually introduced from the middle of the year 1927 and several strikes of the operatives in individual mills occurred since August 1927 as a protest. The moderate labour leaders who then completely controlled the textile labour force in Bombay City were opposed to a general strike and brought about a settlement of the disputes in individual mills on the best terms possible. Subsequently, however, the members of the Bombay branch of the Workers' and Peasants' Party, a communist organisation, exercised a considerable influence over the cotton mill operatives, and mainly as a result of their instigation, the operatives of the Currimbhoy group of mills struck work on the 16th April, and brought out the men of all the other cotton mills in Bombay City, with the exception of those in the Colaba Land and the Jehangir Wadia mills, by the 26th April. The employers were not given previous notice of the proposed strike. In view of the serious situation thus created, His Excellency the Governor of Bombay came down to Bombay from Mahabaleshwar and granted separate interviews on the 27th and the 28th April to the representatives of the Millowners' Association, the Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal. The Millowners' Association assured His Excellency they they would be prepared to open negotiations with the



representatives of registered Unions of Textile mill-operatives. This was the first instance in the Bombay Presidency where the special status of a Trade Union as the result of registration was publicly recognised. As a result of the visit of His Excellency the extremists and the moderate labour leaders joined hands and formed a Joint Strike Committee on the 2nd May, prepared a statement of the demands of the strikers and forwarded it to the Millowners' Association on the 3rd May, 1928. The statement contained 17 demands, which included (1) the restoration of the wage rates that prevailed in 1925; (2) that the hours of work of any class of workers should not be increased without the consent of the workers concerned and without granting overtime pay for the additional time put in; (3) that the new systems of work should not be introduced or continued without the consultation and free consent of the workers expressed through their organizations; (4) the necessity for making standard rules for all mills and (5) that no member of the Association should be allowed to alter the conditions of service to the disadvantage of the workers. On the 12th May the Millowners' Association issued a press communique replying to the 17 demands put forward by the Joint Strike Committee. They denied any reductions in wages and laid stress on the need for a standardized muster and a standardized schedule of rates of wages. They also stated that it was essential that disciplinary measures should be strictly enforced.

As the Millowners' Association refused to have anything to do with the Joint Strike Committee as it included officials of unregistered Unions, the Bombay Mill Workers' Union, the Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal and the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act and every member of the Joint Strike Committee thus became connected with one or other of the registered Unions of cotton mill-operatives in Bombay city. The Honourable the General Member of the Government of Bombay met deputations from the Millowners and the Joint Strike Committee on the 15th May with a view to smoothing the way for a Round Table Conference.

The Millowners' Association published a statement in the press on the 16th June, defining the terms on which they would be prepared to reopen the mills. The terms included the unequivocal acceptance by the strikers, of the following:—(1) Standardized rates of wages as prepared by the Millowners; (2) Revised and standardized muster-rolls; (3) full 10 hours work for all male operatives; and (4) a revised set of Rules and Regulations with a view to enforcing stricter discipline than obtained in the past. The Joint Strike Committee issued a rejoinder on the same day pointing out that the financial history of the industry did not warrant a reduction in wages and that in the preparation of the schemes of standardization the Millowners had not consulted the workers' representatives. In reply, the Millowners stated in a press note that the profits made by the mills were not, after all, high, and pointed out that the cost of living for workers had gone down.

On the 9th June, two representatives of each of the four registered Trade Unions of cotton mill workers in Bombay city were invited by the Millowners' Association to meet 8 members of their Negotiation Sub-Committee. The representatives of both sides met about half a dozen times before negotiations broke down over the question of a proposed cut of 7½ per cent. in the rates of wages for weavers. On the 3rd July, the Millowners' Association posted notices at the mills announcing the terms on which the strikers could resume work and also arranged for the standardization schemes being clearly explained to the operatives at the mills. On the advice of the Commissioner of Police, only two pickets were posted at each mill. Several women workers volunteered their services as picketers. The Millowners attempted to reopen the mills in batches with effect from the 6th August, but without success.

The Honourable the General Member convened a joint conference of the representatives of the Millowners and the Joint Strike Committee on the 15th and 16th August, in order to ascertain if they would agree to the dispute being referred to a conciliation board. The conference broke down on the question of the immediate calling off of the strike. Subsequently Dr. G. V. Deshmukh, the then President of the Bombay Municipal Corporation, did his best to bring the parties to the dispute together and to arrive at terms satisfactory to both sides, but with no effect. The representatives of the Joint Strike Committee again met the representatives of the Millowners' Association during the last few days of September, in order to explore the possibilities of arriving at an amicable settlement, but no agreement could be reached on the question of the cut of 7½ per cent. proposed by the Millowners' Association in weavers' wages. At this stage, another joint conference of the representatives of the two parties was called by the Honourable the General Member on the 4th October, at which satisfactory terms of settlement were arrived at. According to the terms, the general strike was to be called off on the 6th October, 1928, pending the report of a Committee to be appointed by Government to enquire into the whole dispute. The rates of wages were to be those prevalent in March, 1927 and rates of advances to be paid to the strikers during the next two months were also specified.

The strikers began to resume work from the 6th October, and the mills resumed normal working by the 11th October. In accordance with the agreement arrived at on the 4th October, the Government of Bombay appointed the following Committee—

Sir Charles Fawcett, Kt., I.C.S., Judge of the High Court of Judicature, Bombay (*Chairman*).

Messrs. M. P. Kharegat, I.C.S. (Retired Judge), and B. S. Kamat (*Members*), with Mr. N. A. Mehrban, Investigator, Labour Office, and Assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, as Secretary.

The terms of reference to the Committee were :—“(a) Whether the amended scheme of a standardized schedule of rates and of a standardized muster prepared by the Millowners' Association, and also the scheme prepared by the Strike Committee is fair and reasonable. (b) Whether the Seventeen Demands advanced by the Strike Committee are fair and reasonable and to what extent, if any, they should be met. (c) Whether the Standing Orders for operatives as amended and presented by the Millowners' Association on the 4th October, 1928, are fair and reasonable.”

The total time lost to the textile industry on account of this strike amounted to nearly 22 million working days and the loss in wages to the labourers is calculated at approximately 3½ crores of rupees. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee sat for over five months and its report was published on the 26th March, 1929.

(17) There was a prolonged dispute in all the cotton mills in Sholapur for practically the same period and duration as the general strike in the Bombay mills of the year 1928, but whereas all textile mills in Bombay and Kurla, with the exception of the Colaba Land and the Jehangir Wadia mills, were completely closed, some of the mills at Sholapur were affected only partially and for different periods. The main cause of the Sholapur dispute was alleged reduction in wages. The number of workpeople involved was 16,928 and the total time lost amounted to 897,012 working days. The result of the dispute was entirely unfavourable to the workers, who did not gain anything by this strike.

(18) The strike in the two spinning and weaving mills at Kurla, although reckoned as a separate dispute in the official statistics compiled and maintained by the labour office was really a part of the general strike in the Bombay mills of the year 1928—the only difference being that whereas the general strike in Bombay was completely effective by the 26th April, the strike did not take effect in the Kurla mills till the 14th May. The settlement reached between the millowners' association and the joint strike committee on the 4th October, 1928, also covered the Kurla mills.

(19) A strike involving 1,790 employees of three oil companies in Bombay city started on the 7th December, 1928, over the question of a proposed retrenchment of hands. The strikers, in this case, resorted to considerable rowdyism, but were kept under control by the police. After remaining out unsuccessfully for over two months, the strikers began gradually to resume work unconditionally from the 14th February, 1929, and normal working was resumed in all the three establishments affected from the 23rd February. The number of working days lost in this dispute amount to 95,839.

(20 and 21) A strike of the sizers of the mills under the agency of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons, in Bombay City, started on the 25th February, 1929, over the question of a demand for payment of wages at time rates according to the proposed standardization scheme instead of the piece rates at which they were hitherto paid. As a result of this strike the weavers of many of these mills did not get sufficient material for work and they also started going out on strike from the 3rd March. The sizers resumed work on the 18th March on the management agreeing to grant an increase of 2 annas in the piece rates of wages. On the resumption of work by the sizers all the weavers also resumed work unconditionally. The result of this dispute was in favour of the workers. The total number of workpeople involved in the two strikes of the sizers and the weavers was 11,068 and the total number of working days lost amounted to 96,298.

(22) The origin of the present general strike in the Bombay cotton mills which started on the 26th April, and which, at the moment of writing, is still in progress, is traceable to the strikes in the Wadia group of mills which first originated in the Spring Mill on the 1st March with the dismissal of a worker of the spinning department, who is stated to have absented himself from work from the 14th February to the 28th February on account of the fact that his frame was put on to spinning 10s. When the frame was again put on to spinning higher counts on the 28th February he presented himself for work but was refused admission on the ground that he had been absent without leave. The worker stated that he had taken leave from the jobber who, however, denied the statement. Thereupon, the Mill committee of the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union demanded the immediate reinstatement of the dismissed worker and, on this being refused by the management, called a strike of about 600 operatives

of that department in contravention of a written undertaking given by the President, the general secretary, and a member of the executive of the union, to the management on the 23rd November, 1928, to the effect that there would be no lightning strike in the Wadia group of mills in future "without first putting through a regular channel any grievances that the operatives might have." On account of the strike, the management kept the mill entirely closed from the 2nd March to the 8th April, when they re-started the mill with about 275 old and new hands. In the textile mill, two workers who returned to work on the 2nd March after several days of absence without leave were refused reinstatement and consequently 185 operatives of the mill struck work in sympathy on the same day. This mill also remained closed up to the 8th April, on which day it recommenced work with 725 old and new hands. In the Century mill a jobber of the spinning department was discharged on the 1st March for having stopped the spinning department without orders at 3 p.m. on the 28th February for cleaning the frames. The operatives of the department concerned demanded the reinstatement of the dismissed man, and, as their request was not acceded to by the management, 650 men struck work after the recess on the 1st March. They, however, resumed work unconditionally on the 4th March. The management dismissed 7 men on that date and 6 on the 5th March for their having been responsible for inciting the workers to go on strike. The Bombay Girni Kamgar union officially demanded the reinstatement of the dismissed men, and, as the management refused, the union took out on strike about 1,300 men from the departments where the dismissed men had been employed. This mill remained closed from the 15th March up to the 8th April, and restarted work on the latter date with about 1,000 old and new hands. By the 24th April, the total number of hands working in the three mills increased to about 10,000, of which about 6,500 were new hands employed in place of the strikers. The Bombay Girni Kamgar union interpreted the dismissals to be the outcome of a systematic policy of victimisation adopted by the management against the workers who took a forward part in the activities of the union inside the mills. The displacement of such a large number of old hands was also resented by the workers. Consequently, at a joint conference of the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee, held on the 24th April, in order to consider the recommendations of the Fawcett Committee, the representatives of the Bombay Girni Kamgar union threatened to withdraw from the Conference if the Association did not take concerted action to prevent individual millowners from victimising workers taking an active interest in the union's affairs. The owners stated that the dismissals were on purely disciplinary grounds and led evidence to prove their statement. The representatives of the Bombay Girni Kamgar union demanded that witnesses on their side should also be examined, but the request was not acceded to as it was considered that it would be unwieldly and cumbersome for the Joint Conference to examine a large number of witnesses. A way out of the difficulty was suggested by a representative of the Bombay Textile Labour Union, who proposed that a sub-committee might be appointed to enquire into and report on the question of the alleged victimisation. The millowners were prepared to consider the proposal if the Bombay Girni Kamgar union agreed to it. The latter, however, demanded the reinstatement of all the old hands in the Spring, the Textile, and the Century mills as a condition precedent to signifying their approval to the proposal in question. The millowners were not prepared to dismiss the new hands employed in place of the old hands who had gone out on strike, and consequently the Bombay Girni Kamgar union decided to call a general strike in all the textile mills in Bombay City at noon on the 26th April. For this purpose, the union issued on the 25th April, Marathi leaflets advising the millhands to strike work at exactly 12 noon on the appointed date. Accordingly, 74,675 workers in 41 mills struck work after the recess on the 26th. About nineteen thousand more hands from thirteen mills were out on the 27th and 9,634 hands from seven mills on the 29th. On the 30th, one more mill employing 1,420 hands was closed on account of the strike. By the 1st May, the strike had spread to 64 mills in all, affecting a total number of 109,232 operatives. The Bombay Textile Labour Union refused to associate themselves with the strike, and the mills controlled by this union did not come out.

His Excellency the Governor came down to Bombay from Mahabaleshwar on the 3rd May, and granted interviews to the representatives of the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union, the Millowners' Association and the Bombay Textile Labour Union on the 5th and 6th May. A joint conference of the representatives of the Millowners' Association and the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union was held on the 7th May, 1929, presided over by His Excellency the Governor, but no agreement could be arrived at on the main point at issue. A further attempt was made by the Honourable, the General Member, to bring about a reconciliation between the two parties, but with no effect.

His Excellency the Governor of Bombay again came to Bombay from Poona on the 18th June and held a joint conference of representatives of eighteen public

bodies and associations on the 19th June in order to ascertain public opinion on the best method of dealing with the situation. His Excellency, in his opening speech, said that the object of the conference was to consult the widest possible interests from the point of view of the city as a whole, as Government wished to learn the views held by representative public bodies as to the measure necessary to cope with the strike situation ; and that if the conference were agreed in making any constructive suggestions he proposed to explain what the attitude of Government would be towards those suggestions and what each of them would involve. All the bodies at the conference then expressed their views on the measures which should be taken by Government to deal with the situation. In concluding the day's proceedings, His Excellency stated that a summary and notes on the existing legislation which was appropriate to the various forms of action which had been suggested, together with proposals regarding any additional legislation that might be necessary, would be circulated to the bodies which had been represented at the Conference, and the meeting was adjourned until Friday the 21st June. When the Conference re-assembled on that date, the representatives of the various public bodies again expressed their views on the measures that were necessitated by the strike situation in the light of the discussions of the 19th June, and the notes and the summary which had been forwarded to them by Government. His Excellency then outlined the steps which Government proposed to take to deal with the situation in the light of the opinions expressed at the Conference. His Excellency stated that Government equally with the members attending the Conference were against anything in the nature of repressive measures and that a Court of Enquiry under the Trade Disputes Act, 1919, would be set up immediately with the following terms of reference :—

1. To inquire into and ascertain the exact nature of the dispute or disputes between the employers and workmen of the following mills \*.....which led to the strike in those mills in March and April, 1929.

2. If there was any such dispute, to what extent the employers or workmen, or both are responsible in matters connected therewith ?

3. What are the causes of the prolongation of the strike ? Whether the employers or workmen, or both, are responsible for such prolongation, and, if so, to what extent ?

4. What are the difficulties in the way of a settlement of the dispute or disputes between the employers and the workmen ?

His Excellency then said that intimidation and terrorisation of the kinds generally agreed to exist at some of the chawls of the workers could not be permitted to continue, and while he would strongly urge that the action of the parties concerned should, in their own interests, equally with those of the general public, help to enforce their eradication, the Police would also be directed to pay particular attention to this. His Excellency further announced that Government intended to take all necessary steps to stop it, and, in order that the initiative might not be left to private persons, the Governor General would be moved to make and promulgate an Ordinance making the offence of criminal intimidation of the kind to which he had referred cognisable pending the legislation necessary to effect this change in the Law. A Bill for the purpose of controlling picketing on the lines of the English Law would also be placed before the Legislative Council at its next session. Government also contemplated the introduction in the Legislative Council of a measure on the lines of the Presidency Areas Security Act of Bengal. Its object was to carry out in a very much better way than had been possible so far, the measures necessary to deal with hooligans and bad characters, such as had necessitated the temporary prison at the Worli chawls during the recent communal riots. In conclusion, His Excellency said that it was his earnest hope that the employers of labour would, as one of the lessons of the present troubles, take counsel together and organize themselves in a determined effort to make a real difference in the life of the work-people, and so with the confidence of a happier and contented population, place the mill industry of Bombay on a far sounder basis than ever before.

In accordance with the announcement made by His Excellency the Governor on the 21st June, a Court of Enquiry under the Trade Disputes Act consisting of the following three persons was appointed by Government on the 3rd July, 1929 :—

The Honourable Mr. H. G. Pearson, Puisne Judge, Calcutta High Court  
(*Chairman*).

Mr. F. S. Talyarkhan, Bar-at-Law (*Member*).

Mr. Rupchand Bilaram, B.A., LL.B., Additional Judicial Commissioner,  
Sind (*Member*).

Mr. H. D. Warden, a Senior Superintendent in the General Department, was appointed to act as Secretary of the Court.

\* List not reproduced.

Full details of the progress of this dispute are being published monthly in the current issues of the *Labour Gazette*. At the moment of writing (1st August) about 40 per cent. of the workers originally affected still remain out.

*General Effects of Disputes.*—The general effects of all the 738 disputes which have occurred in the Bombay Presidency during the period 1st April, 1921 to 30th June, 1929, are shown in the two following tables (1) by Localities and (2) by Classes of Industries :—

Locality	Total number of disputes in 8 years 3 months from April, 1921, to June, 1929.	Total number of workpeople affected.	Total number of working days lost.
Bombay .. .. .	401	1,077,927	49,297,817
Ahmedabad .. .. .	221	135,200	2,605,087
Sholapur .. .. .	10	39,484	1,214,434
Viramgam .. .. .	8	3,705	32,854
Broach .. .. .	22	8,966	85,022
Karachi .. .. .	14	9,893	399,554
Jalgaon .. .. .	7	4,445	56,990
Surat .. .. .	12	4,840	35,254
Poona .. .. .	11	3,763	40,903
Rest of the Presidency ..	32	21,288	181,399
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>738</b>	<b>1,309,511</b>	<b>53,949,314</b>

It will be seen from the above table, that 401, or 54 per cent. of the total number of disputes occurred in Bombay City; 221, or nearly 30 per cent. occurred in Ahmedabad and 116, or about 16 per cent. in the rest of the Presidency. Out of 1,309,511 workpeople affected in these disputes, 1,077,927, or a little over 82 per cent., were involved in Bombay City and 135,200 or a little over 10 per cent. in Ahmedabad City. The total number of working days lost amounted to 53,949,314, out of which the time lost for Bombay City alone amounted to 49,297,817 working days, or 91 per cent.

Class of Industry.	Total number of disputes in 8 years 3 months from April, 1921, to June, 1929.	Total number of workpeople affected.	Total number of working days lost.
Spinning and Weaving ..	612	1,233,170	52,450,814
Metal and Engineering ..	21	3,215	17,584
Railway Workshops ..	14	29,742	764,753
Railways (excluding Railway Workshops).	15	4,587	23,501
Printing Presses and Allied Concerns.	9	1,395	25,044
Government and Public Concerns.	10	1,529	7,050
Municipalities .. .. .	12	8,299	36,894
Others .. .. .	45	27,574	623,674
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>738</b>	<b>1,309,511</b>	<b>53,949,314</b>

In the re-classification of the statistics given in the first table according to industries concerned, cotton spinning and weaving mills are responsible for nearly 83 per cent. of the total number of disputes. The number of workpeople affected in the disputes in the cotton spinning and weaving mills was 94 per cent. of the total number of workpeople involved in all disputes. With regard to the question of time loss, nearly fifty-two and a half million working days were lost to the cotton mill industry alone. The percentage of the time loss in the cotton industry to the total time loss to the whole Presidency is 97. Railway workshops were affected to the extent of a little more than three-quarter of a million working days and "other classes of concerns" to a little more than six hundred thousand working days.

*Extent of Disputes.*—Out of the 401 disputes which occurred in Bombay City, 317, or 79 per cent. occurred in textile spinning and weaving mills, 19, or about 5 per cent. in metal and engineering concerns other than railway workshops, 7 in railway workshops, 7 in printing presses and allied concerns, and 4 in Government and public concerns. There were in all, 6 disputes between the Bombay municipality and its workers. Railways (excluding railway workshops) had 8 disputes in all—on an average, about 1 for each year, but with the exception of a strike of the gangmen on the B.B. & C.I. Railway early during the year 1929, railways, as far as Bombay City is concerned, have been singularly free from strikes during the last 5 years. In Ahmedabad, 218 out of the 221 strikes in that city occurred in spinning and weaving mills. In Sholapur, all the 10 strikes during the period under review occurred in textile mills, but Sholapur has no other important factories if the textile mills are excluded. The following table shows the number of industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency during the period covered, classified territorially according to classes of industries :—

*Classes of Industry.*

Locality.	Spinning and Weaving.	Metal and Engineering.	Railway Workshops.	Railways (excluding Railway Workshops).
Bombay .. .. .	317	19	7	8
Ahmedabad .. .. .	218	2	—	—
Sholapur .. .. .	10	—	—	—
Viramgam .. .. .	8	—	—	—
Broach .. .. .	22	—	—	—
Karachi .. .. .	—	—	4	1
Jalgaon .. .. .	7	—	—	—
Surat .. .. .	10	—	—	—
Poona .. .. .	4	—	—	2
Rest of the Presidency ..	16	—	3	4
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>612</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>15</b>

Locality.	Printing presses and allied concerns.	Government and public concerns.	Municipalities.	Others.	Total.
Bombay .. .. .	7	4	6	33	401
Ahmedabad .. .. .	—	—	—	1	221
Sholapur .. .. .	—	—	—	—	10
Viramgam .. .. .	—	—	—	—	8
Broach .. .. .	—	—	—	—	22
Karachi .. .. .	—	2	1	6	14
Jalgaon .. .. .	—	—	—	—	7
Surat .. .. .	—	—	2	—	12
Poona .. .. .	2	2	1	—	11
Rest of the Presidency	—	2	2	5	32
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>738</b>

The next table shows the number of workpeople involved, classified territorially, according to classes of industries concerned. It is natural that in view of the preponderance of cotton mills in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, the percentages for the numbers of workpeople involved in cotton spinning and weaving mills, when compared with the total number of workers affected in all disputes, should be considerable. If spinning and weaving mills are excluded, it is found that in Bombay

City only 56,245 workpeople were affected in disputes in all the other classes of concerns put together out of a total of over a million workers concerned in all disputes.

Locality.	Spinning and Weaving.	Metal and Engineering.	Railway Workshops.	Railways (excluding Railway Workshops).
Bombay .. .. .	1,021,682	3,045	20,450	2,496
Ahmedabad .. ..	135,005	170	—	—
Sholapur .. .. .	39,484	—	—	—
Viramgam .. .. .	3,705	—	—	—
Broach .. .. .	8,966	—	—	—
Karachi .. .. .	—	—	7,965	73
Jalgaon .. .. .	4,445	—	—	—
Surat .. .. .	4,318	—	—	—
Poona .. .. .	2,050	—	—	175
Rest of the Presidency ..	13,515	—	1,327	1,843
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>1,233,170</b>	<b>3,215</b>	<b>29,742</b>	<b>4,587</b>

Locality.	Printing presses and allied concerns.	Government and public concerns.	Municipalities.	Others.	Total.
Bombay .. .. .	1,285	405	7,143	21,421	1,077,927
Ahmedabad .. ..	—	—	—	25	135,200
Sholapur .. .. .	—	—	—	—	39,484
Viramgam .. .. .	—	—	—	—	3,705
Broach .. .. .	—	—	—	—	8,966
Karachi .. .. .	—	39	35	1,781	9,893
Jalgaon .. .. .	—	—	—	—	4,445
Surat .. .. .	—	—	522	—	4,840
Poona .. .. .	110	1,058	370	—	3,763
Rest of the Presidency	—	37	229	4,347	21,288
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>1,395</b>	<b>1,539</b>	<b>8,299</b>	<b>27,574</b>	<b>1,309,511</b>

If the statistics for "number of disputes" are classified by Classes of Industries according to the number of workers affected, it is found that out of the 738 disputes which occurred in the Bombay Presidency during the period under review, 205 or 27.78 per cent. of the disputes affected less than a hundred workers; 369 or 50 per cent. of the disputes affected less than 250 workers in each case; 206 or 27.91 per cent. of the disputes affected from 251 to 1,000 workers in each case, the total number of disputes affecting 1,000 workers or less amounting to 575 or 77.91 per cent. of the total; 137 or 18.56 per cent. of the disputes affected between 1,001 and 5,000 workers in each case; 15 or 2.03 per cent. affected 5,001 to 10,000 in each case, and there were 11 disputes in all in which 10,000 or more workers were concerned;

465 or 76 per cent. of the disputes which occurred in textile mills in all parts of the Presidency affected less than 1,000 workers in each instance. The following table gives the classification of disputes by the number of workers affected :—

Number of workers affected.	Spinning and Weaving.	Metal and Engineering.	Railway Workshops.	Railways (excluding Railway Workshops).
10 to 100 ..	155	9	3	5
101 to 250 ..	132	10	2	5
251 to 500 ..	123	1	1	2
501 to 1,000 ..	55	1	2	2
1,001 to 2,000 ..	63	—	2	1
2,001 to 3,000 ..	42	—	—	—
3,001 to 4,000 ..	13	—	—	—
4,001 to 5,000 ..	8	—	—	—
5,001 to 10,000 ..	10	—	4	—
10,000 and above ..	11	—	—	—
Total .. ..	612	21	14	15

Number of workers affected.	Printing presses and allied concerns.	Government and public concerns.	Municipalities.	Others.	Total.
10 to 100 ..	7	6	4	16	205
101 to 250 ..	—	2	2	11	164
251 to 500 ..	1	1	3	6	138
501 to 1,000 ..	1	1	1	5	68
1,001 to 2,000 ..	—	—	—	5	71
2,001 to 3,000 ..	—	—	1	1	44
3,001 to 4,000 ..	—	—	1	—	14
4,001 to 5,000 ..	—	—	—	—	8
5,001 to 10,000 ..	—	—	—	1	15
10,000 and above ..	—	—	—	—	11
Total .. ..	9	10	12	45	738

*Causes of Disputes.*—The causes which most frequently lead to industrial disputes in the Presidency may be classified under the following seven main heads :—(1) Pay and allowances ; (2) personal causes such as dismissal or reinstatement of particular individuals ; (3) conditions of work, discipline, etc. ; (4) bonus ; (5) fines ; (6) political (such strikes have not been included in the Labour Office statistics since 1927) ; (7) others.

The term " political " mainly refers to the cases in which workers observed a " hartal " or took a day or days off for reasons not connected with their work or conditions of service, but as a demonstration in connection with some public event.

Out of the 401 disputes which occurred in Bombay City between 1st April, 1921, and 30th June, 1929, 218 or 54·36 per cent. of these disputes occurred in connection with questions regarding pay and allowances. Forty-eight or nearly 12 per cent. of the disputes were connected with questions of conditions of work, discipline, etc. Twelve or 3 per cent. of the disputes arose over questions connected with the payment of either the annual or the good attendance bonus. A very frequent cause of dispute in India is sympathy with dismissed workers and this statement is illustrated by the fact that no less than 80 or nearly 20 per cent. of the disputes in Bombay arose in connection with this matter. An examination of the 221 disputes that occurred in Ahmedabad during the period covered shows that more than 40 per cent. of the disputes arose over personal causes and that the number of disputes in connection with matters relating to pay and allowances only amounted to 49 or 22·17 per cent. But the question of bonus accounted for 28 or more than 12 per cent. of the total number of disputes in Ahmedabad as against 3 per cent. in Bombay. If the figures



are considered for the whole Presidency, 391 out of 738 or nearly 53 per cent. of the disputes occurred in connection with pay, allowances and bonus, and 184 or nearly 25 per cent. in connection with matters relating to the dismissal or reinstatement of particular individuals. The reasons for the comparatively smaller number of disputes in the Textile Mills in Ahmedabad as compared with Bombay are to be found in the conciliation and arbitration machinery which exists at that centre for the negotiation and settlement of industrial disputes. As this will be dealt with fully in the next section it is not necessary to deal with it here. The existence of a strong trade union imbued with the right trade union principles is another important factor. The two following tables show the causes of disputes (1) by localities and (2) by classes of industries —

Table I.

Locality.	Pay and allowances.	Personal.	Conditions of work, discipline, etc.	Bonus
Bombay .. .. .	218	80	48	12
Ahmedabad .. .. .	49	89	36	28
Sholapur .. .. .	6	2	—	1
Viramgam .. .. .	6	—	—	—
Broach .. .. .	13	2	1	4
Karachi .. .. .	10	2	1	—
Jalgaon .. .. .	5	—	—	1
Surat .. .. .	6	1	1	4
Poona .. .. .	5	3	—	2
Rest of the Presidency ..	20	5	3	1
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>338</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>53</b>

Locality.	Fines.	Political.	Others.	Total.
Bombay .. .. .	3	19	21	401
Ahmedabad .. .. .	4	1	14	221
Sholapur .. .. .	—	—	2	11
Viramgam .. .. .	1	—	—	7
Broach .. .. .	2	—	—	22
Karachi .. .. .	—	—	1	14
Jalgaon .. .. .	—	—	1	7
Surat .. .. .	—	—	—	12
Poona .. .. .	—	—	1	11
Rest of the Presidency ..	—	—	3	32
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>738</b>

Table II.

Class of Industry.	Pay and allowances	Personal.	Conditions of work, discipline, etc.	Bonus.
Spinning and weaving .. .. .	273	161	70	46
Metal and engineering .. .. .	7	3	5	1
Railway workshops .. .. .	3	6	5	—
Railways (excluding railway workshops).	10	3	2	—
Printing presses and allied concerns	3	2	1	1
Government and public concerns ..	10	—	—	—
Municipalities .. .. .	5	2	1	1
Others .. .. .	27	7	6	4
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>338</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>53</b>

Table II--contd.

Class of Industry.	Fines.	Political.	Others.	Total.
Spinning and weaving .. ..	10	17	35	612
Metal and engineering .. ..	—	3	2	21
Railway workshops .. ..	—	—	—	14
Railways (excluding railway work-shops).	—	—	—	15
Printing presses and allied concerns	—	—	2	9
Government and public concerns ..	—	—	—	10
Municipalities .. .. .	—	—	1	10
Others .. .. .	—	—	3	47
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>738</b>

*Duration and character of disputes.*—The Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in 1921 found that the following were the main characteristics which were common to most of the strikes that had occurred between 1918 and 1921 :—(a) The frequency of the strike without notice ; (b) the absence of any clearly defined grievance before striking ; (c) the multiplicity and sometimes the extravagance of the claims put forward after the strike has begun ; (d) the absence of any effective organization (except perhaps at Ahmedabad) to formulate the claims of the parties and to secure respect for any settlement which may be made ; (e) the increasing solidarity of employers and employed and the capacity of the operatives to remain on strike for considerable periods despite the lack of any visible organization.

The findings of the Industrial Disputes Committee in the main apply to conditions in the period between the years 1921 and 1929. An unpleasant feature of the last two years has been the intimidation and coercion of men willing to work, both in their chawls and on their way to and from work. Picketing at the place of business has been permitted by the police and a feature of the 1929 strike in Bombay has been counter picketing by the millowners at the mill premises.

Out of the total number of disputes in the Presidency during the period under review 157 or 21·27 per cent. lasted for only one day, 321 or 43·50 per cent. lasted for 2 to 5 days, 182 or 24·66 per cent. lasted from 6 to 15 days, 41 or 5·56 per cent. lasted from 16 to 30 days, and 33 or 4·47 per cent. lasted for over 30 days. Four disputes were in progress on the 30th June, 1929. Out of a total number of 401 disputes in Bombay 18 or 4·49 per cent. lasted for over 30 days as compared with six disputes out of 221 or 2·71 per cent. in Ahmedabad.

Out of 612 disputes in the textile industry 400 or 65·36 per cent. lasted from one to five days, 146 or 23·86 per cent. from 6 to 15 days, 37 or 6·05 per cent. from 16 to 30 days, and 25 or 4·08 per cent. for over 30 days in each case. The detailed figures showing the duration of these disputes are given in the following two tables (1) by localities and (2) by classes of industries :—

Locality.	Number of disputes lasting			
	1 day.	2-5 days.	6-15 days.	16-30 days.
Bombay .. .. .	69	172	115	23
Ahmedabad .. .. .	71	109	32	3
Sholapur .. .. .	—	3	3	3
Virangam .. .. .	1	2	3	2
Broach .. .. .	5	4	9	1
Karachi .. .. .	4	7	2	—
Jalgaon .. .. .	—	2	3	1
Surat .. .. .	1	7	2	2
Poona .. .. .	2	3	3	3
Rest of the Presidency .. .. .	4	12	10	3
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>321</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>41</b>

Locality.	Number of disputes lasting.	In progress.	Total number of disputes.
	Above 30 days		
Bombay .. .. .	18	4	401
Ahmedabad .. .. .	6	—	221
Sholapur .. .. .	1	—	10
Virangam .. .. .	—	—	8
Broach .. .. .	3	—	22
Karachi .. .. .	1	—	14
Jalgaon .. .. .	1	—	7
Surat .. .. .	—	—	12
Poona .. .. .	—	—	11
Rest of Presidency .. .. .	3	—	32
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>738</b>

Class of Industry.	Number of disputes lasting					In progress.	Total number of disputes.
	1 day.	2-5 days.	6-15 days.	16-30 days.	Above 30 days.		
Spinning and weaving	136	264	146	37	25	4	612
Metal and engineering ..	3	12	5	—	1	—	21
Railway workshops ..	3	6	2	1	2	—	14
Railways (excluding railway workshops).	2	8	4	—	1	—	15
Printing presses and allied concerns.	1	4	3	—	1	—	9
Government and public concerns.	2	3	4	1	—	—	10
Municipalities .. .. .	1	7	3	1	—	—	12
Others .. .. .	9	17	15	1	3	—	45
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>321</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>738</b>

*Nature of Settlement.*—The statistics in connection with results of disputes have been classified under the following five heads:—(1) Entirely favourable to workers. (2) Partially favourable to workers. (3) Entirely unfavourable to workers. (4) Results unknown. (5) Inconclusive.

The results of 501 or 67·89 per cent. out of the 734 disputes were entirely unfavourable to the workers. One hundred and four or 14·09 per cent. were entirely favourable and 108 or 14·63 per cent. partially favourable to the workers. No information was available with regard to the nature of settlement in 20 or 2·71 per cent. of the cases. The result was inconclusive in one case. If the figures for Bombay and Ahmedabad are compared, it is found that whereas the workers in Bombay were entirely unsuccessful in 72·82 per cent. of the disputes, the workers in Ahmedabad were entirely unsuccessful in 61·99 per cent. of the disputes in that city—the actual figures being 292 out of 397 in the case of Bombay, and 137 out of 221 in the case of Ahmedabad. The percentages for an entirely favourable nature of settlement from the workers' point of view are 11·22 and 19·46 for Bombay and Ahmedabad respectively. Again, if the figures are considered by classes of industries for the whole Presidency, it is seen that the workers were entirely unsuccessful in 425 or 69·44 per cent. of the 608 disputes in the textile industry and were entirely successful

in 82 or 13.40 per cent. of the disputes. As in the case of " Causes " and " Duration " of disputes, the statistics with regard to the nature of settlement of the disputes dealt with are also presented in the following two tables (1) by localities and (2) by classes of industries.

TABLE I.

Locality.	Entirely favourable to workers.	Partially favourable to workers.	Entirely unfavourable to workers.	Not known.	Total.
Bombay .. .. .	45	53	292	7	401
Ahmedabad .. ..	43	32	137	9	221.
Sholapur .. .. .	2	—	7	1	10
Viramgam .. .. .	2	2	3	1	8
Broach .. .. .	4	6	12	—	22
Karachi .. .. .	3	4	6	1	14
Jalgaon .. .. .	1	1	5	—	7
Surat .. .. .	2	2	80	—	12
Poona .. .. .	1	—	1	—	11
Rest of the Presidency ..	1	8	21	1	32
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>501</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>738*</b>

TABLE II.

Class of industry.	Entirely favourable to workers.	Partially favourable to workers.	Entirely unfavourable to workers.	Not known.	Total.
Spinning and Weaving ..	82	84	425	17	612
Metal and engineering ..	6	4	10	1	21
Railway workshops ..	2	3	9	—	14
Railways (excluding railway workshops).	2	1	12	—	15
Printing presses and allied concerns.	—	—	9	—	9
Government and public concerns.	3	1	6	—	10
Municipalities .. .. .	2	3	5	1	12
Others .. .. .	7	12	25	1	45
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>501</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>738*</b>

\* One dispute is classified as " Inconclusive " and four as " Still in progress."

*Loss to Industry.*—In dealing with the general effects of disputes, the total figures for the time loss, i.e., the number of working days lost, were shown in two tables by Localities and Classes of Industries. In the following table these figures are presented in further detail territorially by Classes of Industries :—

Locality.	Spinning and weaving.	Metal and engineering.	Railway workshops.	Railways (excluding workshops).
Bombay .. .. .	48,259,737	17,294	366,400	7,914
Ahmedabad .. .. .	2,604,737	290	—	—
Sholapur .. .. .	1,214,434	—	—	—
Viramgam .. .. .	32,854	—	—	—
Broach .. .. .	85,022	—	—	—
Karachi .. .. .	—	—	391,342	73
Jalgaon .. .. .	56,990	—	—	—
Surat .. .. .	33,100	—	—	—
Poona .. .. .	27,450	—	—	450
Rest of the Presidency ..	136,490	—	7,011	15,064
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>52,450,814</b>	<b>17,584</b>	<b>764,753</b>	<b>23,501</b>

Locality.	Printing presses and allied concerns.	Government and public concerns.	Municipalities.	Others.	Total.
Bombay .. ..	18,586	805	33,723	593,358	49,297,817
Ahmedabad .. ..	—	—	—	60	2,605,087
Sholapur .. ..	—	—	—	—	1,214,434
Viramgam .. ..	—	—	—	—	32,854
Broach .. ..	—	—	—	—	85,022
Karachi .. ..	—	58	105	7,976	399,554
Jalgaon .. ..	—	—	—	—	56,990
Surat .. ..	—	—	2,154	—	35,254
Poona .. ..	6,458	6,000	545	—	40,903
Rest of the Presidency	—	187	367	22,280	181,399
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>25,044</b>	<b>7,050</b>	<b>36,894</b>	<b>623,674</b>	<b>53,949,314</b>

The following table shows the classification of disputes according to the time lost to the industries concerned :—

Number of working days lost.	Spinning and weaving.	Metal and engineering.	Railway workshops.	Railways (excluding railway workshops).
0 to 100 ..	95	1	1	2
101 to 250 ..	96	9	2	6
251 to 500 ..	78	4	3	1
501 to 1,000 ..	74	6	1	2
1,001 to 2,500 ..	94	—	1	1
2,501 to 5,000 ..	50	—	1	1
5,001 to 10,000 ..	46	—	2	2
10,001 to 20,000 ..	34	1	—	—
20,001 to 30,000 ..	11	—	—	—
30,001 to 50,000 ..	9	—	—	—
50,001 to 100,000 ..	11	—	2	—
100,000 and above ..	10	—	1	—
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>608</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>15</b>

Number of working days lost.	Printing presses and allied concerns.	Government and public concerns.	Municipalities.	Others.	Total.
0 to 100 ..	2	4	—	7	112
101 to 250 ..	2	4	5	9	133
251 to 500 ..	2	—	1	4	93
501 to 1,000 ..	1	—	1	8	93
1,001 to 2,500 ..	1	—	3	6	106
2,501 to 5,000 ..	—	—	—	5	57
5,001 to 10,000 ..	—	2	1	1	54
10,001 to 20,000 ..	1	—	1	1	38
20,001 to 30,000 ..	—	—	—	—	11
30,001 to 50,000 ..	—	—	—	2	11
50,001 to 100,000 ..	—	—	—	1	14
100,000 and above ..	—	—	—	1	12
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>734*</b>

\* Four disputes in progress are not included.

*Conciliation and Arbitration Machinery.*—Prior to the passing of the Trade Disputes Act as an All-India measure early this year, there was no official machinery for conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes in India. The Employers and Workmen (Disputes) Act which was passed in 1860 to make provision for the speedy termination of certain disputes between workmen engaged in railway and other public works and their employers, and which was extended to the districts of Ahmednagar, Broach, Ahmedabad, Khandesh, Kaira, Poona, Sholapur, Surat and Thana in the Bombay Presidency in 1860 and 1861 and to Sind in 1873, deals with individuals and does not provide any machinery for the settlement of disputes in other trades or industries.

The Government of Bombay published a Bill to provide for inquiry into and settlement of trade disputes in the *Bombay Government Gazette* in May, 1924. It was intended to introduce this Bill in the Bombay Legislative Council at the Poona session in July of the same year. But, in the meanwhile, the Government of India asked the local government not to proceed with this measure because they themselves intended to introduce similar legislation for the whole of India. Subsequently, the Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, issued a circular letter to all local governments in August, 1924, inviting an expression of their views, after consulting the interests concerned, on a Bill to make provision for enabling the investigation and settlement of trade disputes. The delay in the passage of the Trade Disputes Act since the circulation of the original Government of India Bill in 1924, was due to the intention of the Government of India to pass the Trade Unions Act first and to allow that Act to function for a year or two before proceeding with legislation on the lines of the Trade Disputes Act.

*Results of Previous Investigations.*—Although the Government of Bombay had no statutory machinery for the investigation, conciliation or arbitration of industrial disputes prior to June, 1929, when the Trade Disputes Act was brought into operation, three *ad hoc* committees had been appointed during the previous ten years either to enquire into the question of providing machinery for the settlement of disputes or to deal with specific strikes. The first committee to be appointed was the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed on the 18th November, 1921, with Sir Stanley Reed as Chairman, "to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes." This committee made several recommendations with regard to standardization of wages, trade unions, the attitude employers should adopt towards unions of their workers, and the recognition of such unions, works committees, welfare work, co-operative societies, housing of labour, etc. These recommendations were in the nature of measures that might contribute to the prevention of industrial disputes. With regard to the methods of settlement when such disputes either develop irreconcilable differences between capital and labour or else become a menace to the community, the committee recommended the formation of an Industrial Court of Enquiry, to be followed if necessary, by an Industrial Court of Conciliation. They were of the opinion that no outside agency, and in particular, the agency of the State, should be used until all other means had been employed and failed; or, unless it was invited by one or other of the parties to the dispute; or, unless the situation was such that peace, order and good government were prejudiced. The placing of the function of enquiry first and separate from the role of conciliation was done deliberately in order "to avoid too facile opportunism which seeks to patch up an industrial dispute by proposing a compromise between the views of the two parties without going down to the economic principles which are at stake." The committee appended to its report a draft for a Bombay Industrial Courts Act. For further information with regard to the work of this committee reference is invited to its report which was published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for April, 1922.

The next committee to be appointed by the Government of Bombay was the Committee of Enquiry, with the Honourable Sir Norman McLeod, Chief Justice of the High Court in Bombay, as Chairman, to inquire into the general strike of the Bombay cotton mill workers of the year 1924, in connection with the non-payment of an annual bonus for the year 1923, by the Bombay mills. The terms of reference to the committee have already been given in the summary dealing with this strike. The committee held that the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim customary, legal or equitable to the payment annually of a bonus, by which was meant that in the committee's opinion such a claim would not be upheld in a court of law. The Committee also held that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923, were such as to justify the contention of the millowners that the profits did not admit the payment of a bonus. The report of the Bonus Disputes Committee of Enquiry has not been printed as a separate document but it was published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for March, 1924.

The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Charles Fawcett was appointed in connection with the general strike of the cotton mill workers in Bombay City of the year 1928, in pursuance of the agreement arrived at

between the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee, at a conference held under the Chairmanship of the Honourable Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, General Member of the Government of Bombay, on 4th October, 1928. The recommendations and the findings of this committee have already been dealt with in previous sections or will be dealt with in subsequent sections with regard to the specific questions dealt with in this memorandum. In view of the fact also that the committee's report is in itself a document worthy of special examination, it is not considered necessary to summarise its conclusions still further here.

*Part played by Official or Non-Official Conciliators in Settling Disputes.*—The McLeod Committee did not play any part as official conciliators in the bonus dispute between the Millowners' Association and the Bombay mill workers during the 1924 strike. The Fawcett Committee, although appointed to enquire into and report on specific terms of reference functioned as conciliators on many questions in connection with the Seventeen Demands, the Standing Orders, and the "Standardization of Wages," and the "Efficiency" schemes. Several adjournments were given by the committee to enable the parties to the dispute to discuss and arrive at settlements with regard to various matters. During a long adjournment granted in January and February, 1929, the two parties reached a considerable measure of agreement on lines indicated by the committee with regard to several points of difference in connection with the Standardization Schemes.

In the case of almost all the general strikes that have taken place in Bombay City since the end of the war, the Governor of Bombay has invariably taken a considerable part in endeavouring to bring about a settlement between the employers and the employed. During each of the strikes in the Bombay cotton mills, conferences were frequently held between the Governor and the representatives of the Millowners' Association and those who appeared to be in a position to speak on behalf of Labour. In the case of the general strike of the year 1924 over the question of the non-payment of the annual bonus, the McLeod Committee of Enquiry was only appointed by Government when all other endeavours to bring about a settlement had failed. During the 1925 strike, which arose over the proposal made by the Millowners' Association to effect a general wage cut of 11½ per cent., the Government of Bombay approached the Government of India to suspend the collection of the Excise Duty of 3½ per cent. This was done and the Millowners' Association agreed to give up the proposed wage cut. The part played by the Governor and Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Jr) and the Honourable Sir Ghulam Hussein Hidayatullah in order to bring about a settlement of the general strike of last year has already been dealt with in the summary given in connection with that strike in the section on industrial disputes. Again, during the general strike which is in progress in Bombay City at present, both His Excellency Sir Frederick Sykes and the Honourable Sir Ghulam Hussein Hidayatullah held several conferences with the representatives of both parties in order to find a basis for settlement before appointing the court of enquiry under the Trade Disputes Act which is now sitting.

Among officials who have acted as conciliators in the case of disputes in the Ahmedabad cotton mills may be mentioned Mr. G. E. Chatfield, C.I.E., I.C.S., who was Collector of Ahmedabad in 1918, and Commissioner of the Northern Division from 1920, Professor A. B. Dhruv of the Gujarat College in 1918 and Dr. F. X. DeSouza, I.C.S., District and Sessions Judge in 1923. In a dispute which arose in the Ahmedabad mills in February, 1918, over the demand by weavers for an increase of 35 per cent. in rates, Mr. M. K. Gandhi proposed that Mr. G. E. Chatfield should be appointed the Chairman of a Committee to decide whether the weavers' demand was fair and reasonable. Again, in May, 1920, when another dispute arose over a demand made by spinners for an increase in wages, a 10-hour day and adequate facilities for drinking water, dining sheds, sanitation, etc., Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai a prominent millowner of Ahmedabad, proposed Mr. G. E. Chatfield's name as an arbitrator. Neither of these proposals materialised. But in a later year Mr. G. E. Chatfield induced Seth Mangaldas, another prominent millowner of Ahmedabad, to agree to accept Mr. Gandhi's award with a view to bringing about a speedy settlement of the dispute. Seth Mangaldas is reported to have accepted Mr. Chatfield's recommendation. It was Professor Dhruv who was eventually appointed arbitrator in the earlier dispute. He awarded an increase of 35 per cent. in the weavers' rates as demanded and the award was accepted by the Millowners' Association. In July, 1923, a dispute arose in connection with the interpretation of clause 1 (b) of an award made by Seth Mangaldas and Professor A. B. Dhruv in connection with the bonus dispute of the year 1922, with regard to the method of calculating bonus. When Seth Mangaldas and Mr. Dhruv could not agree as to the correct interpretation of their own award the Millowners' Association suggested Dr. DeSouza's name and the labour union accepted it. District magistrates and revenue officers in the Presidency have also acted on many occasions as informal conciliators with regard to disputes that have occurred in textile mills outside the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur.

The part played by Mr. M. K. Gandhi as a member of the Permanent Arbitration Board appointed by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association in April, 1920, in bringing about settlements of disputes in the Ahmedabad cotton mills, is dealt with below under the heading "Joint standing machinery for regulation of relations between employers and workpeople." Prior to his appointment on the permanent arbitration board, Mr. Gandhi, however, took a considerable part as a non-official conciliator or as a negotiator in settling disputes in the Ahmedabad mills. In December, 1917, when the warpers asked for a 25 per cent. increase in rates, Mr. Gandhi was largely responsible in bringing about a settlement as a conciliator on the basis of an increase of 12 to 14½ pies in the rates. These rates were subsequently increased to 15 pies by the Millowners' Association. In another important dispute in February, 1918, over the demand made by weavers for a 40 per cent. increase in the rates of wages, it was Mr. Gandhi's personal influence that was responsible for about modifying its demand to an increase of 35 per cent. Professor A. B. Dhruv was actually appointed an arbitrator for the settlement of this dispute but it was primarily due to Mr. Gandhi's influence that an award of an increase of 35 per cent. was granted and accepted by the Millowners' Association.

The position of Mr. Gandhi as a peace-maker in industrial disputes in Ahmedabad is a remarkable one, and is due to the fact that his political and spiritual ideals have won him devoted followers both in the ranks of capital and in those of labour. His impartiality is unquestioned, for it is known that he does not put forward a demand or support a proposal from labour unless he is convinced, in his own mind, that it is fair and reasonable. He is as severe in his condemnation of indiscipline among the workers as he is of failures on the part of millowners to treat their labour fairly. It is his personal influence that has kept the peace so well in Ahmedabad as compared with Bombay and prevented the dislocation of the industry by ill-advised strikes or lock-outs.

Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, a sister of Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai, a prominent millowner of Ahmedabad, and Mr. S. G. Banker, both followers of Mr. Gandhi, have also played a considerable part in settling industrial disputes in Ahmedabad. Miss Anasuya Sarabhai has been a Patron of the Ahmedabad labour union since 1920 and its President since the year 1922, and has taken an active part in its welfare activities. She has been associated with every trade dispute that has occurred in Ahmedabad since her connection with the labour movement.

Mr. Banker has been associated with the labour movement in Ahmedabad almost from its inception and is, at present, the Secretary of the All-India Spinners' Association. He is also a member of the Permanent Advisory Committee of the Labour Union consisting of Mr. Gandhi, Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, Lala Gulzarilal Nanda and himself. Both Miss Sarabhai and Mr. Banker are staunch disciples of Mr. Gandhi and endeavour to work with his methods and principles. The organization of a strong trade union movement in Ahmedabad owes more to these two persons than to anybody else.

*Use (if any) of Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act, 1860.*—At the moment of writing no information is available with regard to the extent to which the Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act, 1860, has been made use of in the Bombay Presidency. As far as the knowledge of the labour office goes no use has been made of this Act since the year 1921, when the office was constituted.

*Joint Standing Machinery for Regulation of Relations between Employers and Workpeople.*—Both the Great Indian Peninsula and the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railways provide for joint standing machinery for the regulation of relations between employers and workpeople. In the textile industry in Ahmedabad there is the permanent Arbitration Board consisting of Seth Mangaldas and Mr. M. K. Gandhi which was appointed by a resolution passed by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association on the 4th April, 1920, for the conciliation and arbitration of all industrial disputes where differences of opinion arise between the millowners and the workpeople which they are not able to settle among themselves. Machinery for the conciliation and settlement of disputes in their early stages in Bombay City with a view to preserve good feeling between employers and operatives was created under the Mediation Rules framed by the Fawcett Committee with the approval of the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee. These rules have not yet come into operation on account of the general strike which is now in progress among cotton mill operatives in Bombay. Prior to the formulation of these rules, joint standing committees consisting of representatives of the management and the workers had been created during the years immediately following the war in a few mills under the Agency of Messrs. Tata Sons, Ltd., Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons, Ltd. and one or two other firms. These joint committees functioned successfully for a few months or for a year or two in some cases, but they had to be given up subsequently, either on account of the apathy of the workers or an inherent



suspicion in their minds that such committees do not work in the interests of labour. The Bombay Post Office made an experiment with a similar committee during the year 1924, but no progress was made on account of reasons similar to those which led to the abandonment of the system in the case of the few textile mills which had it. To the knowledge of the labour office no other trade or industry in Bombay is known to have joint standing machinery of the kind which exists on the railways and in Ahmedabad or similar to that which is to come into operation in the case of the Bombay mills. Descriptions of the different types of machinery which obtain at present in the Bombay Presidency are given below.

*The G.I.P. Railway.*—With the approval of the Railway Board, the Administration of the G.I.P. Railway decided in January, 1924, to introduce, on the railway, "Staff Councils" to consider questions governing conditions of employment and the well-being of the staff generally, and also to provide a regular method of negotiation for issues arising between the railway and its employees. In introducing these staff councils the agent remarked that the main object for creating these councils was to provide means by which the staff and officers may have opportunities of conferring together on matters affecting the staff and the area generally and not to turn them into bureaux for complaints and nothing more, and that if this was the only result which emerged from them, they will have failed in their object.

The councils were introduced as an experimental measure and are subject to alteration or abolition at the discretion of the Administration or in the event of over-riding legislation on the subject. Staff councils include three different types of bodies: (1) divisional committees at divisional headquarters; (2) a railway council at Bombay; and (3) station committees at selected stations. The functions of divisional committees are (a) to provide a recognised means of communication between the employees and the company; (b) to give the employees a wider interest in the conditions under which their work is performed; (c) to consider any matters of interest to their division and to make recommendations to divisional or district officers with regard to those that affect them, subject to the right of the railway council to veto any recommendation if it be found to involve the interests of other divisions or districts or be in the opinion of the railway council objectionable; (d) to consider any matters sent from the station committees, or from the railway council; and (e) to make recommendations to the railway council. Among the more specific functions falling under (c) include suggestions for the satisfactory arrangement of working hours; the well-being of the staff in such matters as Co-operative Stores, recreation, institutes, etc.; the local application and interpretation of any agreement relating to general rules issued by the railway in regard to salaries, wages, hours of duty, conditions of service, etc.; and suggestions for improvements in organization of work, labour-saving appliances, etc. The functions of the railway council are (a) to consider questions and recommendations which may be referred to it by divisional committees, or be raised by its own members; (b) to refer to divisional committees any subjects for consideration and report; and (c) to make recommendations to the agent. The functions of the station committees are almost similar to those of the divisional committees but only in relation to matters affecting particular stations and the staffs at those stations.

Staff councils are not allowed to deal with any matters they please. Questions of discipline and matters in connection with the treatment of any single individual are outside the scope of their discussions. Similarly, no recommendation involving expenditure can be put into force except under administrative sanction by an officer duly authorised by the administration.

As these committees will no doubt be dealt with in detail in the Railway Board's memorandum, there is no need to discuss them further here.

The staff councils are reported to have done a considerable amount of constructive work since they were created in the year 1924. The majority of the higher paid operatives are recognising the advantages of these councils for the presentation of demands and the redress of grievances. The trade unions are, however, not in favour of the councils and the majority of the lower paid operatives are inclined to view the work done by them with considerable suspicion.

In May, 1928, the Railway appointed a Special Liaison Officer to hear and enquire into, with the assistance of the heads of the departments concerned, all grievances submitted to the administration by the different trade unions and in some specified cases by the workers themselves. Mr. K. S. Bakhale was the first officer to be appointed to hold this post in June, 1928. Mr. Bakhale has now been replaced by Mr. S. M. Basrur. The system is reported to be working satisfactorily.

*The B.B. & C.I. Railway.*—This railway inaugurated staff committees on the various lines under their administration in the year 1921. A commencement was made with district committees; from these district committees central committees were formed, and again from those central committees one joint select committee,

was formed to represent the subordinate staff of the whole of each department. Subsequently, a proposal was made that a joint staff committee consisting of representatives of every department should be formed for the discussion of matters of general interest to all departments. On the G.I.P. railway the stages of progression are: station committees, divisional committees and the railway council. On the B.B. and C.I. railway there are departmental committees by districts, technically called district committees, the central staff committees, a joint select committee, and finally the general staff committee. An important point of difference between the two sets of staff committees is that whereas in the case of the G.I.P. railway, representatives to the various committees are nominated and elected in equal numbers by the administration and the workers respectively, the representatives for the committees on the B.B. & C.I. railway are almost entirely elected.

*District Staff Committees.*—The aims and objects of these committees are (1) to encourage the staff to have free access to their district officers and to have a greater say in matters affecting their own welfare; (2) to increase the good relations between the officers and the staff; (3) to create a spirit of comradeship and goodwill amongst railway employees and to cultivate a better understanding among themselves and their officers; (4) to preserve the efficiency of the service; and (5) to improve the moral and material well-being of the service. The district committees consist of six members representing the staffs by whom they are respectively elected for the district concerned. Election is by ballot. The elected members nominate their own president and secretary from amongst themselves. All employees who have put in more than twelve months permanent or temporary service are eligible to vote but only men who have put in at least seven years' permanent service are eligible for election. It is not necessary that the service should be continuous. The members are appointed for three years.

*Central Staff Committees.*—These committees consist of two elected members from each district committee. Whereas district committees have free access to their district officers, the central committees have free access to the traffic superintendent. Their duties are to investigate the general grievances of the staff which are left unredressed in the district committee for one or other reasons, and examination of the cases which have been entered into the minutes of the district committees for investigation by the central committee.

There are two central committees, one for the broad gauge system and the other for the metre gauge system. Both central committees are to meet once a year at any station mutually agreed upon between the secretaries of the central committees of both gauges in consultation with the central committees members. The proceedings of all the meetings of each central committee are sent to the president and the secretary of the other. Each central committee elects three members for the joint select committee.

*Joint Select Committee.*—The joint select traffic committee consists of six members, three being elected from each central committee. The general traffic manager of the railway is the *ex-officio* president of the joint select committee. The secretary is elected by the members from amongst themselves. The aims and objects of this committee, in addition to those of the district and the central staff committees are (a) to see that the staff generally are contented; (b) to see that discontent, if any, is removed from the service; and (c) to invite suggestions from the staff for improving the service. The joint select committee has free access to the general traffic manager and officers subordinate to him. The joint select committee meets when 10 or more items on the agenda are collected for discussion. The duties of this committee are (a) to investigate the general grievances of the staff; (b) to study carefully cases undisposed of by the district and central committees; and (c) to suggest possible remedies for redressing established grievances.

*General Staff Committee.*—This committee has been formed to encourage the staff to have access to the agent of the railway in matters affecting the welfare of the railway staff in general through the general staff committee and to foster a spirit of comradeship amongst the railway employees throughout the line. The committee consists of two elected members from the joint select committee to represent the traffic staff of both the broad and metre gauges, two elected members from the joint central committee to represent the engineering staff of both gauges, two elected members from the staff of the audit department of both gauges, two elected members from the district committees to represent the electrical department, two elected members from the district committees to represent the locomotive and carriage departments of the broad gauge, two elected members from the district committees to represent the locomotive department of the metre gauge, two elected members from the district committees to represent the line staff and the workshops on the metre gauge, and one elected member each from the staffs of the medical and the stores departments. In the case of the medical department the staffs themselves elect their member through their central staff committee, but in the case of the stores department the central committee selects a member.

The general staff committee meets twice a year. Its duties are to discuss general questions relating to the staff which may come up to them from the various staff committees or which are considered of sufficient importance to be brought up originally by the members themselves. The general staff committee are authorized to bring to the notice of the agent cases of any general grievances of the staff which, in the opinion of the committee, are likely to cause discontent and subsequent trouble.

The B. B. & C. I. railway have also appointed a special officer, Colonel H. F. Hobbs, as a staff liaison officer to receive complaints submitted by trade unions or direct by the workers themselves. Colonel Hobbs reports that the staff committees on the B. B. & C. I. railway have generally worked excellently and continue to function in a satisfactory manner. Notwithstanding this, however, trade union officials and members do not regard these committees as very satisfactory and the same suspicion which is found to exist in the case of the G. I. P. railway is found in the case of the B. B. & C. I. railway as well.

*The Ahmedabad Mill Industry.*—In the Ahmedabad cotton mill industry it has been mutually agreed between the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Ahmedabad Labour Union that all grievances should, in the first instance, be discussed between the workers themselves and the managements of the mills concerned. If any worker has a grievance he reports it to a member of the council of representatives from his mill. The member speaks to the head of the department and the agent of the mill, if necessary. If the grievance is not redressed a formal complaint is recorded with the Labour Union. The Labour Union official—usually the secretary or the assistant secretary—goes to the mill, ascertains the correctness of the complaint and requests the mill officer or the agent to redress the grievance. If no settlement is arrived at during this stage the matter is reported by the Labour Union to the Millowners' Association. The secretary of the Millowners' Association speaks to the mill concerned and tries to settle the matter amicably. The procedure in connection with grievances of a general nature referring to several mills or several workers in a mill are also similarly dealt with. If the workers do not get redress after the matter has been discussed between the Millowners' Association and the Labour Union, the matter is finally referred to the Permanent Arbitration Board consisting of Seth Mangaldas as the representative of the millowners and Mr. M. K. Gandhi as the representative of labour.

The formation of the Permanent Arbitration Board in Ahmedabad is largely due to Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai who was the president of the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association during the years 1918 and 1919 and also in the early months of 1920. At his instance a meeting was held on the 8th December, 1919, between the managing committee of the association and the accredited representatives of labour with a view to frame recommendations for the creation of some permanent machinery for the settlement of disputes. On the 12th January, 1920, a tentative scheme was drawn up for an informal discussion between the representatives of labour and capital in the first instance. This scheme provided for a board of referees with seven members from each side who were to elect a chairman from among themselves for deciding disputes which could not be settled by informal discussions. The scheme was circulated among the members of the association. A labour settlement sub-committee was appointed by the association on the 15th February and they submitted their report on the 19th of the same month. A sub-committee of 12 members was again appointed on the 25th February to discuss with Mr. Gandhi questions connected with the formation of unions and conciliation boards. In the meanwhile, Seth Mangaldas was appointed chairman of the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association in succession to Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai. The discussions between the sub-committee appointed by the association and Mr. Gandhi resulted in the formation of a permanent arbitration board by a resolution passed by the Millowners' Association on the 4th April, 1920. The following is an extract from this resolution:—

“If any dispute or difference of opinion arises between the millowners and workpeople and if they are not able to settle it among themselves such dispute shall be settled by Mahatma Gandhi and Seth Mangaldas. For doing so they are invested with such powers as are ordinarily given to arbitrators on such occasions.”

Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai was opposed to the nomination of a single individual to represent each side and was for appointing a panel of distinguished officials or leaders as umpires from whom the representatives of each side might choose their chairman. His suggestion was not followed, because the millowners thought that if they could not negotiate a settlement with a person of high moral principles like Mr. Gandhi, they would not be satisfied with the decision of an official or non-official umpire however eminent he might be.

The absence of an umpire leads to prolonged discussions as differences of opinion between members of the arbitration board cannot be referred immediately to a third party for final decision. The necessity for referring disputed points to an umpire was actually felt in 1921 and 1923 when Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and Dr. DeSouza

I.C.S., acted as umpires. Occasions for differences of opinion would have been greater if anybody other than Mr. Gandhi represented labour on the permanent board. His presence on the board helps the comparatively smooth working of an imperfect machinery. Much depends on Mr. Gandhi's personality. In a recent dispute in January, 1929, between the Labour Union and the Gujarat Ginning Mill, the mill objected to the nomination of somebody else to represent labour on the board whilst Mr. Gandhi was away and they wanted to wait till Mr. Gandhi's return from tour.

The sanction behind the awards of the arbitrators is moral and not legal. In the constitution of the Millowners' Association it is laid down that all special resolutions of the association should be compulsorily binding on all local mills of the association when the same are passed by a majority of three-fourths of the members present in the meeting and confirmed at a subsequent confirmatory meeting by a majority of three-fourths of the members present in the said meeting. If any member fails to observe such a resolution, the managing committee can call upon the member to explain his position and in case the committee decide by a majority to put the member out of the association he ceases to be a member under the penalty of forfeiture of all his rights and claims on the association accrued up to that date. In accordance with this rule, if any mill does not abide by an award which has been accepted by the association such mill can be expelled from the association. Much, however, depends on the attitude of different millowners. There are many awards which have not yet been given effect to fully, e.g., those relating to the supply of cold drinking water, the provision of adequate dining sheds, etc.

There is often considerable delay in arbitration proceedings under the present arrangements. Mr. Gandhi is usually very busy with his various other activities and Seth Mangaldas also often finds it difficult to spare time in the midst of his other pre-occupations. The appointment of a joint committee to inquire into and settle complaints which arise from day to day is a long-felt necessity and this is seen from the long list of pending complaints with the Labour Union. 429 complaints were pending at the beginning of 1929 of which not less than 50 were said to have been pending since 1922. The Labour Union is keen on putting the whole system on a sound and constitutional basis with proper rules and regulations; but at the same time they recognize that whilst Mr. Gandhi's services are available to fight their battles for them, full justice will be given to their demands.

A summary of the previous investigations by conciliation and arbitration machinery in the Ahmedabad cotton mills is given in Appendix XII. As will be seen from that summary there were no references to the Permanent Arbitration Board during the four years 1924 to 1927. In November, 1928, there was a dispute between the Millowners' Association and the Labour Union with regard to the collection of Union fees by Union officials within the precincts of the mills. The dispute was referred to the arbitration board. The award given permitted the mills to deduct subscriptions from wages and to pay these to the Union by cheque. The association accepted the award and this system obtains in the mills since that date. The arbitration board is at present engaged in considering the question of restoring the wage cut of 1923.

*The Bombay Mill Industry.*—Reference has already been made in the preliminary remarks to this section of the existence of joint committees consisting of the representatives of the managements and of the workers which were created in a few Bombay mills in the years immediately following the end of the war. For over five years prior to the formulation of the Mediation Rules by the Fawcett Committee there was no standing machinery in the cotton mill industry in Bombay City for the settlement or conciliation and arbitration of disputes between employers and the employed. The Mediation Rules framed by the Fawcett Committee are based on the Joint Rules for Settlement of Trade Disputes in the Cotton Industry in Lancashire, which are given at pages 119–126 of the "Uniform List of Prices for Weaving" for 1924. In commenting on the rules framed by them, the committee said they hoped that they would afford machinery for the discussion of disputes and would lead to a diminution of the present too common practice of "lightning strikes." The committee remarked that although the agreement of the 4th October, 1928, constituted a truce in "hostilities," such as strikes and lockouts, no less than 70 strikes of this nature took place during their proceedings. They held that it was obvious that this state of things is prejudicial to the well-being of the industry, including that of the workers themselves, and that its continuance, when combined with a high level of wages in Bombay, might result in increasing the existing tendency of millowners to establish mills up-country, where labour is cheaper and works more steadily. The present greater uncertainty as to when a lightning strike may take place in a mill necessarily disables its management in many ways, e.g., in accepting large contracts, and the workers themselves ought surely to benefit by progress towards the stage now

generally reached in Europe, where discussion and an attempt at settlement between the workers' and the employers' organizations are almost necessary preludes to a strike or a lock-out.

The "Mediation Rules" provide that in the event of a trade dispute arising between any member of the Millowners' Association, Bombay, and any operative(s), member or members of a Trade Union registered in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in any mill or mills in Bombay City and island, other than a trade dispute as to the correct interpretation of the standing orders or the standardization rates of wages laid down for Bombay mills, which are members of the Bombay Millowners' Association, the following course shall be taken :—

(1) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate employment for the purpose of a lockout or strike, the dispute shall be brought forthwith before a joint meeting consisting of not less than two and not more than six authorized representatives of the mill or mills concerned and an equal number of representatives of the trade union or unions of which the operative(s) is a (are) member(s) and such meetings shall be called within four days from the date of a written application by either party for such a meeting; and if a settlement of the dispute is not come to at such meeting or at an adjournment thereof, then

(2) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate employment for the purpose of a lockout or a strike, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting consisting of two or more members of the Employers' Mediation Panel and an equal number of the Textile Trade Union Mediation Panel, and such meeting shall be called within seven days from the date of an application by either party for such a meeting, and if a settlement of the dispute be not come to at that meeting, or at an adjournment thereof, then

(3) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate employment, for the purpose of a lockout or strike, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting of the Committee of the Millowners' Association, Bombay, and the representatives of the registered Textile Trade Unions of Bombay, and such meeting shall be called within seven days from the date of an application by either party for such meeting, and if a settlement be not come to at such meeting, or at an adjournment thereof, then either party shall be at liberty to take whatever course it thinks fit.

In the event of a dispute arising as to the correct interpretation of the standing orders or the standardization scheme of wages laid down for Bombay mills which are members of the Bombay Millowners' Association, the following course is to be taken:—

(1) The dispute shall in the first instance be investigated without delay by the management of the mills concerned who shall, after completing their investigations in those cases in which a settlement is not arrived at, submit a report within seven days in writing to the secretary of the Millowners' Association and to the secretaries of the Textile Trade Unions registered in Bombay.

(2) Upon receipt of such communication by the secretary of the Millowners' Association, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting consisting of two or more members of the Employers' Mediation Panel, and an equal number of the Textile Trade Union Mediation Panel, to be called within seven days from the date on which the secretary of the Millowners' Association received the notification referred to in sub-clause (1), and if a settlement of the dispute be not come to at that meeting, or at an adjournment thereof, then

(3) Upon application of either party to the dispute, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting of the committee of the Bombay Millowners' Association and the representatives of the registered Textile Trade Unions of Bombay to be called within seven days from the receipt of an application by either party for such a meeting, and if a settlement be not come to at such a meeting, or at an adjournment thereof, then either party shall be at liberty to take whatever course it thinks fit.

Whenever a settlement of any trade dispute shall not have been come to and the operatives are on strike, or have been locked out, meetings shall be held periodically between the representatives of the Millowners' Association and representatives of the members of the trade unions concerned in the dispute. The first of such meetings shall be called within four weeks after the commencement of the strike or lockout, and subsequent meetings at monthly or shorter intervals thereafter. The exact date, time and place of the first of such meetings shall be decided at the last joint meeting previous to the commencement of the strike or lockout.

Upon an application from either the Millowners' Association, or at least one-half of the registered Textile Trade Unions, a joint meeting of the committee of the Millowners' Association and the representatives of the registered textile trade unions shall be called within 28 days from the date of such an application to discuss any suggestions for altering or amending terms and or conditions of employment affecting or likely to affect more than one-quarter of the cotton textile mills in Bombay.

At a meeting held between the representatives of the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee on the 8th April, 1929, for a discussion on the recommendations and the findings of the Fawcett Committee a tentative agreement was reached that the Mediation Rules should be brought into operation at once and that both parties should proceed to the formation of their respective panels. Before this could be done, however, the joint discussions between the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee terminated on the 24th April over questions now under investigation by a Court of Enquiry, connected with the recognition of the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union's mill committees functioning at the respective mills, refusal of the association to permit the collection of union subscriptions on mill premises, alleged victimisation of workers on the union's mill committees and the alleged refusal by mills to consider representations submitted to them by the union; and also in connection with the refusal of the Millowners' Association to reinstate the 6,000 workers replaced in the Spring, the Textile and the Century mills on account of the strikes which had either been supported or called by the union in these mills during the month of March, 1929. After a breakdown of the joint discussions on the 24th April, the Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union called out the workers for a general strike on the 26th April. This strike still continues and consequently no progress has been made with regard to bringing the Mediation Rules into operation.

*Opportunity afforded to Workpeople of making representations.*—The opportunities afforded by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the G. I. P. and the B. B. & C. I. railways to their workpeople for making representations have already been dealt with above. The Bombay Textile Labour Union often complained to the Fawcett Committee that the Bombay Millowners' Association, as a matter of deliberate policy, refused to enter into any discussions with them with regard to complaints submitted by the union in connection with specific matters of dispute in individual mills prior to the meeting which they had with the Joint Strike Committee early in June, 1928. The decision of the Millowners' Association to enter into negotiations with representatives of registered trade unions was the first official recognition publicly announced of the right of registered trade unions to be heard. These remarks should not, however, be taken to mean that other employers did not recognize unions of their employees. The Government of India extended official recognition to unions of postal workers as early as the year 1924. Since that date Government have accorded official recognition to several unions of employees of various Government departments. Definite recognition by the railways of the unions of their employees was only accorded after registration under the Trade Unions Act. Most of the bigger employers are now insisting on registration prior to recognition. No information is available with regard to the procedure followed in industries where the workers are not organized.

*Trade Disputes Act.*—This Act only received the assent of the Governor General on the 12th April, 1929. It was brought into force from 8th May, 1929, at the urgent request of the Government of Bombay so that machinery might be available for dealing with a general strike in the Bombay cotton mills. Rules were immediately framed and published in order that a court of enquiry should be able to function forthwith. That court of enquiry was appointed and is now sitting. This is the first tribunal to be established under the Act and therefore there has not been sufficient time to consider the effectiveness or otherwise of the measure as a means of dealing with industrial disputes. One or two defects, however, have been revealed. For example, Section 3 is not suitable to existing industrial conditions. It refers only to trade disputes existing or apprehended between "an employer and his workmen." Neither this section nor any other part of the Act appears to recognize associations of employers or associations of workmen. Consequently, when the court of enquiry was appointed to investigate a dispute in the Bombay textile mills, it was not possible to frame the terms of reference on the basis of the facts of the situation, namely, that there was a dispute existing between the Millowners' Association and the Girmi Kamgar Union. Notifications issued under the Act had to set out the names of all the mills in Bombay City, and the workers in these mills, as separate parties. Notice had to be given to each mill separately and, in order to give notice to the other parties, namely, the workmen in seventy odd mills, notices had to be posted up at all the mills and served on all the Trade Unions of mill workers. An amendment of Section 3 or a definition of employers and workers appears to be necessary in order to include associations of employers and associations of workmen, thus making it possible to set up a court of enquiry to deal with a general strike where the parties are an association on one side and a union on the other.

As the report of the court of enquiry may deal with matters of this kind, i.e., defects in the Act, and as this Report will be available to the Royal Commission, the Government of Bombay do not desire to express any opinion on the subject at this stage. When the Bill was sent to Government for consideration, the Government of Bombay expressed their apprehension that the lack of conciliation

machinery in industry itself was likely to cause embarrassment to local Governments in the administration of the Act. The events of the past 12 months have emphasised this point and the Government of Bombay are of opinion that the Trade Disputes Act should be reinforced by a system which would ensure the setting up in every important industry of conciliation machinery and would provide that until that machinery had been made use of, the powers under the Trade Disputes Act should not be exercised. The present position is, in effect, that there exists no statutory method open to any Government to deal with a single strike in one industry or a general strike in a whole industry, except the Trade Disputes Act with its courts of inquiry or boards of conciliation. It appears to Government that the gap should be filled by the establishment of conciliation machinery within an industry itself set up by the parties concerned but validated if necessary by legislation. This would have the effect of narrowing down the issues in any particular dispute and would leave the machinery of the Trade Disputes Act to function only in disputes of serious importance, affecting a whole industry or raising questions of general application to all industries.

#### Chapter XIV.—Law of Master and Servant.

There are no special laws passed in this Presidency which govern this subject. The various Acts passed by the Governor General in Council which affect or relate to it are:—(1) The Employers and Workmen (Disputes) Act, 1860 (IX of 1860); (2) The Indian Factories Act, 1911; (3) The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 (VIII of 1923), as amended by Act V of 1929; and (4) The Trade Disputes Act, 1929 (VII of 1929).

The first Act has been extended to certain districts in this Presidency while the latter Acts apply to the whole of the Presidency. In matters which are not specially provided for in these Acts, the principles of the English common law are generally followed.

The relation of master and servant gives rise to four kinds of liabilities, namely:—(1) liability of master to third persons; (2) liability of servant to third persons; (3) liability of master to servant; and (4) liability of servant to master.

The first two relationships are not germane to the present enquiry and need not be discussed. As regards liability of master to servant, a master is liable to his servant for injuries received by him during the course of his employment and the doctrine of common employment and the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, apply.

The contract of service governs such questions as wages and notice. Usually it is not a written contract and terms and conditions of service are a matter of custom. The Factories Act requires the exhibition of notices relating to certain matters covered by the Act some of which bear on the relationship between the owner and the worker. In many textile mills there are rules framed with regard to dismissal, etc., and the Fawcett Committee has laid down a series of rules which, when generally adopted, will form the basis of the contractual relationship between the millowner and the mill operative. Most of the large Government and semi-Government factories also have rules of the same kind.

A servant is liable to his master though not to others, for the consequences of his acts. A master can recover damages from his servant if damages have been recovered from him for the servant's negligence in doing the master's work.

#### Chapter XV.—Administration.

*Central and Provincial Legislatures.—Action and attitude on labour questions.*—The last eight years have seen the enactment of labour legislation on a scale entirely unprecedented in the history of India. The Factories Act has been revised to such an extent as to be virtually a new Act. The Mines Act has been replaced by an entirely new Act, while an amending Act relating to the introduction of the Shift system has also been passed. The Workmen's Compensation Act, the first measure of its kind in India, has been passed into law. A Bill amending it was passed this year and further amendments are now under consideration. An Act for the registration and protection of Trade Unions has also recently been passed. The most recent labour legislation is the Trade Disputes Act which has for its object the establishment of tribunals for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes.

The local council is taking considerable interest in labour questions. It has already passed a law for granting maternity benefits to factory women and the rules under the Act have been published. A law has also been passed for granting separate representation to Labour in the Bombay Municipality through registered

trade unions. The interest evinced by members of the local legislature in labour matters can be seen from the following typical resolutions which have been proposed to be moved in the council from time to time but which were not discussed owing to time limits :—

1. Recommending to Government that a committee of officials and non-officials be appointed to consider a scheme for establishing a Bombay Presidency Workmen's Welfare Fund with the co-operation of municipal and other local bodies and various kinds of employers in the Presidency to be spent for the benefit of the workmen in organized industries.

2. Recommending to the Governor in Council to appoint a committee of official and non-official members of the Bombay Legislative Council and representatives of labour to enquire into and suggest ways and means of improving the general condition of labour of every kind, by organizing welfare funds for the purpose of providing sickness, health, maternity, old age, unemployment and other kindred benefits, on the same lines as they exist in Great Britain and other civilized countries.

3. Recommending to the Governor in Council to appoint at an early date a committee with adequate representation of labour thereon to investigate and report upon the best ways and means of improving the condition of textile workers in the Bombay Presidency, with special reference to the system of recruitment, their hours of work, system of leave, housing and maternity benefit.

4. Recommending to Government to organize the Labour Directorate as a separate department to deal with all questions concerning labour.

During the general strike of last year in the cotton mill industry the situation was discussed on a motion for the adjournment of the House and the appointment of a committee to enquire into the cut in wages proposed by the millowners, and the whole question of the management of the Bombay mill industry was urged.

The voting of the Labour Office grant usually provokes a discussion on matters of labour interest. In 1928 the question of unemployment and labour exchanges was raised on a token cut, and an interesting discussion followed. The result of the debate was that the motion for the cut was lost.

Three out of the nine seats in the Legislative Council reserved for nominated non-official members are given to representatives of labour. The present members are all on the executive of trade unions, as are several of the elected members.

*Relations between Central and Local Government.*—The relations between the central and local Government on labour questions have, on the whole, been cordial. In a few instances, however, the Bombay Government has had occasion to criticize the line of action adopted by the Government of India. In 1921 the Government of India invited the opinion of the Government of Bombay on the subject of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations of the Labour Conference at Washington regarding public employment agencies. In this case the Government of Bombay while replying to the specific questions made *inter alia* the following observations :—

"The Government of Bombay are inclined to doubt the wisdom of endeavouring to bring into force a number of measures relating to industrial questions without allowing sufficient time for the careful consideration which these measures demand. The questions raised in your letter under reply, and in the correspondence relating to the Workmen's Compensation Act, are admittedly of a difficult and, as experience elsewhere has shown, of a complicated character. The Government of Bombay realize that the Government of India attach the greatest importance to the necessity of ensuring that industrial organization in India should proceed on sound lines, but they have grave doubts whether this can be achieved by introducing legislation on all the most important industrial questions on *Western lines* without giving ample time to the local governments to formulate considered opinions and to decide whether the action that is proposed will be in every way suitable to Indian conditions."

In the case relating to legislation for the provision of compensation to workmen which was referred to the Government of Bombay for opinion in the same year the following remarks were offered :—

"While the Governor in Council is in general agreement with the view that an Act to regulate the important and difficult matter of workmen's compensation will eventually prove to be necessary, he is entirely opposed to hasty legislation on the subject in view of the difficulties which have surrounded the administration of the law in England, and of the greater difficulties which are likely to arise in India unless all aspects of the case are subjected to prolonged and careful scrutiny." They further observed : "The Governor in Council does not feel justified at this stage in offering any opinion in detail on the proposals which have been made, but would prefer merely to reiterate with emphasis the view expressed in connection with the allied subject of public employment agencies, that it would be in the highest degree



unwise to proceed hastily with important industrial legislation for which no public demand has yet been voiced, and for which no adequate justification can be found in the present industrial situation."

In another case regarding the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance schemes in India in connection with the draft Conventions and Recommendations concerning sickness insurance adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1927, the Government of Bombay made the following observations :—

"While sympathizing with any movement for the amelioration of the conditions of industrial labour in India, the Government of Bombay feel constrained to point out that the extra expenditure which will inevitably be occasioned by any legislation which involves the starting of sickness insurance schemes will fall entirely on the local Governments. This legislation will necessitate the maintenance of a staff of highly paid experts to deal with work which will be of a very technical nature, and the expenditure on this is bound to be considerable. The Government of Bombay have already had to incur extra expenditure in connection with the Trade Unions Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act. As the Government of India are aware, the financial position of the local Government is most unfavourable at present, nor does there appear to be any hope of an improvement in it in the near future unless some radical change in the Meston Settlement is made. . . . The recent tendency on the part of the Government of India, Industries Department, to introduce legislation aiming at the improvement of industrial labour conditions without apparently considering the financial burdens which it must impose on the provincial revenues, and without first consulting those Governments on the question of their ability to bear these burdens or not cannot but alarm a Government so unfortunately situated as is the Government of Bombay at present in respect to finance."

The Government of India, however, asked this Government to re-consider their views. In reply the Government of Bombay stated that if the Commission after hearing evidence in all parts of India comes to the conclusion that a scheme of Sickness Insurance is desirable and is practicable, the Government of Bombay will give the scheme its hearty support.

It must not be assumed that the Government of Bombay is opposed to social legislation. Responsible as it is for the government of the most important industrial province in India, the welfare of the industrial population must always be its especial care. It does, however, desire that its special knowledge and understanding of labour matters should not be forgotten and that any legislation that is proposed should be submitted to it for consideration before it is published as a Bill of the Legislative Assembly. The financial burden of all social legislation falls upon the local governments who have to administer it. There are many pieces of social legislation which might be excellent in theory, but the cost of administration and the burden on industry might far outweigh the benefits likely to be derived from them by the persons such legislation is intended to benefit. The financial position of the local Government is worse than last year, and must necessarily limit all social legislation involving State expenditure. It is imperative that no further obligations of this character should be assumed until either fresh sources of revenue can be made available or the Central Government undertakes to bear the expenditure.

*Administrative Authorities in Various Governments—Work of special Labour Offices or Officers.*—In the Bombay Presidency the General Department of the Government of Bombay is the administrative authority which deals with all labour questions, but the Revenue Department is consulted on labour questions relating to mines. There are four offices in the Bombay Presidency which deal with labour matters : (1) The Bombay Labour Office, (2) the Factories Department, (3) the office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, and (4) the shipping offices at Bombay and Karachi.

*Labour Office.*—The Bombay Labour Office was established in the year 1921. In the Government resolution announcing the establishment of this office the following were declared to be its functions :—

(1) *Labour statistics and intelligence.*—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lock-outs, and similar matters.

(2) *Industrial disputes.*—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise, and

(3) *Legislation and other matters relating to labour.*—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws.

When the Labour Office was first started it was placed in charge of a Director of Labour. The post of the Director of Labour was, however, abolished in the year 1926, and at present the officer in charge of the Labour Office is styled the Director

of Information and Labour Intelligence. He is also the Registrar of Trade Unions and the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation. In addition to the Director, there are three other gazetted officers who are styled Investigators, one of whom is in charge of the branch office at Ahmedabad. There are also three whole-time lady investigators in Bombay. All investigators receive conveyance allowances. The office staff contains two statistical assistants, three senior clerks, eight junior clerks, two stenographers, one typist, one cashier and one despatcher. There are also one daftari and five peons in Bombay and one peon in Ahmedabad. The work is broken up into branches as follows :—

Branch I.—General registry, accounts, etc.

Branch II.—Prices, family budgets, rents, cost of living and unemployment.

Branch III.—Wages, strikes, industrial intelligence, legislation and trade unions.

Branch IV.—Labour Gazette and library.

Two branches are under each Bombay Investigator. Statistics are largely compiled by means of comptometers, of which the Labour Office has five.

The Labour Office activities fall under the following heads :—

- (1) Prices and cost of living.
- (2) Wages and hours of labour.
- (3) Rents.
- (4) Economic and social conditions of various communities.
- (5) Unemployment.
- (6) Industrial disputes.
- (7) Trade unions.
- (8) Other industrial and labour intelligence.
- (9) International labour intelligence.
- (10) Labour legislation.
- (11) The Labour Gazette.
- (12) Library.
- (13) Office organization.

Information regarding the statistics collected by the Labour Office will be found in the section dealing with intelligence and need not be repeated here. The only points which need to be discussed here are Labour Legislation, the Labour Gazette, and the Library.

As regards legislation, the Labour Office drafts bills on labour subjects for the Government of Bombay, supplies information required for the consideration of these bills, circulates them to interested persons and bodies for opinions, and summarizes the various views expressed on each point covered by a Bill before submitting the case to Government with its own views and its answers to any controversial views expressed. It also drafts or subjects to examination in the same way any rules or regulations to be framed on the Labour Acts by the Local Government. So far the Labour Office has framed two bills for the local Government, one on industrial disputes and the other on the collection of labour statistics. The Labour Office has also drafted the Bombay Trade Unions Regulations, 1927, and the Rules under the Trade Disputes Act, 1929.

When any bill on labour subjects is introduced either in the Bombay Legislative Council or the Legislative Assembly it is reprinted in full in the *Labour Gazette*, and all rules and notifications issued by the Bombay or the Central Government are similarly reprinted. Legislation of this nature undertaken by other provinces will also be reprinted in the *Labour Gazette*, but up to the present there has not been very much done except by the Bombay and the central Governments.

The *Labour Gazette* has been published monthly since September, 1921. It is intended to supply complete and up-to-date information on Indian labour conditions, and especially the conditions existing in the Bombay Presidency, and to supply to local readers the greatest possible amount of information regarding labour conditions in the outside world. The *Labour Gazette* circulates to many different countries, and is perhaps the only publication of its kind in this country from which foreigners interested in labour and economic conditions in India can obtain accurate and up-to-date information. It has also hitherto been practically the only medium through which the work and publications of the International Labour Office have been made regularly available to people in India.

A substantial grant is allowed for the purchase of books, and the Labour Office has now accumulated a very useful and fully catalogued library on labour, industrial and economic matters. The Labour Office library is open to research workers in Bombay. In addition to books, the library contains bound copies of all the more important periodicals received from Labour Ministries, international organizations and research organizations in various parts of the world.

**Factories Department.**—The Factories Department is in charge of the Collector of Bombay. Information regarding the staff of the department will be found in the section dealing with factory inspection.

*Office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation.*—The Workmen's Compensation Act came into force on 1st July, 1924, and the Government of Bombay appointed a special officer to hold the post of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation. In the year 1928, however, the officer in charge of the Labour Office was asked to hold the post in addition to his duties, and that officer has been doing the work since then.

*Shipping Offices in the Bombay Presidency.*—In addition to the shipping, paying-off and discharging of ships' crews the Shipping Office has a variety of miscellaneous duties to perform. These include the settlement of disputes between shipmasters and seamen, the administration of the estates of deceased seamen of the mercantile marine, the disposal of distressed British and Indian seamen and the inspection of rations and water provided for the crews. The settlement of claims of seamen or their dependants in case of accident or death and the receipt and disposal of dead seamen's effects and the registration of seamen also come within the scope of the shipping master. An assistant to the Shipping Master, Bombay, has recently been appointed to assist in the proper recruitment of seamen.

During the year 1927-28 the Bombay Shipping Office signed on 33,661 seamen of many nationalities and discharged 35,209. About 10,480 Goanese were signed on and 10,400 were discharged, almost all in the steward's department. Over 20,000 other Indians were signed on and 21,800 discharged. Deck hands were both Hindus and Muhammedans, but those in the engine room were exclusively Muhammedans.

The Karachi Shipping Office signed on 412 seamen and discharged 660.

As a result of the Indian Merchant Shipping (Amending) Act, 1928 (VI of 1928), which came into force from 1st April, 1929, the local Government have ceased to act as the agents of the Government of India in the administration of the subject "Shipping and Navigation."

*Acquaintance of Workpeople with Factory Legislation.*—The workpeople in the larger industrial areas are fairly well acquainted with the provisions of the existing factory legislation. In the seasonal industries the workers have become far better acquainted in recent years as a result of the surprise visits and prosecutions instituted. An Abstract of the Act in the vernacular languages is posted in factories.

*Factory Inspection—Adequacy of staff.*—The full-time factory staff in the Bombay Presidency consists of the Chief Inspector of Factories, three inspectors, three assistant inspectors and one woman inspector. The Chief Inspector, two inspectors and two assistants have their headquarters in Bombay. An inspector and an assistant are stationed in Ahmedabad. The Woman Inspector has her headquarters in Bombay, but has jurisdiction over the whole Presidency. She deals with problems mainly affecting women.

Full-time certifying surgeons are stationed in Bombay and Ahmedabad. They have been appointed additional inspectors with powers under the health and sanitary sections of the Factories Act. They have also been granted powers under the provisions of the Maternity Benefit Act. The Director and Assistant Directors of Public Health have also been appointed additional inspectors under the health and sanitary sections of the Act. Their reports are sent to the Chief Inspector, who passes orders on the same.

Local magistrates have *ex-officio* powers under the employment sections of the Act.

*Uniformity of Administration in different Provinces, and rigour and efficiency of Administration.*—The following two tables show the number of persons convicted in the various provinces in the years 1923 to 1927, and the number of uninspected factories:—

*Persons Convicted.*

Year	Madras	Bombay	Bengal	United Provinces	Punjab	Burma	Bihar and Orissa	Central Provinces	Assam
1923 ..	30	18	18	5	65	13	—	22	—
1924 ..	56	64	28	6	16	21	—	31	—
1925 ..	78	57	54	7	25	12	3	33	—
1926 ..	90	90	63	6	26	23	1	37	—
1927 ..	150	48	72	7	49	37	2	40	3
<b>Total..</b>	<b>404</b>	<b>277</b>	<b>235</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>3</b>

*Uninspected Factories*

Year	Madras	Bombay	Bengal	United Provinces	Punjab	Burma	Bihar and Orissa	Central Provinces	Assam
1923 ..	17	71	320	44	33	82	112	34	430
1924 ..	89	52	315	33	56	88	44	12	352
1925 ..	56	27	291	37	48	138	62	5	318
1926 ..	46	26	243	33	36	99	50	3	311
1927 ..	16	12	160	41	44	123	140	9	267
Total..	224	188	1,329	188	217	530	408	63	1,678
Average..	45	38	266	38	43	106	82	13	336
No. of factories in 1925.	1,121	1,358	1,148	276	527	893	242	644	589
Percentage of uninspected factories.	4.0	2.8	23.2	13.8	8.2	11.9	33.9	2.0	57.0

*Prosecutions and their Result.*—Bombay may claim to have led the other provinces in the matter of obtaining reasonable penalties for breaches of the Factories Act and the system introduced by the present chief inspector of obtaining convictions for the irregular employment of each person in contravention of the Factories Act has been followed elsewhere.

Prior to 1917, fines could not have been said to have acted as a deterrent. In a case in Ahmedabad in that year a manager was fined Rs. 100 in each of ten cases for employing women at night. There was no appeal. In a similar case in 1918, the manager was fined Rs. 100 in each of 18 cases, and an appeal to the Sessions resulted in the reduction of the fine to one of Rs. 100, since it was held that only one offence had been committed. An appeal to the High Court, however, upheld the legality of individual fines but reduced the fine in 17 cases to one of Rs. 50 in each case. In 1919 irregularities regarding labour were generally prevalent in Ahmedabad. The agents of several mills were successfully prosecuted and fines amounting to nearly Rs. 25,000 were imposed. This total included two fines of Rs. 3,000 each and one of Rs. 2,400.

The same system was introduced in Bombay in 1922 and prevented the irregular employment of reelers on the weekly holiday.

Although proviso (ii) to Section 15 of the Act of 1891 was omitted in the Act of 1911, High Courts in India have decided that individual fines may be imposed where persons are irregularly employed.

Nowadays it is not difficult to obtain a fine of Rs. 50 per individual in the case of the irregular employment of women at night.

Practically all prosecutions in the Bombay Presidency are conducted by the full-time staff and reasonable fines are imposed. In 1928 the fines imposed amounted to Rs. 8,275, the average per case being Rs. 25 and the average per factory Rs. 140. The following table gives a comparison between England and the Bombay Presidency:—

Year.	Number of inspectors.	Number of cases.	Average per inspector.	Total fines.	Average per case.
1927—					
England .. ..	206	1,980	9	£ 4,558	Rs. 30
1928—					
Bombay .. ..	6	326	54	Rs. 8,275	25

The Raver case which, after being three years before the courts, ended in the conviction of the occupiers and manager has had considerable effect on occupiers of mofussil factories and has enhanced the prestige of the Factories Department in these areas.

## XVIII.—Intelligence.

*Existing Statistics—Extent and Use.*—Owing to the existence of a special Labour Office in the Bombay Presidency, the Government of Bombay are in a position to collect and publish a great deal of statistical material directly or indirectly connected with industrial labour. The published material falls into four classes :—(1) Statistics published regularly every month in the *Labour Gazette*; (2) Statistics published in the reports based on the special investigations conducted by the Labour Office; (3) Statistics contained in the reports prepared by heads of departments dealing with the administration of certain Acts relating to labour such as the Factories Act, the Trade Unions Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act; and (4) Statistics regarding retail and wholesale prices published fortnightly and monthly in the *Bombay Government Gazette*.

The following statistics are published in the *Labour Gazette* :—Working-class cost of living index number for Bombay; cost of living index numbers in other countries; wholesale prices index numbers for Bombay, with a chart showing a comparison between the index numbers of wholesale prices in Bombay and Calcutta; wholesale and retail food prices index numbers in other countries; retail prices of food in Bombay; retail prices index numbers of food articles in five centres of the Bombay Presidency; industrial disputes in the Presidency; statistics regarding cases under the Workmen's Compensation Act decided by the various Commissioners in the Presidency; statistics regarding the employment situation, together with figures of absenteeism in the textile and the engineering industries; monthly statistics regarding prosecutions under the Indian Factories Act; statistics of the production of cotton yarn and cloth; four-monthly statistics of accidents; and quarterly statistics regarding trade unions in the Bombay Presidency.

In addition to these statistics, the statistical results of enquiries conducted by the Labour Office which are not of sufficient importance to be incorporated into special reports are published occasionally in the *Labour Gazette*. For instance, the results of the following special enquiries conducted by the Labour Office have been published in the *Labour Gazette* from time to time :—

- (1) Wages of peons in Bombay, 1923.
- (2) Welfare work in Bombay mills, 1924.
- (3) Rentals in Bombay, 1924.
- (4) Maternity cases among women operatives in the Bombay mills, 1924.
- (5) Method of payment of wages, 1925.
- (6) Agricultural wages and prices (1889–1923), 1925.
- (7) Unemployment among the middle classes in Bombay City, 1925.
- (8) Distance between mill operatives' home and place of work, 1925.
- (9) The food of the worker, 1925.
- (10) The condition of the children of Bombay mill operatives, 1925.
- (11) Crèches in Bombay, 1925.
- (12) Ahmedabad working-class rents, 1925.
- (13) Rentals in Bombay for tenements owned by public bodies, 1925.
- (14) Clerical wages in Bombay City—preliminary results of the Labour Office Census, 1926.
- (15) Ahmedabad mill chawls, 1926.
- (16) Crèches in Ahmedabad, 1926.
- (17) Welfare work in the Bombay Presidency—results of the Labour Office Enquiry, 1927.
- (18) House-rents in Ahmedabad, 1927.

The following is a list of special reports published by the Labour Office :—

- (1) Report on an Enquiry into Working-class Budgets in Bombay, 1923.
- (2) Report on an Enquiry into the Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry, 1923.
- (3) Report on an Enquiry into Agricultural Wages in the Bombay Presidency, 1924.
- (4) Report on an Enquiry into the Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry, 1925.
- (5) Report on an Enquiry into Middle-class Unemployment in the Bombay Presidency, 1927.
- (6) Report of the Labour Office Enquiry into Deductions from Wages or Payments in Respect of Fines, 1928.
- (7) Report on an Enquiry into Middle-class Family Budgets in Bombay City, 1928.

(8) Report on an Enquiry into Family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Sholapur City, 1928.

(9) Report on an Enquiry into Working-class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1928.

A report on a wage census in the cotton textile industry in the Bombay Presidency conducted by the Labour Office in the year 1926, will shortly be published.

The industrial unrest in the city during the past eighteen months has seriously affected the work of the Labour Office in this direction. A family budget or any other enquiry based on the sample method cannot be conducted during periods of strikes or when conditions are abnormal.

As regards statistics published in the reports of heads of departments dealing with labour matters, mention may be made of the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for the Bombay Presidency, the report of the Registrar of Trade Unions, and the report of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay.

Retail prices statistics contained in the *Government Gazette* relate to prices of articles consumed by people ordinarily in receipt of an income of not more than Rs. 50 per month and are collected by the Director of Agriculture with the assistance of the district officers. The agency for collecting wholesale prices is the same, although the *Gazette* also contains wholesale prices published by the Chamber of Commerce.

It cannot be said that the existing statistics are widely used. Statistical science is still in its infancy all over the world and much more so in this country. The desire for a scientific use of statistics has not yet developed in this country to the same extent as it has, say, in an Eastern country like Japan. The use of the published statistics is therefore confined to scholars writing books, to committees and commissions appointed to enquire into specific problems, to Government Departments dealing with questions relating to salaries, allowances, etc., and to employers' associations and trade unions when they want to prepare cases on particular subjects.

*Method of Collection.*—Various methods are followed in collecting the data enumerated above. The Bombay Labour Office, for instance, follows three methods : (1) collection of data by the interview method, (2) collection of data by the method of sending circulars, schedules, and questionnaires to various selected bodies and persons, and (3) collection of data from published sources.

As regards (1) the Bombay Labour Office maintains a special investigating staff, including three lady investigators, whose duty it is to collect data by this method. The male investigators at Bombay restrict their investigation work to the collection of retail prices for the cost of living index number, to the verification of the data collected for the wholesale prices index number, to the collection of information regarding trade unions, to the verification of the data regarding strikes and industrial disputes, to making such personal enquiries as may arise in the course of statistical investigations and to the supervision and direction of the work entrusted to the lady investigators. Much of their time is devoted to office work, for they are the only gazetted officers in the department under the director and they are in charge of the various branches into which the work of the office is divided. The investigator at Ahmedabad is a purely investigating officer. He collects data regarding prices, industrial disputes, and trade unions in Ahmedabad and conducts such special investigations as he may be asked to do. The lady investigators attached to the Labour Office have no office work to do and their duty is to make house-to-house visits and to collect data regarding any topic which the Labour Office has decided to enquire into. All the family budget investigations conducted so far by the Labour Office as also such special enquiries as the rent enquiry at Bombay and Ahmedabad, enquiry into maternity cases among women operatives in Bombay mills, enquiry into the condition of children of Bombay mill operatives, etc., were conducted by the lady investigators by visiting the houses of the work-people. In recent investigations the method usually followed is the method of sampling.

It is a matter of considerable controversy as to whether information collected by the interview method for enquiries relating to family budgets, rents, etc., is as accurate as the information collected with the help of schedules filled by the householders. The experience of the Labour Office seems to suggest that the view held by Dr. Royal Meeker, Commissioner of Labour Statistics, U.S.A., that it is possible to get accurate estimates of itemized family expenses by the interview method is correct and that if the investigating staff is sympathetic, tactful, and honest, information can be collected with a fair degree of accuracy by the interview method. And the Labour Office is satisfied that the data which it has collected so far by the interview method is accurate, that is to say, the degree of accuracy reached is as high as such enquiries would permit. As regards (2), it is unnecessary to dwell at any length on the method followed. It will be sufficient to point out here that the schedules received are carefully scrutinized and, in order to test their accuracy,

enquiries are very often made on the spot. Such personal enquiries have been numerous, especially in such important matters as the cotton wage censuses conducted by the Labour Office. As regards (3), the sources usually used are the various market reports and economic and statistical journals. Sometimes information is also collected by letter.

The method followed for compiling the data for the annual administration reports of the various Acts is fairly simple. According to the Rules under the Factories Act, managers of factories are required to furnish to the Inspector of the area in which the factory is situated an annual return in a specified form. The Chief Inspector of Factories compiles his report on the basis of these returns. As regards the report on the administration of the Trade Unions Act, the Act lays down that every registered union shall furnish returns once a year in a specified form. The annual report is based on the tabulation of these returns. As regards the administration report on the Workmen's Compensation Act, the various employers and ex-officio commissioners submit returns in a prescribed form to the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, who compiles his annual report on the basis of these returns.

*Degree of Accuracy.*—In the absence of any well-informed criticism of the statistics published by the Government of Bombay, it is difficult to ascertain the degree of accuracy reached by the statistics published. Taking those published every month in the *Labour Gazette* it would appear that the cost of living index number for Bombay admits of improvement and the Government of Bombay have already under consideration a revision of the index number. This revision would, however, entail a fresh family budget enquiry in Bombay City which cannot be undertaken until there is industrial peace. It is proposed also to revise the wholesale prices index numbers for Bombay and Karachi which are published every month in the *Labour Gazette*, but the revision has been postponed pending consideration by the Government of India of the recommendations of the Economic Enquiry Committee's Report in which it has been suggested that a Central Statistical Bureau should be responsible for the collection of wholesale prices of the chief commodities of commerce. The information regarding industrial disputes which is published every month in the *Labour Gazette* is received from the Commissioner of Police so far as Bombay City is concerned, and from district magistrates from other centres in the Presidency. It is believed that this information is reasonably accurate. The monthly statistics regarding Workmen's Compensation, published in the *Labour Gazette*, can be regarded as quite accurate. As regards information concerning the employment situation and absenteeism, published every month in the *Labour Gazette*, the method of collecting the data is to send round schedules to various factories and concerns which they are asked to fill in. These returns are tabulated by the Labour Office. The returns received cannot be considered to have reached a high degree of accuracy, and the Labour Office is therefore shortly going to make enquiries into the matter to put these statistics on a sounder basis. The statistics published in the reports of the Registrar of Trade Unions, Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, and the Chief Inspector of Factories can be regarded as accurate.

It has already been pointed out that the statistics regarding retail and wholesale prices published in the *Bombay Government Gazette* are supplied to the Director of Agriculture by district officers. The district officers in turn entrust the collection of these data to their subordinates. The result, therefore, is that in spite of the fact that the Director of Agriculture maintains two Prices Inspectors whose duty it is to check the accuracy of the figures, the figures finally published are not as accurate as they should be. The Labour Office receives returns from district officers regarding wages of skilled and unskilled workers in the mofussil. These returns are, however, not published in the *Bombay Government Gazette*. On the basis of these returns the Labour Office has already published a report. Efforts have been made to secure the improvement of these statistics by sending the investigators of the Labour Office into the districts to discuss the returns with the district officers responsible for sending them in.

*Possibility of Improvement in Statistics.*—As regards the possibility of effecting an improvement in the available statistics, the question largely rests on considerations of finance. The matter received detailed and careful consideration at the hands of the Economic Enquiry Committee which was appointed by the Government of India in the year 1925, and published its report in the same year. It suggested that every province should constitute a Statistical Bureau. The proposals of the committee are still under the consideration of the Government of India. It is hoped, however, that as the Bombay Labour Office develops and gets experience it will be possible for it in the course of time not only to collect additional statistics but also to improve those that are now available.

*Nature of Special Investigations Conducted.*—A list of reports incorporating the results of special enquiries conducted by the Labour Office has already been given above. Some of these enquiries were initiated by the Labour Office, while others were undertaken in order to gather comprehensive and up-to-date data for the purpose of legislation relating to labour which was under contemplation by the Government of India. It will be seen from the list of reports published by the Labour Office that four of them relate to family budgets. In Bombay City in 1921–22, 3,076 working-class budgets were collected and the report based on the results thereof was published in 1923. This investigation was followed up by another into the family budgets of middle-class persons in Bombay City. 2,125 budgets were collected, out of which 1,325 were accepted for final tabulation, and the report based on the results was published in the year 1928. The Labour Office also collected 985 budgets of working-class families in Ahmedabad in 1926 and 1,133 budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur in 1925. The reports based on the results of these enquiries have already been published. An enquiry into the social and economic conditions of workers living in tenements, built by the Port Trust for their employees in Bombay City has also been conducted but its results have not yet been published.

Another important topic which the Labour Office has investigated is that of wages in the cotton textile industry in the Bombay Presidency. A census of wages in this industry was conducted by the Labour Office in the year 1921. Another census was conducted in the year 1923, and the last census was conducted in the year 1926, the results of which will be published very shortly. The report of an enquiry into agricultural wages in the Bombay Presidency, which was published in the year 1924, was based mainly on the returns received in the office of the Director of Agriculture and the intention in carrying out the enquiry was to ascertain the variations in agricultural wages from the year 1900 onwards. The enquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respects of fines, the results of which were published in the year 1928, was undertaken in connection with an enquiry addressed to the Local Government by the Government of India.

In addition to the mere numerical statistics regarding family budgets and wages, the Labour Office has conducted enquiries into the more general and less commensurable factors such as utilization of the workers' spare time, industrial welfare, health of the workers, maternity benefits, and all kinds of welfare work. The results of these enquiries have been published from time to time in the *Labour Gazette*.

*Future Developments necessary.*—The statistics most in demand at the present time are those relating to wages and cost of living. It has been the endeavour, therefore, of the Government of Bombay to pay special attention to these two subjects, and the Government of Bombay have already under contemplation the revision of the Bombay working-class cost of living index number and have under preparation a working-class cost of living index number for Ahmedabad and Sholapur. It has also lately, as pointed out above, conducted a wage census for the cotton mill industry, and has also collected data with regard to wage rates in other industries. A wage census, where the information relates to earnings and is compiled from pay rolls, is the best method of dealing with the subject. But this type of enquiry involves an immense amount of labour both in collection and tabulation, and even in England is not often attempted on a large scale. There wage rates, not earnings, are the usual form in which wage statistics are compiled, and then compilation is relatively easy, because they are usually derived from trade agreements. In India such raw material is rarely available and the information has to be obtained from individual firms. The absence of standardization also accounts for the wide variations both in rates and earnings.

As the future developments in connection with labour statistics collected by the Government of Bombay will greatly depend upon the findings of the Commission and their recommendations, it is unnecessary at this stage to express any opinion on the subject. It would be sufficient, if it were pointed out here, that judging from the trend of opinion and events in recent years, in the near future there is likely to be a demand for statistics regarding employment and unemployment, and statistics regarding morbidity among industrial workers. The nature of the statistics to be collected can be determined only when the purpose they are intended to serve is known.

*A Supplementary Note on movements of Wages in recent years in relation to Prices and Cost of Living (Pre-war and Post-war).*

In Chapter X and Appendices IX, X, and XIII of the Memorandum already submitted to the Commission the question of wages is dealt with, but no attempt was made to discuss wages in relation to prices and cost of living. The ascertainment



of real wages at any period requires accurate information as regards pre-war wages and a cost of living index that is unassailable. Those conditions do not exist in Bombay.

The information regarding wages in the textile industry may be recapitulated as follows. In Bombay city the Millowners' Association gave an increase of 15 per cent. in wages to all workers on the 1st January, 1918. This was increased to 35 per cent. on the 1st January, 1919. The next increase granted on the 1st February, 1920, was 20 per cent. extra to male workers on time rates and to female workers both on time and piece rates, and 40 per cent. extra to male operatives on piece rates—the total percentages amounting to 55 and 75 respectively. On the 1st November, 1920, the 55 per cent. was increased to 70 per cent. and the 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. There have been no changes in these percentages since the year 1921. The percentage of the dearness allowances have been maintained right through as a separate item on the muster.

From 1919 a bonus based on the monthly wages earned by the operatives was being paid by the mills in Bombay. This was discontinued in the year 1923.

As regards Ahmedabad, complete information is not available with regard to the changes in the rates of wages in the Ahmedabad mills between the years 1914 to 1923. Prior to 1917 no concerted action was taken by the millowners with regard to granting percentage increases and each mill did as it pleased. The difference in the rates between mill and mill although wide were not very abnormal. From December, 1917 to 1921 the managing committee of the Millowners' Association or the arbitrators or umpires chosen from time to time awarded increments to different departments in different proportions. The warpers obtained an increase of 25 per cent. in their rates in 1917. The weavers were awarded an increase of 35 per cent. in 1918, and spinners were given an increase of 85 per cent. in March, 1919, when the weavers also obtained a further increase. In the beginning of the year 1920, Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai granted an increase of 62½ per cent. in wages to workers in the sizing, calendaring and engineering departments. The same increment was granted to Mochies and the pay of some workers in the cloth folding department was fixed after giving a similar increase. About the same time increases ranging from 60 to 62½ per cent. over the wages of July, 1917, were granted to blacksmiths, to the workers in the yarn bundling department and to some workers in the cloth department. In the same year the hours of work for spinners were reduced from 12 to 10 in consequence of a strike and a further increase of about 40 per cent. was granted to spinners. In order to keep other workers contented, an increase of 40 per cent. was granted to winders and workers in the frame department, 33½ per cent. to weavers, warpers and drawers and 25 per cent. to bobbin carriers, lorrymen, oil men, workers in the blow and card rooms and other low-paid time workers. In 1921, the Arbitrators recommended that blow and card room workers should be granted an increase of 40 per cent. in place of 25 per cent. of the previous year. In the same year Seth Mangaldas granted an increase of 15 per cent. to spinners on account of the high level of house rents and the dearness of food-grains.

In June, 1923, wages in the Ahmedabad mills were reduced by 15.625 per cent. on account of depression in the industry. Since the year 1923, no general changes have been made in rates, but slight changes have been effected in piece rates for certain sorts in particular mills but these changes have not affected the general level of wages to any appreciable extent.

No information with regard to wage movements either in the cotton mills outside Bombay and Ahmedabad or in any other trade or industry is available.

It will be observed that the increases referred to above have been granted on the basis of an increase in prices and in the cost of living, and are still called dearness allowances, but the amount of increase was not based on any existing cost of living index or on any scientific data.

The Bombay Cost of Living Index number for working classes in Bombay city was first published in 1921 and it has several admitted defects.

The method of constructing the index number is, briefly, to take 23 commodities and house-rent, ascertain the prices of given units of those commodities in the base month July, 1914, and the current month, multiply these actual prices in each case by the so-called "mass units," sum the products and reduce to index numbers, taking the sum of the massed expenditure in July, 1914, as 100.

The main objection to this method as here applied is that the mass units are for one population and the prices and the index number for another. The mass units are estimates for the total annual consumption of certain stated commodities in the whole of India for the average of the 5 years 1909–1914, but the prices are the prices of the grades of certain commodities mostly used by the labouring classes in the Bombay City

and the index number is intended to be the index number of the cost of living of that community only. The other objections to the present index are 5 in number, *viz.*, (1) the number of commodities is small; (2) many commodities consumed by the working classes find no place in the index while unimportant commodities such as beef and coal are included; (3) the prices are, in the case of cereals and other food articles, retail prices, but in the case of clothing, coal and kerosine oil, wholesale prices; (4) the base prices for rice, wheat, jowari, and gram are in each case for a quality different from the quality for which current prices are given, and; (5) the method adopted for the index breaks down when applied to rentals.

For the purposes of the index the average of the house rents for only 20 properties in Bombay with an arbitrary maximum of Rs. 25 as a basic rent was taken and this was multiplied by the "mass unit" for the whole of India. Even if the "mass units" were reliable, it would be impossible to arrive at an average rent for the whole of India where the range is from 0 to Rs. 10,000 or more. The rent figure given for 1914 is Rs. 11.30 which certainly was not the average working class rent for July, 1914. As a matter of fact the Labour Office enquiry shows that in 1914 the average rent was about Rs. 3-13-1 pie.

In view of the above objections to the present cost of living index number the Government of Bombay have decided to compile a fresh index number on a new base period using weights ascertained by a family budget enquiry. The strikes of the past two years have made such an investigation impossible, but when normal conditions return the enquiry will be put in hand.

No index numbers for other centres have yet been published, but they are under preparation for Ahmedabad and Sholapur with a post-war base. Attached is a table of Bombay Working Class Cost of Living Index numbers month by month from 1915.

The following note by the late Mr. L. J. Sedgwick, I.C.S., then Director of the Labour Office, in the report on the 1923 cotton wage census (p. 25) will be of interest in considering the question of real wages:—

"I have decided to abandon any idea of arriving at a Real Wages Index Number for the following reasons.

In 1921 the Cost of Living Index Number had been prepared for Bombay only, but was applied to all other centres as well. At the present time also no Cost of Living Index Number is available for any centre other than Bombay. But I am not satisfied that the Index Numbers for other centres would approximate at all closely to the Index Number for Bombay.\* That being so—even assuming that the Bombay Cost of Living Index Number is really satisfactory—the denominator of the fraction in the formula might easily be as much as 30 or more points in excess or defect for centres other than Bombay.

The average earnings in the present Report have, as already explained in paragraphs 12 and 13 above, been arrived at by a method different from the method used for 1914 and 1921 in the last Report. Consequently the Wage Index Numbers appearing in the numerator of the fraction in the formula for 1914 and 1921 on the one hand and 1923 on the other would not be based on the same facts.

It seems far better to abstain from publishing Index Numbers which may be used as valid arguments for change in wages policy either by employers or employees than to publish such Index Numbers when they may be many points out, and when their proportions as against one another may be quite incorrect.

The present average earnings being based on more complete and better returns, and being arrived at after allowance for absenteeism, *may* perhaps form a sound basis of comparison at the next enquiry. And, if in the meanwhile Cost of Living Index Numbers can be constructed for the various centres, it *may* be possible to use 1923 as a base in estimating changes of real wages in subsequent years. But, with the data before us, it will never be possible to use either 1914 or 1921 as a base for real Wage Index Numbers, although this does not imply that for *other* purposes the 1921 enquiry was not of value.†

\* The U.S.A. Department of Labour's Cost of Living Index Numbers for June, 1924 (on base December, 1914) for 19 Cities in the U.S.A. ranged from 153 to 182, and the Austrian Department of Statistics Cost of Living Index Numbers for July, 1924 (base believed to be July, 1914) for the 9 principal States in Austria ranged from 150.4 to 183.1, both of which show that rise of prices in various centres of the same country is by no means equal.

† It may be objected to the preceding paragraphs that the Labour Office ought not to be able to criticise its own past work as inaccurate. To this I have to reply that the Labour Office is a research office, and there is nothing diplomatic about research. All research bureaux are bound from time to time to revise their methods. The best known instance is that of the U.S.A. Labour Bureau—one of the most efficient in the world—which in 1914 entirely changed its method of constructing a Wholesale Prices Index, condemned the old method and explained and justified the new one.

*Bombay Working Class Cost of Living Index Numbers by Months.*

Month.	1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.
January .. ..	107	115	120	134	182	183	169	173	156	159	157	155	156	154	149
February .. ..	107	109	117	134	176	181	162	165	155	156	157	154	155	148	148
March .. ..	106	108	113	136	172	177	160	165	154	154	159	155	155	145	149
April .. ..	104	106	112	144	167	172	160	162	156	150	158	153	153	144	148
May .. ..	103	105	111	147	168	173	167	163	153	150	156	153	152	147	147
June .. ..	104	107	116	148	174	181	173	163	152	153	154	155	154	146	147
July .. ..	104	108	118	149	186	190	177	165	158	157	157	157	156	147	148
August .. ..	106	109	120	153	179	191	180	164	154	161	152	155	157	146	149
September ..	110	109	120	165	172	192	185	165	154	161	151	155	154	145	149
October .. ..	113	109	121	175	174	193	183	162	152	161	153	155	151	146	—
November .. .	112	113	127	175	173	186	182	160	153	161	153	154	150	147	—
December .. .	113	116	129	183	174	181	179	161	157	160	155	156	151	148	—
Annual average..	107	110	119	154	175	183	173	164	154	157	155	155	154	147	—

## APPENDIX I

*Nature of Accommodation provided by Employers.*

Locality.	Firm.	Nature of housing.	Rents.	Remarks.
Bombay	Municipality	Line system and semi-detached houses.	—	—
Do.	Colaba Land and Mill Company.	184 rooms, average 10' x 11' chawl system.	Ra. 4-Ra. 6..	Verandahs, latrine accommodation line chawls built about 6 years ago. No difficulty in letting the accommodation to the mill hands. Mill is isolated in Colaba.
		226 rooms, 13' 10" x 12' 8" in lines of 26.	Ra. 6 ..	
Do.	Bomanji Petit Mill..	157 rooms, 12' x 10' with kitchen, 4' x 10'.	Ra. 2-8-0-Ra. 3.	Flush latrines water supply on each floor. No difficulty in letting to employees—waiting list Chawl system.
Do.	Manockji Petit Mill	150, 12' x 10' with kitchen, 4' x 10'. 217, 10' x 10'.	Old Ra. 2-Ra. 3. New Ra. 4-Ra. 4-8-0.	150 new chawls flush latrines. 97 old—flush latrines. 120 old—basket system. All occupied.
Do.	Victoria Mill ..	30, 10' x 10' ..	Ra. 7-8-0 ..	Flush latrines three storied chawl.
Do.	Assur Veerjee Mill..	148, 10' x 11' ..	Ra. 6 ..	Basket system few rooms vacant and some let to outsiders. (Chawl near Railway line.)
Do.	Tata Mill .. ..	6 blocks, two storied buildings 161, single rooms, 10' x 12'. 1 block, two storied, 20 double rooms.	Ra. 3-8-0 .. Ra. 10-Ra. 13	Flush latrines and washing accommodation. Flush latrines and washing accommodation. All occupied.
Do.	Kohinoor Mill ..	10, 3 storied blocks, 618 single rooms, 10' x 12', 183 double 12' x 14'.	Single, Ra. 6-8-0— Double, Ra. 12.	Built in 1921 at a cost of 13½ lakhs. About 250 rooms normally vacant. Attributed to Bombay Development chawls. Irrecoverable rent per year Ra. 9,000. Bathing places and flush latrines.
Do.	Morarji Goculdas Mill	4 storied block verandah, 28 rooms, 10' x 10'. 2 storied block, 32 rooms, 12' 9" x 11' 6". Single line 22 rooms, 12' x 12'.	Ra. 5-8-0 single. Rs. 10-8-0 double.	Seven rooms let to outsiders. Flush latrines and bathing arrangements, workers apparently not very appreciative and further building abandoned.
Do.	Dinshaw Petit Mill..	3 storied block, 98 rooms 56 rooms in lines back to back.	Ra. 2 .. Ra. 5 ..	Rooms in demand. Flush latrines and washing accommodation.
Do.	Century Mill ..	19 lines, ground floor, back to back of 24 rooms in each—456, 10' x 11' verandah.	Ra. 5 ..	A good housing scheme flush latrines, washing accommodation, shops, school. In good demand.
Do.	Bombay Dyeing and Manufacturing Co. (Textile Mill.)	216 rooms—94 single line system, 9½' x 11½', 26 back to back, 9½' x 10', 96 —2 floored chawl, 10½ x 9½.	Ra. 2-8-0 ..	Utilised to fullest extent.
Do.	Bombay Dyeing and Manufacturing Co. (Spring Mill.)	504 rooms—8, three storied chawls, Development and Improvement Trust principle, 12' x 10'. 144 line quarters in six lines, 10' x 12'.	Ra. 5 ..	New housing scheme.

## APPENDIX I—continued.

Locality.	Firm.	Nature of housing.	Rents.	Remarks.
Bombay ..	Bombay Dyeing and Manufacturing Co. (Dye Works.)	96 rooms, line system back to back.	Ra. 2.	
Do. ..	E. D. Sassoon & Co. (David Mill.)	255, 16½' x 14' .. 9, 12' x 12' ..	Ra. 7 .. Ra. 5 ..	Fully occupied.
Do. ..	Jacob Sassoon Mill	180, 16' x 10' ..	Ra. 4-9-0 ..	
Do. ..	Meyer Sassoon Mill	16, 10' 7" x 10' 11" 28, C.I. rooms, varying sizes.	Ra. 3-13-0. Ra. 4-12-0. Ra. 9-6-0.	
Kuria ..	Swadeshi Mill ..	693—164, 10' x 10' verandah, 4' x 10'. 90, 12' x 10' verandah, 4' x 10'. 164, 12' x 10' verandah, 4' x 10'. 165, 14' x 12' passage, 8' x 10'. 110, double rooms, 10' x 10' and 10' x 8' with 4' verandah.	Ra. 3 .. Ra. 3-12-0. Double. Ra. 5-9-0.	
Ahmedabad ..	—	About 3,800 rooms have been erected for the workers in the textile industry.	—	Generally built on line system.
Sholapur ..	Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Company.	727 rooms in 8 blocks, line system.	2 per cent. on capital.	Single and double rooms
Do. ..	Narsinggirji Mill ..	240 single and double rooms, 14' x 10' 9".	Ra. 4 per double room.	Designed by Consulting Surveyor to Government.
Do. ..	Laxmi and Vahnoo Mills.	400 rooms, lines, 12½' x 9½' (12 double rooms).	Ra. 1-8-0. Ra. 4.	
Do. ..	Jam Mill .. ..	159 rooms, 12½' x 9½', 12½' x 7½' lines.	Ra. 1-8-0— Ra. 3.	
Barri ..	Barri Spinning and Weaving Mill.	Line system, 183 rooms, 12' x 10' brick buildings.	Ra. 1 to Ra. 1-9-0.	
Do. ..	Lohamanya Mill ..	38 C. I. rooms, 10' x 9½'.	Ra. 2 ..	New Mill.
Do. ..	Jayabankar Mill ..	30 C. I. rooms, 10' x 9'.	Ra. 2 ..	New Mill.
Dhulia ..	New Pratap Mills..	Line system, in blocks of six or seven.	—	Designed by Surveyor to Government.
Amalner, Chalgaoon, Jalgaon, Broach, Gohak.	All mills .. ..	Generally on line system.	—	—
Nasik ..	Government Security Press.	An excellent housing scheme. Details in Chief Inspector of Factories' Report, 1927.	—	—
Do. ..	Government Central Distillery.	A good housing scheme for all employees.	—	Some quarters line system.
Mahad ..	Braithwaite & Company.	218, single line, 12' x 10' with 4' wide verandah.	Ra. 4 ..	2-3 persons per room. Basket system. 150 occupied.
Ambernath ..	Factories ..	Provide housing on line system.	—	—
Thana ..	Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. (Raymond Woollen Mill).	126 rooms, 11' x 10', line system.	Ra. 3 ..	Fully occupied.

## APPENDIX

## Deaths by Causes and Occupations

Nature of Occupation.	Causes of								
	All causes.	Pulmonary Tuberculosis.	Cancer.	Rheumatic Fever.	Gout.	Diabetes.	Alcoholism.	Phosphorus (Lead Poisoning).	Diseases of the Nervous system.
<i>Production of Raw Materials—</i>									
<i>Class A (I and II).</i>									
Mines, Metallic minerals, coal, etc., and Petroleum wells.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Quarries of hard rocks . . . . .	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Salt works, extraction of saltpetre, alum, etc.	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
<i>III.—Industry.</i>									
Textiles, cotton mills, workers in cotton	70	4	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Jute spinning, weaving, etc. . . . .	59	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rope, twine, and string making, workers in other fibres.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Woolen mills, blankets, carpets, etc. . .	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workers in silk and hair (camel, horse, etc.).	6	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dyeing, bleaching, calico printing, etc. . .	19	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other textiles and millhands, weavers, etc., insufficiently described.	1,314	66	2	—	—	1	—	8	—
Furriers, workers in leather, bone, etc. . .	26	4	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Sawyers, carpenters, basket makers, etc.	189	24	1	—	—	—	—	1	1
Workers in iron, makers of guns, etc. . .	52	2	1	—	—	—	—	1	1
Workers in brass, copper and bell metal	19	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Workers in lead, quicksilver and other metals.	56	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workers in mints, die-sinkers, etc. . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workers in ceramics, glass, pottery porcelain, bricks, etc.	21	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of matches and explosives . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of aerated waters and ice . . .	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of dyes, paints and ink . . .	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making, refining vegetable and mineral oils.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of paper, papier mâché, etc. . .	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of soap, candles, perfumes, drugs	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Bakers, butchers, fish curers, flour-grinders, makers of other food.	49	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brewers, distillers, toddy drawers . . .	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Making of tobacco, opium and ganja . .	110	17	2	—	—	—	—	—	3
Tailors, etc., makers of umbrellas, boots, hats and other articles of dress.	202	21	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Washing, cleaning and dyeing clothes . .	112	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Barbers and other industries connected with the toilet.	47	3	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Furniture, cabinet, tent makers, carriage painters, upholsterers, etc.	10	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Building industries, lime burners, excavators, stone cutters, etc.	58	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
House decorators, builders, painters, plumbers, tilers, etc.	49	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Makers of vehicles, ships, aeroplanes etc.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gas works and electric light . . . . .	21	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Printers, lithographers, engravers, etc.	62	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Book-binders, makers of musical instruments, clocks, etc.	29	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workers in jewellery, necklaces, toys, etc.	36	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Employees (not actors) in theatres, race-courses, contractors, etc.	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Sweepers, scavengers, etc. . . . .	163	17	1	—	—	—	—	—	1
<i>IV.—Transport.</i>									
Persons (not makers) concerned with aerodromes and aeroplanes.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons employed in transport by water	145	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Persons employed on construction, etc., of roads and bridges.	18	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1
Managers and employers connected with vehicles.	27	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bullocks, ass, etc., owners and drivers . .	184	10	1	—	—	—	—	—	4
Porters and messengers . . . . .	12	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Railway employees (other than labourers)	117	5	2	—	—	1	—	—	11
Labourers and coolies on railways . . .	133	8	1	—	—	—	—	—	1
Post, Telegraph and Telephone services	35	2	—	—	—	2	—	—	—

II

in 1927—Bombay City

Death.													Population by the Census of 1921.			
Valvular Disease of the Heart.	Aneurysm.	Other diseases of the Circulatory system.*	Disease of the Respiratory system.	Hernia.	Disease of the Liver.	Other Diseases of the Digestive System.*	Bright's Disease.	Other Diseases of the Urinary System.	Suicide.	Accidents.	All other Causes.	Death-rate per 1,000 of actual workers by the Census of 1921.	Actual workers.	Dependents.		
1												90.6	92	185		
												7.5	44	46		
													410	172		
													125,663	48,999		
													162	184		
													277	144		
												10.9	149	64		
													135	507		
													1,749	1,499		
													5,855	3,458		
													3,062	2,104		
												9.1	21,364	19,113		
												8.8	7,935	6,128		
												6.5	927	940		
												26.1	1,800	1,338		
													145	160		
												14.0	1,495	1,004		
													356	90		
													23.8	84	35	
													10.4	96	42	
														139	69	
													58.6	17		
													38.0	105	91	
													22.4	2,188	1,527	
													16.8	631	708	
													26.6	4,143	1,376	
													12.2	16,602	11,919	
													39	5,575	2,572	
													19	4,626	2,865	
													2	34.8	287	341
													27	8.4	6,891	3,239
													16	25.7	1,908	1,736
														354	237	
													4	1,001	948	
													20	21.6	2,875	2,473
													10	28.5	1,018	964
													12	7.6	4,775	4,197
													4	44.0	341	652
													58	28.6	6,061	3,628
														11	2	
														4.7	31,048	8,482
														9	611	246
														9	6,996	5,636
														4	5,310	5,362
														4	591	133
														4	12,957	12,577
														1	6,704	4,641
														6	3,297	3,046

in preceding column.

**APPENDIX V.—(Abridged).**  
*Co-operative Societies among Industrial Labouring Classes.*

	Numbers.	Number of members.	Loans due by Individuals.	Share Capital paid.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund.	Working Capital.
			Ra.	Ra.	Members.	Non-members.		
Mill-hands' Credit Societies (Bombay and Suburbs).	72	4,406	1,17,434	73,135	16,257	18,481	32,683	1,40,713
Co-operative Credit Societies of Labouring classes working in mills, municipality, etc.	30	2,729	1,51,644	1,16,764	30,346	9,167	26,054	1,86,567
Consumers' Society for mill-hands.	1	257	—	322	—	3,375	409	4,106
Producers' Society for mill-hands.	1	128	493	647	—	—	—	647
Mill-hands' Credit Societies (Mofussil).	5	1,754	1,83,099	29,156	1,45,212	21,743	15,785	2,23,891
<b>Grand Total ..</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>9,274</b>	<b>4,52,670</b>	<b>2,20,024</b>	<b>1,91,815</b>	<b>52,766</b>	<b>74,931</b>	<b>5,55,924</b>

**APPENDIX VI.—(Abridged).**

*Statement of Accidents in the following Industries and Compensation paid for them from 1924 (six months) to 31st December, 1928.*

Year.	Reference to clause of sch. II.	Accidents resulting in			Compensation paid for			No of cases where employers were insured.
		Death.	Permanent disablement.	Temporary disablement.	Death.	Permanent disablement.	Temporary disablement.	
<b>Rs. a. p.</b>								
<b>(1) Railway Servants.</b>								
1924 ..		2	—	—	3,250 0 0	—	—	—
1925 ..		41	7	—	29,650 0 0	3,894 10 0	—	—
1926 ..		70	23	—	55,285 0 0	12,140 13 9	—	—
1927 ..		65	49	—	40,435 0 0	17,928 10 0	—	19
1928 ..		56	55	3	44,560 0 0	20,707 8 0	292 8 0	23
<b>Total ..</b>		<b>234</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1,73,180 0 0</b>	<b>54,666 9 9</b>	<b>292 8 0</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>(2) Textile Mills (including Dyeing and Bleaching).</b>								
1924 ..	(ii)	38	21	8	30,380 0 0	7,782 14 2	163 1 6	60
1925 ..	"	23	109	4	12,150 0 0	32,429 14 9	545 0 0	94
1926 ..	"	18	179	3	13,160 0 0	33,646 9 0	176 4 0	170
1927 ..	"	42	183	1	35,303 0 0	37,277 8 2	19 1 0	169
1928 ..	"	17	160	4	15,090 0 0	33,973 0 0	330 0 0	119
<b>Total ..</b>		<b>138</b>	<b>652</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>1,06,083 0 0</b>	<b>1,45,109 14 1</b>	<b>1,233 6 6</b>	<b>612</b>
<b>(3) Factories (other than Textile Mills and Railway Workshops).</b>								
1924 ..	(ii)	1	—	—	1,050 0 0	404 4 0	—	2
1925 ..	"	15	27	4	15,507 8 0	10,155 4 0	141 9 4	18
1926 ..	"	9	34	4	12,615 0 0	9,449 2 0	212 8 0	23
1927 ..	"	17	50	—	15,430 0 0	13,094 4 5	—	24
1928 ..	"	14	64	—	16,280 0 0	20,919 7 2	—	40
<b>Total ..</b>		<b>56</b>	<b>178</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>60,882 8 0</b>	<b>54,022 5 7</b>	<b>354 1 4</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>(4) Railway Workshops.</b>								
1924 ..	(ii)	—	—	—	7,800 0 0	3,224 5 0	—	—
1925 ..	"	7	5	—	7,900 0 0	3,224 5 0	—	—
1926 ..	"	3	16	1	1,500 0 0	8,811 6 0	252 0 0	—
1927 ..	"	3	30	—	1,367 8 0	9,349 1 0	—	—
1928 ..	"	7	18	—	5,400 0 0	7,236 11 0	—	—
<b>Total ..</b>		<b>19</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>16,067 8 0</b>	<b>28,621 7 0</b>	<b>252 0 0</b>	<b>—</b>
<b>Total, 1924-1928.</b>								
Railway servants.	—	234	134	3	1,73,180 0 0	54,666 9 9	292 8 0	47
Tramways ..	(i)	6	4	—	6,450 0 0	2,352 0 0	—	—
Textile Mills	(ii)	138	652	20	1,06,083 0 0	1,45,109 14 1	1,233 6 6	612
Factories (other than Textile Mills and Railway Workshops)	"	56	178	8	60,882 8 0	54,022 5 7	354 1 4	107
Railway Workshops	"	19	69	1	16,067 8 0	28,621 7 0	252 0 0	—
Mines and Quarries	iii	8	2	—	4,500 0 0	604 0 0	—	—
Seamen ..	(iv)	18	10	1	22,375 0 0	4,466 6 0	343 12 0	—
Loading and unloading ships.	(v)	16	22	4	12,007 8 0	9,504 4 0	150 0 0	10
Buildings and Bridges.	(vi)	26	5	—	22,870 0 0	556 14 0	—	5
Electric Cables over head).	(vii)	15	14	1	15,067 8 0	4,753 4 0	27 2 0	26
Sewers ..	(viii)	5	—	—	3,150 0 0	—	—	—
Port Trust	—	14	10	2	13,300 0 0	6,979 8 0	610 0 0	—
<b>Total ..</b>		<b>580</b>	<b>1,100</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>4,55,953 0 0</b>	<b>3,11,636 8 11</b>	<b>3,262 13 10</b>	<b>807</b>



*Statement of Accidents dealt with by the Ex-Officio Commissioners in the Presidency from 1926 to 31st December, 1928.*

Year.	Accidents* resulting in			Compensation paid for		
	Death	Perman-ent disable-ment.	Tempo-rary disable-ment.	Death.	Permanent disablement.	Tempo-rary disable-ment.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1926 ..	19	23	5	Rs. a. p. 13,721 0 0	Rs. a. p. 4,463 8 2	Rs. —
1927 ..	28	36	4	15,087 8 0	13,577 10 0	—
1928 ..	30	32	7	21,966 3 6	21,813 10 0	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>50,784 11 6</b>	<b>39,854 12 2</b>	<b>—</b>

Amount shown in column 6 represents the amount of compensation deposited and that agreed upon under agreements registered.

\* Excludes 31 accidents, dealt with in 1924-25, for which figures of compensation are not available.

## APPENDIX VII.

*Number of persons in each wage class to whom compensation was awarded each year during the period from 1924 (six months) to 31st December, 1928.*

—		Assumed wage (see Schedule IV).	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	Total number
Adults	..	Rs. a. p. 8 0 0	—	2	—	4	1	7
		10 0 0	1	3	1	—	3	8
		12 0 0	—	3	2	7	3	15
		15 4 0	7	34	17	31	19	108
		20 0 0	9	57	38	45	46	195
		25 0 0	27	58	52	66	55	258
		30 0 0	8	32	23	32	33	128
		35 0 0	9	22	14	24	22	91
		40 0 0	3	18	14	17	17	69
		46 4 0	2	11	11	17	20	61
		55 0 0	2	14	6	12	9	43
65 0 0	}	8	30	16	13	19	86	
75 0 0								
83 5 4								
<b>Total Adults ..</b>			<b>76</b>	<b>284</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>268</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>1,069</b>
Minors	..	Rs. a. p. 8 0 0	1	2	1	1	1	6*
		10 0 0	—	3	—	2	—	5
		12 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	—
		15 4 0	—	—	—	1	—	1
		20 0 0	—	—	—	1	—	1
		25 0 0	—	—	1	—	—	1
<b>Total Minors ..</b>			<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>Grand Total ..</b>			<b>77</b>	<b>289</b>	<b>196</b>	<b>273</b>	<b>248</b>	<b>1,083</b>

\* Of these six, five were fatal accident cases for which no wage-class could be given as compensation in case of a minor is limited to Rs. 200 only and is not based on wages.

## APPENDIX

*Intervals, Holidays,*

District.	Number of								
	Total	In which intervals are			In which holidays are		In which normal		
		Granted under			Granted on		For Men		
		Section 21 (1) (c)	Section 21 (1) (d)	Proviso to 21 (1) (e)	Sundays only	Weak-days and Sundays	Not above 48	Above 48 and not above 54	Above 54
Bombay .. ..	374	309	1	13	113	246	94	68	207
Ahmedabad ..	166	151	—	—	5	155	3	2	157
Brosch .. ..	52	50	—	—	4	48	—	1	51
Kaira .. ..	19	18	—	—	8	11	—	—	19
Panch Mahals ..	13	9	—	—	1	11	2	1	9
Surat .. ..	52	48	—	1	7	44	4	4	48
Thana .. ..	9	9	—	—	5	4	3	—	6
Bombay Suburban	27	22	—	—	2	22	1	6	18
East Khandesh ..	166	158	—	—	30	133	3	6	155
West Khandesh ..	74	65	—	—	5	69	1	1	72
Nasik .. ..	29	27	1	—	9	19	5	5	19
Poona .. ..	33	29	—	1	13	17	17	5	11
Sholapur .. ..	46	44	—	—	2	43	1	1	44
Ahmednagar ..	57	29	—	—	12	37	16	7	27
Satara .. ..	2	2	—	—	—	2	—	1	1
Belgaum .. ..	38	37	—	—	7	31	6	3	29
Bijapur .. ..	39	38	—	—	19	20	2	2	35
Dharwar .. ..	108	103	—	—	18	86	7	3	96
Kolaba .. ..	7	4	—	—	—	4	—	1	6
Kanara .. ..	3	3	—	—	3	—	—	3	—
Ratnagiri .. ..	2	2	—	—	—	2	—	2	—
Hyderabad ..	20	19	—	—	3	16	2	—	18
Karachi .. ..	52	33	3	—	14	30	10	13	26
Sukkur .. ..	21	19	1	—	6	15	10	1	10
Thar and Parkar ..	13	13	—	—	2	11	—	—	13
Nawabshah ..	21	21	—	—	7	14	2	—	19
Upper Sind Frontier	5	5	—	—	1	4	—	—	6
Larkana .. ..	50	47	—	—	17	30	23	—	19
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>1,496</b>	<b>1,314</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>313</b>	<b>1,124</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>1,115</b>
<b>Total for the year 1927.</b>	<b>1,426</b>	<b>1,276</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>1,082</b>	<b>185</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>1,065</b>
<b>Total for the year 1926.</b>	<b>1,398</b>	<b>1,232</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>286</b>	<b>1,019</b>	<b>175</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>1,045</b>

VIII.

and Hours.

Factories.													Remarks.
weekly hours are						Ex- emp- ted from	In which majority of operatives are exempted from.						
For Women			For Children				Section 24 (a)	Section 31	Section 23	Section 26	Section 27	Section 28	
Not above 48	Above 48 and not above 54	Above 54	Not above 20	Above 20									
36	76	84	8	18	—	—	46	10	—	—	3	100	Five factories did not furnish information.
4	1	136	46	6	—	—	11	2	—	—	2	80	
—	1	48	9	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	One factory did not furnish information. Do.
—	—	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	
—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	Two factories did not furnish information. Do.
7	7	37	2	1	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	7	
—	—	5	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	Two factories did not furnish information. Do.
—	6	12	3	10	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	7	
3	44	112	4	1	—	—	6	1	—	—	—	8	Seven factories did not furnish information.
—	—	72	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	
—	—	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	Two factories did not furnish information.
—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	
—	—	46	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	Seven factories did not furnish information.
—	—	18	1	—	—	—	21	1	—	—	—	—	
—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	Two factories did not furnish information.
—	4	23	2	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	3	
—	4	31	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Two factories did not furnish information.
—	1	94	2	1	—	—	3	2	—	—	2	7	
—	—	2	1	1	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	10	—	—	—	—	13	1	—	—	—	4	
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Three factories did not furnish information.
—	—	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Thirty factories did not furnish information.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
112	166	606	64	63	—	—	133	31	—	—	22	366	Thirty factories did not furnish information.
107	167	777	66	102	—	—	130	36	—	—	19	361	
108	148	747	106	116	—	—	86	26	—	—	—	—	

APPENDIX IX.  
Average Daily Earnings in Cotton Mills.  
Men.

Department and Occupation.	Bombay.			Ahmedabad.			Sholapur.		
	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1926.	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1926.	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1926.
<i>Mixing and Waste Room—</i>	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jobbers and Mukadams.	Time .. 1 10 5	1 10 5	1 9 5	1 1 0	1 4 8	1 2 7	0 14 1	1 0 8	0 13 10
Nawghanias	Time .. 1 2 2	1 2 9	1 2 2	0 11 9	0 15 8	0 14 7	0 11 4	0 12 8	0 12 5
<i>Blow Room—</i>									
Jobbers	Time .. 3 6 8	3 10 9	3 8 8	1 13 7	2 1 11	2 6 5	1 14 3	1 12 6	—
Assistant Jobbers	Time .. 1 15 4	1 13 4	1 12 10	1 3 6	1 1 0	1 10 6	1 9 3	1 5 3	1 8 4
Machine Attendants.	Time .. 0 14 9	0 14 10	0 15 2	0 12 11	0 14 10	0 13 10	0 10 10	0 11 0	0 11 4
<i>Carding Room—</i>									
Jobbers	Time .. 4 8 10	4 8 2	4 6 2	2 4 9	2 10 10	2 10 1	2 10 5	2 11 11	3 0 2
Assistant Jobbers	Time .. 2 2 7	2 1 10	2 3 9	7 11 1	9 3 1	12 11 1	1 5 3	1 4 3	1 13 1
Grinders	Time .. 1 0 9	1 2 1	0 5 1	0 5 1	1 2 1	2 4 10	1 15 0	1 15 0	0 11 11
Strippers	Time .. 0 15 11	0 15 10	0 10 13	0 13 8	0 14 7	0 14 3	0 11 6	0 11 10	0 13 2
Lap carriers	Time .. 0 13 11	0 13 5	0 14 5	0 13 5	0 13 8	0 14 1	0 11 4	0 11 2	0 11 1
Fly Coolies	Time .. 0 13 5	0 13 7	0 14 1	0 12 10	0 14 1	0 12 10	0 10 1	0 10 8	0 10 5
<i>Drawing Frames—</i>									
Jobbers	Time .. 3 4 9	2 12 3	3 7 5	2 1 3	2 0 4	1 10 6	2 6 1	3 4 1	5 11 11
Tenters	Time .. 2 6 11	3 4 3	8 2 1	4 7 2	1 0 3	1 1 3	0 11 2	0 11 9	12 7 10
<i>Slubbing and Intermediate Roving Frames—</i>									
Head Jobbers	Time .. 4 15 1	4 15 5	5 4 3	6 3 0	0 3 5	2 3 10	3 2 5	9 2 8	4 —
Assistant Jobbers	Time .. 2 11 11	2 12 4	2 3 5	1 12 8	2 12 7	1 7 14	10 1 7	1 13 5	1 12 5
Slubbing Frame Tenters	Time .. 0 15 7	1 6 6	1 3 10	0 13 5	—	—	2 5 11	2 9 4	—
Intermediate Frame Tenters	Time .. 1 5 0	1 2 1	1 3 0	0 13 5	0 12 11	1 4 7	—	0 11 8	0 11 6
Roving Frame Tenters	Time .. 1 5 1	1 3 1	1 4 6	1 3 0	1 5 1	1 1 2	0 13 2	0 12 3	0 12 9
Ring Spinning—									
Head Jobbers	Time .. 5 2 8	4 12 4	4 11 3	0 0 3	6 7 3	10 3 3	0 6 2	14 7 —	—
Assistant Jobbers	Time .. 2 12 10	2 11 8	2 7 5	1 13 3	2 0 4	1 9 4	1 14 0	1 15 4	14 8 8
Doffer Jobbers	Time .. 1 10 4	1 12 6	1 14 4	1 7 7	1 2 1	1 4 8	1 13 7	1 5 5	2 1 4
Banders	Time .. 1 1 8	1 3 4	1 2 2	1 7 1	1 1 1	1 2 7	0 12 11	0 15 8	1 1 8
Siders	Time .. 1 0 3	1 0 4	1 0 3	0 14 2	0 15 6	0 15 2	0 11 4	0 11 10	11 5 —
Doffer Boys	Time .. 0 12 10	0 12 8	0 12 10	0 13 7	0 10 1	0 10 7	0 7 5	—	0 8 1
Tarwallas or Followers.	Time .. 0 13 11	0 14 4	0 15 5	0 11 6	0 11 10	—	0 7 8	0 8 2	—
<i>Winding—</i>									
Pirn Winders	Time .. 1 3 0	0 13 9	0 15 6	0 11 10	0 13 7	0 15 3	0 8 0	0 7 10	0 7 10
<i>Warping—</i>									
Warpers	Time .. 1 12 8	1 9 1	1 13 10	1 11 6	1 12 1	1 2 5	1 4 0	0 14 6	—
Croelers	Time .. 0 12 11	0 12 11	0 13 2	0 13 6	0 14 1	0 10 7	0 9 5	0 10 9	9 8
<i>Sizing—</i>									
Front Sizers	Time .. 3 3 6	2 11 3	1 8 1	1 15 1	1 14 0	1 13 7	1 15 3	1 14 10	1 9 9
Back Sizers	Time .. 2 14 6	2 15 0	2 15 9	1 14 8	1 12 1	—	—	—	—
<i>Drawing-in—</i>									
Head Jobbers	Time .. 2 10 8	2 12 4	3 5 2	1 4 1	1 11 1	1 1 0	1 14 11	1 11 10	1 8 3
Drawers	Time .. 1 8 3	1 12 1	1 13 4	1 8 3	1 6 8	1 13 1	1 4 2	1 5 10	1 5 2
Head and Reed Repairs.	Time .. 1 3 11	1 2 1	1 3 4	0 14 6	1 1 3	1 1 1	0 12 1	0 11 3	0 10 7
<i>Weaving—</i>									
Head Jobbers	Time .. 6 15 0	6 7 6	6 7 4	14 11 5	7 2 5	15 7 2	4 1 1	15 10 —	—
Line Jobbers	Time .. 3 5 3	3 11 8	2 10 12	14 11 2	14 3 1	13 3 1	1 8 1	11 10 —	—
<i>Weavers—</i>									
Two Looms	Time .. 1 10 2	1 11 3	1 13 4	1 10 1	1 10 5	1 13 5	1 7 6	1 9 4	1 9 9
Four Looms	Time .. 2 9 1	2 9 3	2 14 2	2 10 5	1 13 8	—	—	3 13 7	3 6 9
<i>Calendering—</i>									
Head Jobbers	Time .. 2 10 4	2 12 0	2 12 2	1 11 8	1 15 4	2 6 4	1 14 9	1 2 1	—
Assistant Jobbers	Time .. 1 13 9	1 11 10	1 10 1	8 0 1	2 5 1	6 0 1	9 0 —	—	—
Front Calendermen	Time .. 1 1 4	1 6 1	1 2 0	14 8 0	14 7 0	14 0 0	11 7 0	10 10 —	—
Back Calendermen	Time .. 0 15 6	0 15 3	0 0 14	3 0 14	4 0 14	5 0 10	9 0 10	4 —	—

APPENDIX IX—contd.

Average Daily Earnings in Cotton Mills—contd.

Men—contd.

Department and Occupation.	Bombay.			Ahmedabad.			Sholapur.		
	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1928.	May 1921.	August 1923.	May 1928.	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1928.
<i>Yarn Bundling and Baling—</i>	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Scalesmen .. Time ..	1 3 4	1 2 4	1 3 2	0 14 9	1 2 1	1 0 10	0 10 3	0 10 9	0 11 1
.. Piece ..	1 12 10	1 8 3	1 4 0	—	1 0 1	—	1 0 4	0 12 10	—
Knotters .. Time ..	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 3 10	1 3 3	1 1 3	0 15 7	0 9 5	0 12 8	0 12 0
.. Piece ..	1 9 0	1 5 1	1 1 2	2 5 1	2 2 1	2 0 0	0 13 11	0 12 6	0 14 11
Pressers .. Time ..	1 4 9	1 7 2	1 1 10	2 9 1	2 0 1	1 2	—	0 14 1	0 13 4
.. Piece ..	1 12 11	1 8 6	1 4 2	1 6 0	1 0 0	—	0 15 3	0 13 10	1 1 5
Bundle Wrappers Time ..	0 13 7	0 13 7	0 5 0	14 2 0	12 8 0	14 0 0	0 8 1	0 9 5	0 10 11
.. Piece ..	1 1 7	0 15 3	1 7 2	1 9 10	2 0 0	—	0 11 2	0 10 8	0 8 11
<i>Cloth Folding, Baling, and Finishing—</i>									
Head Jobbers .. Time ..	2 11 11	2 12 10	3 6 11	1 7 5	1 6 4	1 7 6	2 7 2	2 4 6	2 5 0
Front Folders .. Time ..	0 15 1	0 15 8	0 15 9	1 5 1	1 6 0	1 5 9	1 1 9	0 13 6	0 11 10
Back Folders .. Time ..	0 14 11	0 15 0	0 15 0	1 6 0	1 5 2	0 15 1	0 11 6	0 11 3	0 11 1
Bundlers .. Time ..	0 14 10	0 15 3	0 1 0	10 14 4	0 14 3	0 13 9	9 0 7	9 10 10	4 0 4
Stampers .. Time ..	1 1 5	1 1 8	1 1 3	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 0	1 5 0	1 0 11	2 0 11
<i>Engine and Boiler—</i>									
Sarangs .. Time ..	2 0 0	2 1 2	1 1 10	—	2 4 8	1 5 10	1 6 8	1 7 2	1 14 4
Engine Drivers .. Time ..	3 8 1	3 9 9	3 10 1	9 2 1	9 1 1	11 1 1	1 8 1	1 7 1	1 5 5
Splicers .. Time ..	1 9 4	1 10 10	1 8 4	1 6 10	1 6 5	1 9 5	1 8 4	1 5 7	2 0 4
Firemen .. Time ..	1 3 11	1 5 8	1 5 4	1 7 9	1 7 1	1 1 7	1 0 14	8 0 15	5 1 3
<i>Electrical—</i>									
Electricians .. Time ..	3 15 0	4 0 9	5 0 4	3 4 3	0 12 9	0 2 0	6 2 10	7 2 10	4 0 4
Wiremen .. Time ..	2 7 9	2 10 6	2 5 5	2 6 2	5 0 1	15 4	0 15 9	1 1 6	1 6 3
<i>Mechanics—</i>									
Foremen .. Time ..	6 3 5	6 11 7	2 4 3	13 0 4	2 8 3	10 4 3	5 10 3	14 10 5	4 11 1
Turners .. Time ..	2 6 6	2 7 2	1 3 2	1 11 8	1 12 6	7 1 6	6 6 1	6 10 1	8 2 2
Pattern Makers .. Time ..	3 0 7	2 6 3	1 3 2	3 3 2	6 12 15	11 9 4	1 14 12	3 10 12	3 10 0
Blacksmiths .. Time ..	2 10 8	1 11 7	10 6 1	12 1 2	3 9 2	5 3 1	8 0 1	7 12 0	0 0 0
Blacksmith Strikers Time ..	1 1 1	1 1 9	1 4 1	0 2 1	4 0 1	2 10 11	1 10 12	0 15 6	0 15 6
Tinsmiths .. Time ..	2 1 10	2 4 6	2 9 2	1 11 6	3 0 10	2 0 1	3 4 1	6 5 1	1 1 2
Masons .. Time ..	2 0 1	2 1 2	1 0 2	0 2 2	5 3 2	5 4 1	9 11 1	2 11 1	5 6 7
Moulders .. Time ..	2 12 9	3 4 6	2 12 4	1 14 6	1 11 12	2 7 1	9 10 2	0 4 2	3 9 9
Assistant Moulders Time ..	1 15 9	1 6 2	3 10 1	0 1 1	3 9 1	4 1 1	5 4 1	3 5 5	—
<i>Ramoses or Sepoy Department and Odd Hands—</i>									
Jamedars .. Time ..	1 4 9	1 6 5	1 8 7	0 15 11	1 3 2	1 3 4	1 1 1	1 5 11	1 4 10
Sepoys .. Time ..	0 13 2	0 14 1	0 15 9	0 10 0	0 11 5	0 12 0	0 9 6	0 10 6	0 11 0
<i>Miscellaneous—</i>									
Mukadams .. Time ..	1 11 1	1 11 1	1 11 6	1 2 2	1 4 7	1 4 8	1 1 1	1 0 12	3 12 3
Carpenters .. Time ..	2 5 3	2 5 2	4 1 2	0 7 2	7 2 2	6 11 8	2 1 4	6 1 6	7 6 7
Fitters .. Time ..	2 9 8	2 12 8	2 11 9	1 12 10	2 2 7	2 0 1	5 10 1	6 10 1	9 1 1
Oilers .. Time ..	1 1 1	1 2 9	1 2 6	1 4 1	1 8 9	1 2 7	0 11 10	0 14 5	0 13 11
Nochies .. Time ..	1 1 1	1 2 4	1 2 0	1 7 9	1 8 10	1 9 7	1 0 12	8 0 13	5 0 12
Coolies .. Time ..	0 15 3	0 15 5	0 15 11	0 12 6	0 14 4	0 14 10	0 10 8	0 10 12	0 11 3
Sweepers .. Time ..	0 12 0	0 12 4	0 13 6	0 11 5	0 12 9	0 13 3	0 8 7	0 11 4	0 10 8

Women.

Department and Occupation.	Bombay.			Ahmedabad.			Sholapur.		
	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1928.	May 1921.	August 1923.	May 1928.	May 1921.	August 1923.	July 1928.
<i>Mining and Waste Room—</i>	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Waste Pickers .. Time ..	0 8 5	0 8 4	0 8 8	0 8 10	0 8 11	0 8 3	0 5 5	0 6 2	0 4 10
<i>Rag Spinning—</i>									
Siders .. Time ..	0 14 7	0 15 2	0 15 2	0 14 5	0 14 11	0 15 1	0 9 0	0 10 1	0 11 0
Doffers .. Time ..	0 10 11	—	0 11 5	—	—	0 10 5	—	—	0 7 10
<i>Winding—</i>									
Naukans .. Time ..	1 11 3	1 12 0	1 12 0	0 12 8	0 14 0	0 15 5	0 10 1	0 11 9	0 9 2
Grey Winders Time ..	0 11 10	0 11 10	0 11 3	0 10 16	0 10 8	—	—	0 7 6	—
.. Piece ..	0 12 2	0 12 3	0 11 9	0 11 10	0 12 11	0 11 9	0 7 5	0 8 6	0 6 2
Colour Winders Time ..	0 11 10	0 12 10	0 13 0	0 13 0	0 13 0	0 13 8	0 6 0	0 30 8	—
.. Piece ..	0 12 2	0 13 7	0 14 1	0 11 1	0 12 2	0 14 6	0 5 1	0 6 10	0 6 6
<i>Roughing—</i>									
Reelers .. Time ..	0 11 10	0 11 10	0 7 11	0 8 0	1 0 2	0 9 7	0 5 11	0 6 10	0 8 10
.. Piece ..	0 13 6	0 12 6	0 10 11	0 15 0	0 12 7	0 14 5	0 5 11	0 6 0	0 6 9
<i>Miscellaneous—</i>									
Coolies .. Time ..	0 12 7	0 11 3	0 8 8	0 6 9	0 11 9	0 9 9	0 7 10	0 6 11	0 6 7
Sweepers .. Time ..	0 3 3	0 3 8	0 3 8	0 7 0	0 10 1	0 9 3	0 4 1	0 5 7	0 5 9

## APPENDIX X (Abridged).

*Frequency of Rates of Press Workers in Bombay.*

Class intervals of rates.		English newspaper presses.	Vernacular newspaper presses.	Job printing presses.
Rs. 200 and over .. ..	.. ..	5	2	11
Rs. 190 and below Rs. 200	.. ..	—	—	2
.. 180 .. .. 190	.. ..	1	—	—
.. 170 .. .. 180	.. ..	2	—	1
.. 160 .. .. 170	.. ..	1	—	4
.. 150 .. .. 160	.. ..	3	4	7
.. 140 .. .. 150	.. ..	1	—	2
.. 130 .. .. 140	.. ..	5	1	8
.. 120 .. .. 130	.. ..	2	1	8
.. 110 .. .. 120	.. ..	2	—	5
.. 100 .. .. 110	.. ..	5	2	12
.. 95 .. .. 100	.. ..	4	1	3
.. 90 .. .. 95	.. ..	4	2	10
.. 85 .. .. 90	.. ..	7	1	12
.. 80 .. .. 85	.. ..	5	4	12
.. 75 .. .. 80	.. ..	5	4	20
.. 70 .. .. 75	.. ..	13	5	27
.. 65 .. .. 70	.. ..	11	17	41
.. 60 .. .. 65	.. ..	33	6	52
.. 58 .. .. 60	.. ..	4	3	23
.. 56 .. .. 58	.. ..	—	2	33
.. 54 .. .. 56	.. ..	13	28	36
.. 52 .. .. 54	.. ..	2	5	49
.. 50 .. .. 52	.. ..	22	22	106
.. 48 .. .. 50	.. ..	5	10	60
.. 46 .. .. 48	.. ..	—	1	41
.. 44 .. .. 46	.. ..	13	27	81
.. 42 .. .. 44	.. ..	9	13	24
.. 40 .. .. 42	.. ..	29	31	52
.. 38 .. .. 40	.. ..	4	3	39
.. 36 .. .. 38	.. ..	5	5	30
.. 34 .. .. 36	.. ..	16	21	94
.. 32 .. .. 34	.. ..	14	15	94
.. 30 .. .. 32	.. ..	69	28	122
.. 29 .. .. 30	.. ..	2	—	18
.. 28 .. .. 29	.. ..	13	10	46
.. 27 .. .. 28	.. ..	6	12	44
.. 26 .. .. 27	.. ..	7	3	32
.. 25 .. .. 26	.. ..	51	14	104
.. 24 .. .. 25	.. ..	11	7	54
.. 23 .. .. 24	.. ..	15	4	29
.. 22 .. .. 23	.. ..	14	6	191
.. 21 .. .. 22	.. ..	3	11	10
.. 20 .. .. 21	.. ..	23	18	49
.. 19 .. .. 20	.. ..	2	—	83
.. 18 .. .. 19	.. ..	13	5	44
.. 17 .. .. 18	.. ..	4	1	19
.. 16 .. .. 17	.. ..	4	4	27
.. 15 .. .. 16	.. ..	20	11	59
Below Rs. 15 .. ..	.. ..	3	4	38
Total number of workers..		505	374	1,968

## APPENDIX XL

Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency classified territorially according to Industries and Trades.

Name of Union.	Date of formation.	Number of members as at 1st March, 1929.
<b>TEXTILE.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal*	December, 1923	1,200
The Bombay Textile Labour Union*	January, 1926	6,749
The Bombay Mill Workers' Union*	March, 1928	984
The Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union*	May, 1928	54,000
<i>Ahmedabad—</i>		
The Weavers' Union	February, 1920	825
The Throstle Union	February, 1920	11,180
The Winders' Union	June, 1920	120
The Card Room, Blow Room and Frame Department Union.	August, 1920	3,725
The Drivers', Oilmen's and Firemen's Union.	September, 1920	525
The Jobbers' and Mukadams' Union	March 1926	700
<i>Sholapur—</i>		
The Bombay Textile Labour Union (Sholapur Branch).	May, 1928	800
<b>RAILWAYS, INCLUDING RAILWAY WORKSHOPS.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma.*	April, 1897	1,592
The Wadi Bunder Staff Union (G.I.P. Railway).*	January, 1920	597
The Bombay Port Trust Railwaymen's Union.	June, 1920	457
The B.B. & C.I. Railway Employees' Union.	August, 1920	6,106
The All-India and Burmah Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Services Association.*	June, 1926	291
The Victoria Terminus Commercial Section Staff Union.*	July, 1926	135
The G.I.P. Railway Cabin Staff Union*..	July, 1927	522
The G.I.P. Railway Audit Staff Union ..	December, 1927	300
The G.I.P. Railway Administrative Office Staff Union.	May, 1928	120
The G.I.P. Railway Mechanical Department Office Staff Union.*	July, 1928	216
The G.I.P. Railwaymen's Union*	August, 1928	41,000
<i>Ahmedabad—</i>		
The B.B. & C.I. Railway Employees' Association.*	February, 1920	6,597
<i>Karachi—</i>		
The N.W. Railway (Recognized) Union (Karachi District).	1920	955
<i>Poona—</i>		
The G.I.P. Railway Poona Staff Union*	August, 1927	694
<i>Sholapur—</i>		
The G.I.P. Railway Sholapur Staff Union*	December, 1927	944
<i>Dhond—</i>		
The G.I.P. Railway Dhond Staff Union	December, 1927	312
<b>SEAMEN.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Indian Seamen's Union*	April, 1919	21,512
The Bombay Seamen's Union	March, 1926	8,548
<i>Karachi—</i>		
The Indian Seamen's Union (Karachi) ..	July, 1927	25
<b>POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Bombay Postal Union	1907	1,455
The Bombay Presidency Telegraph Workmen's Union.	1920	530
The Bombay Branch of All-India Telegraph Union.	1924	144
The Bombay Postmen's Union	January, 1926	1,286

Those registered are marked \*.

APPENDIX XI—*continued.*

Name of Union.	Date of formation.	Number of members as at 1st March, 1929.
<b>POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS—<i>continued.</i></b>		
<i>Ahmedabad—</i>		
The Ahmedabad Postal and R.M.S. Union	January, 1924 ..	138
The Gujarat Postmen's Union .. ..	September, 1927 ..	142
<i>Poona—</i>		
The Poona Post and R.M.S. Union ..	January, 1919 ..	280
The Poona District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	1923 .. ..	336
The Poona R.M.S. B-Division Union ..	April, 1926 ..	230
<i>Broach—</i>		
The Broach District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	(Not known)..	26
<i>Ahmednagar—</i>		
The Ahmednagar Postal and R.M.S. Union	1920 .. ..	452
<i>Belgaum—</i>		
The Belgaum Postal Union .. ..	1920 .. ..	128
The Belgaum District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	January, 1924 ..	92
<i>Dharwar—</i>		
The Dharwar Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	August, 1919 ..	134
<i>Hubli—</i>		
The Dharwar District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	June, 1927 .. ..	100
<i>Jalgaon—</i>		
The Jalgaon Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	April, 1919 ..	156
The Khandesh Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	September, 1928 ..	163
<i>Nasik—</i>		
The Nasik Divisional Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	July, 1918 .. ..	105
The Nasik Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	1920 .. ..	155
<i>Ratnagiri—</i>		
The Ratnagiri Postal Union .. ..	1922 .. ..	126
<i>Malwan—</i>		
The Konkan Divisional Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	May, 1927 .. ..	260
<i>Satara—</i>		
The Satara Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	1919 .. ..	278
<i>Surat—</i>		
The Surat Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	1921 .. ..	133
The Surat District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	November, 1923 ..	100
<i>Baroda—</i>		
The Baroda Postal Union .. ..	1920 .. ..	195
The Baroda R.M.S. Union .. ..	1924 .. ..	293
The Baroda Divisional Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	(Not known)..	50
<i>Bhavnagar—</i>		
The Bhavnagar Postal and R.M.S. Union	1923 .. ..	93
<i>Rajkot—</i>		
The Rajkot Postal and R.M.S. Union ..	1923 .. ..	147
<i>Karwar—</i>		
The Kanara District Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	August, 1924 ..	62
<i>Miraj—</i>		
The Satara Divisional Postmen's and Lower Grade Staff Union.	1926 .. ..	149
<b>MUNICIPAL</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Bombay Municipal Workmen's Union*	March, 1927 .. ..	2,109
The Bombay Municipal Officials' Association.	April, 1927 .. ..	633
The Bombay Municipal Kamgar Sangh*	September, 1928 ..	150
<i>Ahmedabad—</i>		
The Municipal Sweepers' Union .. ..	January, 1928 ..	200
<i>Karachi—</i>		
The Karachi Municipal Sweepers' Union*	January, 1927 ..	1,000

Those registered are marked \*.



## APPENDIX XI—continued.

Name of Union.	Date of formation.	Number of members as at 1st March, 1929.
<b>PORT TRUST AND DOCK WORKERS—</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Bombay Port Trust Employees' Union	March, 1920 .. ..	1,891
The Bombay Port Trust Docks Staff Union	July, 1926 .. ..	945
The R.I.M. Dock Workers' Union* ..	March, 1928 .. ..	851
The Mazagon Dock Employees' Union*..	March, 1928 .. ..	1,166
<i>Karachi—</i>		
The Karachi Port Trust Labour Union*..	November, 1928 .. ..	1,053
<b>WORKSHOPS OTHER THAN RAILWAY, MUNICIPAL AND PORT TRUST.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The General Workshopenmen's Union* ..	May, 1928 .. ..	500
The Bombay Engineering Workers' Union*	December, 1928 .. ..	100
<i>Poona (Kirkee)—</i>		
The Kirkee Arsenal Workmen's Union ..	July, 1928 .. ..	499
<b>MATCH FACTORIES.</b>		
<i>Kurla—</i>		
The Kurla Match Factory Labour Union	May, 1928 .. ..	500
<i>Ambernath—</i>		
The Ambernath Labour Union* .. ..	May, 1928 .. ..	817
<b>TRAMWAYS.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Tramwaymen's Union* .. ..	April, 1927 .. ..	824
<b>PRESS WORKERS—</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Press Workers' Union* .. ..	March, 1927 .. ..	310
<i>Poona—</i>		
The Press Workers' Union .. ..	February, 1921 .. ..	75
<b>TELEPHONE.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Bombay Telephone Company Employees' Union.*	March, 1928 .. ..	195
<b>GOLD THREAD.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Jari Workers' (Gold Thread Workers') Union.	March, 1927 .. ..	120
The Bombay Kasbi Karigars' Union* ..	March, 1927 .. ..	600
<b>CLERICAL.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Clerks' Union* .. ..	April, 1918 .. ..	381
The Bombay Currency Association ..	March, 1923 .. ..	217
The Professional Letter-Writers' Union..	January, 1927 .. ..	62
The British India Steam Navigation Company's Staff Union.	May, 1927 .. ..	200
The Central Board of Revenue Ministerial Officers' Union.	November, 1927 .. ..	400
The Bombay Mill Clerks' Union .. ..	May, 1928 .. ..	488
<i>Poona—</i>		
The Central Body Military Accounts' Association.	February, 1920 .. ..	1,929
<b>PEONS.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Government Peons' and Menial Services Union.	February, 1926 .. ..	907
The Bank Peons' Union* .. ..	June, 1928 .. ..	331
<b>MISCELLANEOUS.</b>		
<i>Bombay—</i>		
The Shop Assistants' Union .. ..	May, 1927 .. ..	150
The Bombay Taxi Drivers' Union* .. ..	August, 1928 .. ..	742
The Bombay Oil Companies' Employees' Union*.	October, 1928 .. ..	169
<i>Hydrabad—</i>		
The Sind Workers' Union .. ..	October, 1927 .. ..	240

Those registered are marked \*.

## APPENDIX

*A Summary of Investigations by Conciliation and*

Year.	Subject of investigation.	Personnel.	Other important persons who took part.
1917, December	25 per cent. increase in rates for warpers.	Mr. M. K. Gandhi (Conciliator).	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, Mr. Amubhai M. Mehta, Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai.
1918, February	35 per cent. increase in rates for weavers.	Professor Anandshankar B. Dhruv (Arbitrator).	Messrs. M. K. Gandhi, G. E. Chatfield, S. G. Banker, Valabhai J. Patel, Krishnalal N. Desai, Ambalal Sarabhai, Amubhai M. Mehta and Miss Anasuya Sarabhai.
1919, December 1920, January.	Wages of warpers, folders, sizers, engineering workers, mochies, calendar men and clerks.	Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai, Managing Committee of Millowners and leaders and advisers of labour (negotiators).	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, Mr. Amubhai M. Mehta and Mr. S. G. Banker,
1920, beginning	Wages of workers in cloth folding and yarn bundling departments, clerks and blacksmiths.	Mr. Mangaldas Girhardas Managing Committee of Millowners and leaders and advisers of labour (negotiators).	Do. . . .
1920, May ..	Wages of spinners, 10 hours' day, potable water, dining shed, sanitation, caution money.	Messrs. Gandhi, Ambalal Sarabhai, Kasturbhai Lalbhai in the first instance and Mr. Gandhi and Seth Mangaldas in the second instance.	Mr. G. E. Chatfield, Mr. Amubhai M. Mehta, Miss Anasuya Sarabhai, Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai and Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai.
1920, October..	Bonus .. ..	Seth Mangaldas and Mr. Gandhi.	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Mr. S. G. Banker.
1921, January and May.	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..
1921, October ..	Holidays .. ..	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..
1921, June ..	Beating .. ..	Seth Mangaldas and Mr. Gandhi.	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Mr. S. G. Banker.
Do. ..	Union activities ..	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..
Do. ..	Work of mills ..	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..

## XII.

*Arbitration Machinery in the Ahmedabad Cotton Mills.*

Chief clause of award or settlement.	How far carried out.	Remarks.
Rate increased from 12 to 14½ pies ..	Subsequently 15 pies were granted.	
35 per cent. increase awarded ..	35 per cent. granted.	
62½ per cent. increase to warpers, folders, sizers, engineering workers, mochies and calendermen. No increase or minimum for clerks.	All carried out.	
Higher wages to stampers and yarn bundlers, 50 to 62½ per cent. increase to blacksmiths and suitable increment to clerks with low pay.	Other items carried out but nothing done in the case of clerks as they were not united enough to enforce their demands.	
All demands conceded and increase in frame and other departments also recommended. Seth Mangaldas wanted some changes in the award agreed to between Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Ambalal. These changes were agreed to and the amended award was adopted by all, including Mr. Ambalal.	Wages and hours enforced but other items not fully carried out even to-day in spite of further awards in 1921 also.	
Rs. 12, 18, 24 and 36 to be given as bonus according to pay. Demand of double bonus by workers and grant of bonus by mills without consent of Association condemned.	Fully.	
Certain additions to previous year's award, e.g., absence due to maternity not to be excluded for bonus; permanent substitutes also to be eligible for bonus and four loom weavers to be granted double bonus.	Fully.	
Three days for Diwali; labourers should not observe holidays of their own accord.	Diwali holidays observed but labourers still stay at home on days other than declared holidays also.	
Agents should try to stop this practice.	Even now it has not stopped completely.	
Mills should sympathise with the union and should not place any difficulties in its way. Labourers should not intrigue to bring about strikes.	Only partially carried out.	
There should not be more than 50 per cent. saving. Association should look into the use of inferior cotton and yarn.	Not much improvement still.	

## APPENDIX

*A Summary of Investigations by Conciliation and*

Year.	Subject of investigation.	Personnel.	Other important persons who took part.
1921, June ..	Work of mills ..	Seth Mangaldas and Mr. Gandhi.	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Mr. S. G. Banker.
Do. ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do. ..
Do. ..	15 per cent. increase for spinning department owing to high prices and rents.	Do. ..	Do. ..
Do. ..	Increase in wages for blow room and card room workers.	Do. ..	Do. ..
1921, October ..	One and a half month's bonus as wages.	Mr. Gandhi and Seth Mangaldas did not agree and Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya acted as Sarpanch (Umpire).	Do. ..
1922, October ..	Bonus ..	Seth Mangaldas and Professor Anandshankar B. Dhruv (Arbitrators).	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai.
1923, June ..	Reduction of wages by 20 per cent.	Seth Mangaldas, Rev. C. F. Andrews and Mr. S. G. Banker (Negotiators).	Do. ..
1923, July ..	Interpretation of Clause 1 (b) of award dated 1st October, 1922.	Dr. F. X. DeSouza was appointed Sarpanch as Seth Mangaldas and Professor Anandshankar B. Dhruv could not agree.	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Mr. S. G. Banker.
1924-27 ..	Nil ..	Nil ..	Nil ..
1928, November	Collection of Union fees by Union officials within mill precincts.	Seth Mangaldas and Mr. M. K. Gandhi.	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Mr. S. G. Banker.
1929, January ..	Strike in Gujarat Ginning Mill.	Do. ..	Miss Anasuya Sarabhai and Messrs. S. G. Banker, Amubhai M. Mehta and Gordhanbhai I. Patel.

## XII—continued.

*Arbitration Machinery in the Ahmedabad Cotton Mills.*

Chief clause of award or settlement.	How far carried out.	Remarks.
Union should report to the Millowners' Association mills which do not engage bobbin-carriers in the spinning department.	A few mills have no bobbin-carriers even now.	
Millowners should remedy the defect of scarcity of beams in the weaving department.	This complaint is not frequent nowadays.	
Mills to bear the cost of running grain shops and to sell cheap grain (wheat and bajri). Shops to be opened by 1st September, 1921. Millowners to build chawls within a year for housing labour.	This was not done but mills granted 15 per cent. increase. All mills have not built chawls. Those which have built them have done so for some workers only.	
Millowners asked to grant an increase	Granted.	
One month's wages plus Rs. 15 (or Rs. 7-8 annas for half-timers) awarded. Maximum to be Rs. 75.	Granted.	
One month's wages and Rs. 3 awarded. Maximum not to exceed Rs. 55.	Before the whole bonus was distributed differences of opinion arose as how Clause 1 (b) of the award regarding method of calculating absence should be interpreted (1st October, 1922).	Mr. Gandhi was in gaol, so Professor Dhruv was appointed Arbitrator. Mr. Banker was also in gaol.
Wages reduced by 15½ per cent. ..	Reduction effected ..	Mr. Banker returned from gaol during the closing period of the strike.
Professor Arandshankar's view upheld.	Bonus granted, calculating absence accordingly.	
Nil .. .. .	Nil ..	
Mills to deduct subscriptions from wages and pay to Union by cheque.	Being followed ..	Nothing important took place.
Preliminary award to take the strikers back to work.	Workers taken back after threat of disciplinary action by Millowners' Association.	Final award not yet given.

APPENDIX  
Bombay Engineering Employers'

Nos. given to Firms.	Blacksmiths or Springmakers.			Boilersmiths or Boilermakers.			Carpenters.			Coppersmiths.			Tinsmiths.				
	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.		
1	2-6	4-2	2-6	..	..	..	2-2	3-0	2-6	..	..	..	1-14	..	..		
2	2-8	2-8	2-8	2-10	2-12	2-11	3-0	3-0	3-0	..	..	..	2-7	2-7	2-7		
3	1-10	2-10	..	..	..	..	1-14	2-0	..	..	..	..	2-7	3-4	..		
6	1-12	3-6	2-6	..	..	..	1-4	3-0	2-2	2-0	2-10	2-3	1-6	2-4	1-13		
7	1-8	3-8	2-4-8	..	..	..	1-8	3-10	1-15-9	..	..	..	1-8	3-0	1-15-5		
8 (M)	1-10	3-9	2-10	1-10	3-9	2-7	..	..	..	1-10	3-9	2-1	1-10	3-9	2-10		
(C)	1-10	3-9	2-14	1-10	3-5	2-6	..	..	..	1-10	3-9	2-12	1-10	3-9	2-12		
(Civil Engineering).	..	..	..	..	..	..	p.m. 39	p.m. 65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		
9	Ord. 2-9	Sup. 3-6	Spl. 4-5	Avr. 3-3	Sup. 3-9	Spl. 4-5	Avr. 3-9	Ord. 2-4	Sup. 2-11	Spl. 4-5	Avr. 2-11	Sup. 3-5	Spl. 3-6	Avr. 4-5	Sup. 2-15	Spl. ..	Avr. 2-15
10	Min. 1-11-2	Max. 3-0-9	Avr. 2-6-6	Min. 1-9-11	Max. 2-13-7	Avr. 2-3-0	Min. 2-3	Max. 3-4-11	Avr. 2-9-8	..	..	..	Min. 1-11-8	Max. 2-13-7	Avr. 2-8-10		
11	2-0	2-15	2-9-4	1-13	2-15	1-15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		
12	..	..	2-13	..	..	2-10	..	..	2-14	..	..	3-4	..	..	2-15		
	..	..	2-12	..	..	2-2	..	..	2-11	..	..	..	..	..	..		
	..	..	2-4	..	..	1-12	..	..	1-10	..	..	..	..	..	..		
16	..	..	2-6	..	..	..	..	..	2-4	..	..	..	..	..	1-12		
	..	..	2-12	..	..	..	..	..	2-6	..	..	..	..	..	2-4		
18	..	..	2-0	..	..	..	..	..	1-14	..	..	..	..	..	1-10		
19	..	2-9	..	..	..	..	1-10	2-0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		
							Cabinet maker.	2-4	3-9	..	..	..	..	..	..		
							Boya.	0-10	0-12	..	..	..	..	..	..		
							*2-8	2-12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		

Nos. given to Firms.	Masons and Bricklayers.			Muccadama.			Oilers.			Patternmakers.			Painters.		
	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.
1	1-10	..	..	..	..	2-9	..	..	..	2-0	3-0	2-0	1-12	..	2-0
2	1-14	1-14	1-14	1-15	3-5	2-6-6	1-6	1-6	1-6	..	..	..	1-6	2-9	1-10
3	2-12	3-0	..	..	..	..	..	1-7	..	1-14	2-0	..	..	2-8	..
6	2-0	3-14	2-8	1-13	2-8	2-3	..	1-6	1-6	1-12	3-10	2-7	1-0	3-9	1-11
7	2-0	3-0	2-5	1-10	3-0	2-0-5	1-2	1-6	1-4	..	..	..	1-8	3-0	1-12-4
8 (M)	1-10	2-5	1-15	1-0	1-13	1-5	..	1-1	1-1	1-10	3-5	3-0	1-10	2-11	1-15
(C)	1-10	2-5	2-0	1-0	1-13	1-10	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-10	2-14	2-5
(Civil Engineering).	p.m. 45	p.m. 65	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	p.m. 39	60	..
9	Sup. 2-0	..	Avr. 2-0	Sup. 2-4	..	..	Sup. 1-2	..	Avr. 1-3	Sup. 3-3	Spl. 4-5	Avr. 3-5	Sup. 2-10	..	Avr. 2-3

\* Special rates for re-inforced



APPENDIX

Bombay Engineering Employers'

Nos. given to Firms.	Masons and Bricklayers.			Muccadams.			Oilers.			Patternmakers.			Painters.		
	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.
10	1-6-10	1-14-10	1-14-10	1-2-6	1-8	1-8	1-0	1-1-3	1-1-3	2-10-6	2-4-11	2-2-0	1-4-4	2-5	1-7-7
11	..	..	2-5	..	..	2-4	1-4	1-4	1-4	1-2	4-0	1-8	1-0	1-2	1-1
	..	..	2-4	..	..	2-2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2-1
	..	..	1-10	..	..	1-5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2-0
12	..	..	1-14	..	..	1-8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-8
	..	..	1-14	Mal Muccadam	1-4	1-12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-13
	..	..	2-0	Women	0-15	1-6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-10
16	2-0	2-8	..	1-8	1-12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
19	..	2-4	..	..	..	2-8*	2-0	2-7	..	..	..	..	..	1-10	..
	..	2-8*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Nos. given to Firms.	Motor Cleaners.			Maistries.			Mocbees and Beltmakers.			Sawyers.		
	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.	Min. Rs.	Max. Rs.	Avr. Rs.
1	..	25	..	8-0	5-0	..	1-4	..	..	..	..	..
2	p.m. 20	p.m. 23	p.m. 21-8	p.m. 140	p.m. 140	p.m. 140	2-2	2-2	2-2	..	..	..
3	..	0-12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6	..	..	..	..	5-0	5-0	..	..	..	1-15	3-0	2-3
7	p.m. 25	p.m. 40	p.d. 1-3-4	p.m. 100	p.m. 200	108-7-6	..	..	..	..	..	..
8 (2)	0-45	1-4	1-0	8-11	5-0	4-6	4-10	2-5	2-1	..	..	..
(C)	..	..	..	3-11	5-0	4-13	1-10	2-11	2-5	1-10	2-5	2-4
Civil Engineering).	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
9	..	..	..	..	..	..	Sup. 2-4	..	Avr. 2-4	Sup. 2-10	..	Avr. 2-6
10	Min. ..	Max. ..	Avr. ..	Min. 3-0-10	Max. 4-8-4	Avr. 4-8-4	Min. 1-2-0	Max. 1-0-3	Avr. 1-7-2	Min. 1-0-11	Max. 1-14-10	Avr. 1-14-10
11	1-4	1-4	1-4	2-0	3-8	2-14	1-5	1-5	1-5	..	..	..
	..	..	..	Carpenter	..	4-2	..	..	..	..	..	2-2
	..	..	..	Mason	..	5-8	..	..	..	..	..	..
12	..	..	..	..	..	2-8	..	..	..	..	..	1-14
	..	..	..	Carpenter	..	2-14	..	..	..	..	..	..
	..	..	..	Painter	..	3-10	..	..	..	..	..	..
	..	..	..	Mason	..	2-12	..	..	..	..	..	..
	..	..	..	..	..	3-2	..	..	..	..	..	2-0
16	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
19	..	30 p.m.	..	Min. Timber	100	165	..	2-3	..	Tables	..	3-1
	..	..	..	Carpenter	125	165	..	..	..	Frames	..	2-0
	..	..	..	Polishers	..	90	..	..	..	Band	..	2-5
	..	..	..	Mechanics	..	105	..	..	..	Hand	..	2-0
	..	..	..	Machineman	..	165	..	..	..	Bench	..	1-10
	..	..	..	..	..	*3	..	..	..	..	..	..

\* Special rates for re-painted



XIII—continued.

Federation—Statement of Wages.

Riveters.			Rivet Boys.			Strikers or Hammermen.			Turners (Lathemen).			Wreckmen Electric.			Motor Drivers.		
Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.	Min.	Max.	Avr.
..	..	..	..	..	..	1-0	1-1-3	1-1-3	1-9-11	2-10-6	2-4-8	1-9-11	2-6-10	1-18-5	..	..	..
1-6	2-0	1-11	..	..	0-14	1-1	1-8	1-2	2-0	2-14	2-12	..	..	..	2-4	3-6	3-2
..	..	1-11	..	..	..	..	..	1-8	..	..	2-15	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	1-2	..	..	..	..	..	1-4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2-0	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0-15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	1-4	1-4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1-2	..	..	3-4	..	..	..	..	9.m.	9.m.	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	70	78	..

Fettlers or Chippers and Ladlomen.				General Remarks.
Min.	Max.	Avr.	Ra.	
1-7	..	..	..	<p>No. 1. The workshop permanent staff are eligible for the following leave :-                      Casual leave for 10 days in a year.                      Special Casual leave in a year in case of illness supported by medical certificate and when there is no other leave to fall back on.                      Privilege leave for 1 month after 11 months' service. This leave is subject to forfeiture at the end of the year.                      Sick leave on half pay to the extent of 2 months in each year provided 6 years' service is rendered.                      Leave on urgent private affairs on half pay is granted to the extent of 6 months provided 6 years' active service is rendered.                      Casual workmen are not eligible for leave with pay.</p>
..	..	..	..	<p>No. 2. Daily paid labourers are not granted leave with pay but those who can be spared in slack season are permitted to go to their native places and are re-engaged if they return on the date specified by them at the time of departure.                      Monthly paid labourers are granted leave with pay for a fortnight.</p>
..	..	..	..	<p>No. 3. Fourteen days' privilege leave per annum is granted to all permanent employees, i.e., those who have put in at least one year's service.                      Privilege leave is taken by the majority of the workers although it is found that leave is either taken at odd times during the year or else allowed to accumulate for three or four years in order to allow the employee to proceed to his up-country abode. In all cases the privilege leave is paid annually whether the worker takes advantage of the holiday at the time or otherwise.</p>
0-14	1-1	1-0	..	<p>No. 6. No leave with pay is allowed except four holidays, viz., New Year's Day, Good Friday, King Emperor's Birthday, and Christmas Day for which the men are paid.</p>
..	..	..	..	<p>No. 7. Leave on full pay for 15 days is monthly paid labour who take full advantage of leave rules in force. No leave with pay is allowed to daily paid labour, the majority of whom ask for leave either yearly or every other year and it is granted them provided the period is reasonable.</p>
0-14	1-1	1-0	..	<p>No. 8 and 9. All classes of employees shown against 8 and 9 are eligible for 15 days' leave with pay in a year after one year's service.</p>
..	..	..	..	<p>Leave under the Workmen's Compensation Act for absence in consequence of injuries sustained while on duty.                      The leave is fully availed of.</p>
Sup.	..	Avr.	..	
1-3	..	1-3	..	
Min.	Max.	Avr.	..	
0-14-2	1-1-3	1-1-3	..	<p>No. 10. Subject to certain conditions 15 days' additional pay is paid annually in respect of accrued leave or leave actually taken with permission during the previous year, to employees who have been in the Company's service for a full year.</p>
1-3	1-12	1-8	..	<p>No. 11. No leave with pay is allowed except in cases of genuine sickness and of injury in which pay is given while in hospital according to Workmen's Compensation Act.</p>
..	..	..	..	
..	..	..	..	
..	..	..	..	<p>No. 12. Leave on full pay for 14 days is allowed to daily and monthly rated staff after one year's service. No leave is given until an employee renders 6 months' service, when 7 days' leave is given.                      Daily rated staff are also allowed 1 day's leave on full pay on His Majesty's Birthday. The leave is fully availed of and is practically always granted when applied for.                      Leave with pay can be taken on Bank Holidays when the works are entirely closed.</p>
..	..	..	..	<p>No. 13. Leave on half pay only is granted in exceptional cases to men of long service.</p>
..	1-10	..	..	<p>No. 14. Monthly paid men are given leave with pay up to one month. Beyond that no pay is given unless there are very exceptional circumstances. The leave is granted to suit the convenience of men.                      Daily paid men can not granted leave with pay.</p>

concrete construction labour.

## Mr. J. E. P. CURRY, SHIPPING MASTER, BOMBAY.

## I.—Recruitment.

5. The P. and O. S. N. Co. and the B. I. S. N. Co. and one or two smaller companies recruit their own seamen. The other companies obtain theirs through the shipping office. The special officer appointed by the Government joined this office on the 1st instant. He keeps a register of the leading hands in each department, viz., deck and engine room, serangs and butlers, and sees that they are given the opportunity for selection by rotation, i.e., according to the time each man has been out of employment. The actual selection, however, lies with the shipping companies and their officers, who maintain their right of selection independently of the above rotation. The serangs and butlers when selected usually bring the men who are to work under them, subject to the approval of the selecting officer. If the serang or butler is unable to make up the full complement of his crew, the men are obtained with the aid of the licensed shipping brokers. The effect of the changes introduced in Calcutta is not known.

Employment or recruitment by the shipping companies themselves, as is now done by the companies mentioned above, is desirable. The other companies, however, prefer to obtain their crews through the shipping office rather than recruit them themselves. Other employment or recruiting agencies are not desirable.

## III.—Housing.

Housing for seamen is not provided by the employers, Government or other public agency. There are many lodging-houses for seamen in buildings owned by private landlords, which are situated in the localities where the working class live. The practice is for a number of seamen to live together in one room where there is sufficient space to sleep and keep their effects. The rent charged is Re. 1 per month for each seaman. The Goanese seamen live in clubs where the charge for lodging is from Re. 1.8 annas to Rs. 3 per month. The proportion which these charges bear to wages will be seen from the scale of wages attached. It is presumed that most of the questions under this heading refer mainly to housing by employers, Government or other public agency, and do not apply to private lodging-houses; and answers to them have not, therefore, been provided.

## IV.—Health.

23. The general conditions of health of seamen on board ships are provided for in the English and Indian Merchant Shipping Acts, with regard to accommodation, provision and medical attendance (*vide* Sections 198 to 211 of the English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, Sections 25 to 27, 34 and 64 of the English Act, 1906, and Sections 85 to 91 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act of 1923). The accommodation must be properly ventilated and protected from weather and sea and the space required for each lascar or native seaman is 6 superficial and 36 cubic feet. Provision is made for complaints from seamen regarding bad or insufficient food or water and for compensation therefor to the seamen. The agreement with seamen engaged in India must be in accordance with the requirements of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, XXI of 1923, and in a form sanctioned by the Government of India (*vide* sections 27 and 28 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, XXI of 1923). The sanctioned form of agreement prescribes the latitudinal and time limits of the voyage or voyages and provides for the free supply of warm clothing to the crew and the heating of their quarters in case the vessel proceeds to certain latitudes during the winter months. A scale of provision is included in the agreement, and at the commencement of every foreign-going voyage the Shipping Master inspects the crew, provisions and water in the presence of the serangs. The figures of mortality on board ships for the last three years are as follows:—

1926-1927	..	..	..	..	..	..	141
1927-1928	..	..	..	..	..	..	126
1928-1929	..	..	..	..	..	..	102

24. The English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Section 209), provides for a doctor to be carried on foreign-going vessels having 100 persons or more on board. The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, XXI of 1923 (Sections 184 and 201), only provides for a doctor when more than 100 passengers or pilgrims are carried between Indian and Red sea ports. When no doctor is carried, any illness or injury to a seaman at sea is attended to by the master who is instructed by the Medical Guide prescribed for the purpose by the Board of Trade. Serious cases or cases requiring hospital treatment are landed into hospital at first port of call, where they are left in charge of the vessel's

agents and the Shipping Master or British Consul. In urgent cases at sea the master can obtain medical advice by wireless from any port within call, or any vessel within call, which carries a doctor. In case of illness or injury on board a vessel in port which carries no doctor, the practice is to get a doctor from the shore. Most if not all shipping companies employ a doctor on shore for this purpose. In the case of hurt or injury in the service of the ship, or illness not due to the wilful act or default of the seaman, all medical and maintenance expenses incurred until the seaman is cured or returned to his home-port or dies, and in the latter case the expenses of burial, are payable by the owner of the ship.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. There is no organized welfare work amongst Indian seamen in Bombay so far as I am aware. A committee has been appointed by Government to consider the various matters in connection with the building of a Home for Indian sailors in Bombay. Certain funds are required for the purpose and it is hoped that it will not be long before the proposed Home is in existence.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

Since April, 1926, the shipping companies have consented to the insertion in the articles of agreement of a clause by which they agree to pay compensation in case of injury to or death by accident of any lascar or other native seaman, in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, VIII of 1923. Before the above date, Indian seamen employed in vessels registered in the United Kingdom were entitled to compensation under the English Act of 1906. The present arrangement is much more satisfactory, as it enables claims for compensation to be dealt with sooner, and the claimants can appeal to the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation in Bombay in case they are not satisfied with the compensation received.

#### IX.—Hours.

The hours of work for the three departments are given below :—

*Deck Hands.*—At sea from about 5.30 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. with two intervals of one hour each for meals and one hour duty on lookout. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays and Sundays. In port from 6 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. with the same intervals for meals and shorter hours on Saturdays and Sundays.

*Engine Room Crew.*—At sea the crew is divided into watches. Each man is four hours on duty and eight hours off duty. In port the hours of duty are from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. with intervals for meals as above. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays and no work is done on Sundays except that necessary to maintain lighting and sanitary service.

*Saloon Crew.*—The duties performed by this section of the crew are so various that any general statement regarding hours of work would be misleading. Broadly speaking men are required to be on duty during service hours which vary with the class of employment and the rating of the individual.

The men are liable to be called out at any time in case of emergency. Such emergencies, however, seldom occur and overtime is avoided as far as possible. When overtime is necessary, it is the practice to allow an equivalent time off during ordinary working hours. Complaints regarding overwork or overtime are unknown.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. Lists are \*attached showing the prevailing rates of wages and the wages paid before the war in the P. and O. S. N. Co. also the rates in force in the other companies from 1915, 1920 and 1923.

101. The P. and O. S. N. Co. fix their own wages which are higher than those of the other companies. The other companies have fixed a standard rate of wages at a meeting of shipowners and agents in Bombay held in September, 1923. Each man's wages is entered in the articles of agreement.

104. The labour supply is invariably greater than the demand and has not been affected by the wage-changes.

105. It does not seem necessary to fix minimum wages.

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\* Not printed here: for existing rates see Memorandum of Government of Bombay and Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co. (Bo. No. 44).

106. Fines are fixed by the regulations for maintaining discipline which are sanctioned by Government and included in the articles of agreement. These fines are paid into the shipping office and credited to Government on the termination of the agreement. The amount of fines credited for the last three years are shown below :—

						Rs.	a.	p.
1926-1927	..	..	..	..	..	681	14	4
1927-1928	..	..	..	..	..	728	12	7
1928-1929	..	..	..	..	..	593	0	7

Other deductions from wages provided in the agreement, are for embezzlement or wilful or negligent destruction of ship's cargo or stores, and for fines imposed by the Customs Authorities for contraband goods found on board.

107. Wages are paid on the termination of the voyage and completion of the agreement. An advance of one month's wages is usually made when the crew are signed on, and further advances may be made during the voyage at the discretion of the Master. The English Merchant Shipping Act provides for final payment of wages within two days of discharge (Section 134), while under the Indian Merchant Shipping Act payment must be made within five days after discharge or within three days after delivery of the cargo, whichever first happens (*vide* Section 47).

108. When seamen have been out of employment for a long time and have no money, they borrow from other seamen or from serangs or ghat-serangs, and pay back the money when they get employment. I am informed that professional money-lenders in Bombay do not lend money to seamen, on account of their frequent absences and because their homes are not in Bombay. There is no facility, therefore, for them to get heavily into debt.

#### XIII.—Efficiency.

112. Certificates of Efficiency as life-boatmen are now granted by the Board of Trade officials in the United Kingdom and by port officers in India. Seamen may appear for examination to obtain such certificates and are encouraged to do so by the shipping companies. The increased employment of Indian seamen in recent years would seem to indicate that they are up to the required standard of efficiency.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. The only organizations amongst seamen in Bombay are the Indian Seamen's Union and the Bombay Seamen's Union. The former union, which claimed in December, 1927, a membership totalling 18,700, comprises about half the total number of Goanese seamen who are employed as butlers, cooks, waiters, general servants, etc. (known as the saloon or Purser's department), and about a quarter or one-third of the seamen employed in the deck and engine room departments, the majority of whom are Mahomedans and the remainder Hindus. Punjabis and Pathans, who are mostly employed in engine room department in the P. and O. S. N. Co., do not belong to the union, neither do the deck crews of the same company, who are Mahomedans from the Bombay Presidency. The latter union is composed of the Goanese seamen employed in the P. and O. S. N. Co. and claims a membership of 6,000.

118. The above organizations do not appear to have had much effect on the conditions generally of the employees.

119. The objects of the Indian Seamen's Union are stated to be the same as other trade unions, and their activities are presumably directed towards the attainment of those objects. The Bombay Seamen's Union is rather in the nature of a club or centre for the Goanese seamen employed in the P. and O. S. N. Co.

120. (i) The Indian Seamen's Union has existed under that name since the year 1919. Previous to that it was known as the "Portuguese Seafarers' Union" and the "Goa Portuguese Seamen's Club." Up to October, 1926, the membership of the union was confined to Goanese seamen. Since then every endeavour has been made to enrol the Mahomedan and Hindu seamen of the deck and engine room departments but with limited success. In consequence of severe dissensions in the union a large number of the Goanese members who were employed in the P. and O. S. N. Co. left the union in the year 1926 and formed the Bombay Seamen's Union. A copy of the constitution and rules of the Indian Seamen's Union is enclosed.

(ii) It will be seen from the above that the majority of the seamen in the deck and engine room departments do not belong to the unions and evidently have no use for them. The Goanese and others have apparently joined with the idea that they would have a better chance of obtaining employment. The office-bearers of the union are elected by the members at the annual general meeting. As regards the Indian Seamen's Union, the workers or members appear in practice to have very small control of the management.

(iii) The relations of the Bombay Seamen's Union with the P. and O. S. N. Co. seem to be of a friendly and co-operative nature. The shipping companies have no use for the Indian Seamen's Union which has adopted a dictatorial and obstructive attitude on several occasions.

121. The Indian Seamen's Union has been registered under the Indian Trade Union Act, 1926. The Bombay Seamen's Union is not so registered.

**XV.—Strikes and Lock-Outs.**

123. There have been no strikes and lock-outs in recent years.

124. The Shipping Master is open to receive and hear grievances of seamen and represent the same to the shipping companies. The English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Sections 137 and 211), and the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, XXI of 1923 (Sections 49 and 92), provide for settlement of disputes regarding wages, and for facilities, for seamen to make complaints against the master or any of the crew to the Magistrate, British Consular Officer or Officer in command of one of His Majesty's ships. The articles of agreement also provide for the representation of grievances to certain authorities in the United Kingdom, British Colonial ports or foreign ports.

125. No use has been made of the Employers' and Workmen's (Disputes) Act, IX of 1860.

**Mr. O. H. B. STARTE, I.C.S., CRIMINAL TRIBES SETTLEMENT OFFICER, BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.**

**III.—Housing.**

18 and 21. I would suggest to the commission that they should not condemn too readily on the score of health the huts in which some of the industrial workers live, which on a first impression looks so rough and unsatisfactory.

In dry areas, e.g., Sholapur and Hubli, our experience in industrial settlements with populations of 4,000 and 2,500 respectively, is that, given sufficient space and for sanitary conveniences, workers are possibly healthier. They use these huts mainly to keep their articles in and the family eat outside in the open and some of them sleep outside. The hut often has no door and the air inside by reason of the flimsiness of the construction and the consequent air holes is generally fairly good.

The birth and death rates for the settlements for the last two years has been :—

Total population.	Birth.	Death.	Rate per 1,000.	
			Birth.	Death.
12,780 .. ..	663	333	51.88	26.05
13,029 .. ..	567	348	43.52	26.70

Sometimes the distance of the hut sites from the factory is not a disadvantage provided it is not too great.

I have always thought that it is a good thing that in Sholapur the settlers of the new Umedpur settlement have to walk a mile in the open air after they come porpsiring from the mill before they sit down in or by their huts. I should think they run fewer risks of chills.

It is important for the sake of health and because of the danger of fire that the huts should not be crowded too close together.

**Mr. R. J. TATA, CERTIFYING SURGEON, BOMBAY.**

I have been appointed since 1st June, 1927, certifying surgeon, Bombay, under Section 6 of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, for certification of factory children, and under Government Notification, General Department, No. 2804, dated 23rd November, 1922, I have duties as an additional inspector of factories regarding the sanitary requirements of Sections 9 to 14 of Factories Act.

## IV.—Health.

26. (a) (i) The latrine accommodation for the factory workers is on the whole adequate. The sanitary flushing types of latrines are in use in the great majority of factories, the insanitary basket privies still exist in some places, but are gradually disappearing due to the action taken by the Bombay Municipality in providing the necessary drainage connections and paying half the cost of conversion from basket system to the sanitary flushing system. There is still much room for improvement.

(ii) There is a constant water supply in Bombay and the water supplied for drinking purposes from the municipal water taps is pure and wholesome.

(iii) A water tap with a paved area round it is provided for washing purposes and fortunately there is no scarcity of water supply in Bombay.

Regards sanitation in general, I may state that the sanitary arrangements provided in textile mills and big factories are more satisfactory than those in the smaller works places, but even here improvement is gradually taking place. All the efforts on the part of employers and the Municipality to improve sanitation will not be of much avail in my opinion until the sanitary conscience of the workers is raised by education and health propaganda.

29. (i) In Bombay nearly three-fourths of the workers coming under the Factory Act are absorbed by the textile industry. In the other industries the percentage of workers employed in the dangerous trades is very small, and in my opinion the prevalence of purely industrial diseases and poisoning from industrial processes is not much.

In Bombay the climatic conditions are favourable to the textile industry, and the workers are less prone to respiratory diseases than those in other countries where the outside and the work-room temperatures differ much.

About two years ago an enquiry into the effects of card room dust on the health of the operatives in cotton mills was started but two prolonged general strikes in the meantime, nullified much of the work and prevented any reliable conclusions being drawn so far from the enquiry.

No cases of mule spinners cancer in cotton mills have yet been noticed.

Workers engaged on lead processes, e.g., in printing presses, lead casting, type foundries, painting, etc., are observed from time to time for signs of lead poisoning and though many have blue lines on their gums showing absorption of lead in their system, no one suffering from the effects of lead poisoning was detected during the last two years.

Three cases of chrome sores were found last year in dye works.

Workers engaged on spray painting of motor cars are examined from time to time for any ill-effects from the process.

It is possible that many cases of industrial diseases go undetected as the workers try to avoid medical examination and do not come forward on their own accord to complain of ill-effects from industrial processes in dangerous trades.

There is also no notification of diseases arising from the industrial processes in the dangerous trades and no vital statistics or comparative table of sickness and mortality of different trades are available.

## X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

## A.—Factories.

81. There is a marked decrease in the employment of children in the Bombay factories, as can be seen from the numbers employed during the last five years :—

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1924 .. .. .	836	1927 .. .. .	164
1925 .. .. .	592	1928 .. .. .	122
1926 .. .. .	306		

The decrease in child labour in Bombay is due in my opinion to various factors :— (a) Due to trade depression in general and particularly in the textile trade there is a glut of adult labour ; (b) the encouragement and spread of primary education in the working class children ; (c) the growing reluctance of the factory managers to employ children, e.g., in all big textile mills which absorb nearly three-fourths of the working class population of Bombay scarcely a dozen " half-timers " can be found ; (d) the decrease in child labour is also due to the strict enforcement of the sections of the Indian Factories Act, 1922, relating to child labour by the factory inspection staff during the last few years.

84. In my opinion the regulations of both the hours and intervals and the minimum and maximum ages as laid down in the 1922 Act for children are suitable.

85. During the boom period in the textile mills a few years ago, double employment of children was very rife, but at present it is practically non-existing due to trade depression and to the supply of children for employment being in excess of the demand, and also due to the vigilance of the factory inspection staff.

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Mr. T. W. JOHNSTONE, M.B.E., CHIEF INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES,  
BOMBAY.

[Information on a number of points not referred to here has been supplied by the Chief Inspector of Factories and will be found in the Government Memorandum.]

## II. Staff Organisation.

13. *Relations between Staff and Rank and File.*—(i) *Value and defects of system of employing jobbers.*—The chief value lies in the fact that the jobber is usually a recruiter of labour and is frequently in touch with the labour supply in the mofussil. He frequently helps in assisting persons in the interval between their arrival in a large town and their obtaining employment. The system has thus certain advantages but the jobber wields far more power than his capabilities warrant and he often abuses them.

14. *Timekeeping, Piecework, Contract and Attendance Registers.*—(i) *Operatives "clock in"* in a few factories but generally either the ticket system is in force or else attendances are checked on work. The systems vary according to the size of the industries. Absenteeism is usually checked by a jobber or a departmental assistant to arrange for substitutes. The fairly high rate of absenteeism in the textile industry acts as a direct check on timekeeping methods since absentee reports are usually daily forwarded to the managers.

(ii) The system of payment varies according to the size of the industry. In most of the Bombay mills, pay slips are given to each worker on the day preceding pay-day and payments are made either departmentally by the cashier assisted by the timekeeper in the presence of a jobber or an assistant departmental head, or else in the office by a similar method, the workpeople being called out in batches. In several Bombay mills however, the envelope system has been introduced, payments being made in sealed envelopes on the work.

In the Ahmedabad mills the pay slips are often given on the date of payment and workpeople are departmentally paid by the timekeeper assisted by a clerk. A jobber or departmental assistant is usually present.

15. (1) There is little work given out on contract by the larger factories, although relatively more contracting is in force in the textile mills in Ahmedabad than Bombay. A considerable increase in bleaching has taken place in Ahmedabad in recent years. This is usually done by contract since the cloth is bleached by hand. Most of the Bombay bleaching is effected by machinery. A few mills in Ahmedabad let out contracts for the mixing department, while a number of mills arrange contracts for the drawing in, and also for cloth folding and baling. Baling contracts are also in force in some of the Bombay mills. Methods in the seasonal factories vary according to local conditions. Where the labour supply is adequate, it is engaged direct and weekly payments are made by the management usually on the local bazaar day. Where labour is scarce a labour contractor is often employed. Payment is often made to him direct on an outturn basis while he pays the workpeople on moneys advanced from time to time at the usual prevailing daily rate or else payment is made by the management direct and debited to the contractor's account. In other instances the contractor simply contracts to supply labour which is paid by the factory management.

In cotton pressing factories the labour for opening and mixing is usually engaged by the owner of the cotton being pressed while the pressing staff is usually employed by the press owner through contractors who are paid at a rate per 100 bales pressed and who pay the men engaged by them.

(iii) Persons engaged by contractors in factories are subject to the restrictions of the Factories Act.

### III. Housing.

17. *Facilities for Acquisition of Land for Workers' Houses.*—I am not aware of any special facilities, but consider that the question of decent housing is one of the chief needs of the working classes. I am not entirely in favour of housing by employers but consider that, up to the present, the advantages in the provision of housing by employers in India have outweighed the disadvantages. If Government could acquire land in anticipation of industrial development, assistance might be given either to employers, municipalities or other organizations interested in the provision of housing for the workers.

### IV. Health.

26. *Sanitary Arrangements, (a) at work Places, (b) at Home.*—(ii) *Drinking water.*—The supply is legally governed by Rules 26, 27 and 28 of the Rules under the Indian Factories Act.

It is thought that the Inspector of Factories should have power to order special drinking facilities for women.

(iii) *Bathing and Washing.*—The Factories Act should permit the local Government to order special facilities in factories where such are needed by the nature of the work. Washing facilities have been provided in several concerns at the instance of the Factory Department.

### V.—Welfare.

32. A note on welfare activities has been incorporated in the factories annual report for a number of years. It would be advantageous if the State made a move forward. If legislation were passed on the lines of the English Police Act, Factories Miscellaneous Provisions Act (6 and 7, Geo. 5, c. 31), more improvements could be effected.

*List of Ahmedabad Textile mills welfare work.*—The list submitted by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association (Bombay witness No. 27) does not include mills who are not members and the labour union report is not up-to-date in my opinion. The information below may give a clearer idea of the position.

*Creches.*—Five very good, 27 passably good but in need of minor improvements in some respects, 14 poor, and 7 none. Out of 53 old mills employing women, 32 have reasonably good arrangements although only 21 have attendants. The seven new mills have not been included as they have recently commenced work, and in most cases will provide creches at an early date, six purely weaving sheds which employ very small numbers of women have also not been included. This makes a total of 66 concerns compared to 83 registered as factories. The difference is because there are in several cases two and three mills in the same compound belonging to one company.

*Chawls.*—With rooms totalling approximately 3,700 rooms have been built.

*Dispensaries.*—In 35 mills whilst many others arrange for their workers to receive attention from a doctor.

*Hospitals.*—In two mills with maternity wards whilst a third has given maternity benefits for a number of years.

*Schools.*—In 11 mills or chawls assisted or run entirely by mills (and in one case by the municipality, another a private person and in a third by the labour union).

Dining sheds and hotels exist in the majority of mills, although in a few old mills lack of space makes provision of dining sheds difficult.

### VII.—Safety.

(Vide Government Memorandum.)

43. *Existing Regulations in Factories.*—In amplification thereof it may be stated that a serious collapse in a mill occurred in Ahmedabad a few years ago and a committee of enquiry recommended: (1) that as the extension of the mill in 1906 without having the plans designed by a qualified architect or civil engineer was unsound, structural alterations or additions to mills should be designed by qualified architects or civil engineers; (2) that the load on the cast iron columns was excessive and should be reduced as much as possible; (3) that as Section 18A of the Factories Act conferred wide powers on inspectors in connection with dangerous buildings, large new factories should be required to forward with the notice of occupation required under Section 33 of the Act, a certificate of stability from a qualified architect.

After the collapse, the question of the strengths of factory structures was specially examined. It was found that while factory buildings were well designed and built in Bombay where the municipal control was effective, such was not the case in Ahmedabad. A new storied extension to a second mill had to be dismantled



while in several others, roofs had to be lightened and cast iron columns strengthened. While there is ample evidence that the lessons of the collapse have been learned in Ahmedabad, the factory inspector found that a new mill was contemplated with columns of about half the requisite strength. In a new mofussil mill the chief inspector found that economy in structures had resulted in extremely weak girders and columns and remedy was effected before the mill started working.

A factory inspector ought to be able to assume that a new building is safe, but the control over the sanction of plans and the erection of buildings by local bodies is often defective.

The following amendments in the Factories Act were accordingly proposed :—

*Section 18A (3).*—If an inspector is of opinion that any factory or part thereof is in such a condition as to be dangerous to life or safety, he may serve on the manager of the factory, an order in writing requiring him, within such time as may be specified in the order, to drill any metal column or pillar used in the structure or to bore through any roof, or floor so that the thickness of metal used in the column or pillar or the thickness of the roof and floors may be correctly ascertained, and the inspector may serve on the manager an order in writing requiring him to forward to the inspector within such time as may be specified therein detailed plans prepared, if so required, by a person of qualifications to be prescribed by the local government, of the factory or any part thereof and such other information as the inspector may require to enable him to be satisfied that the factory and all parts thereof are not dangerous to human life or safety.

*Section 18A (4).*—If an inspector is of opinion that the materials used in the construction of the walls of a factory or any part thereof are of such quality as to render the factory or any part thereof dangerous to life or safety, he may serve on the manager of the factory an order in writing requiring him to forward to the inspector within such time as may be specified in the order, a certified test of the crushing strength of the material used in the walls of the factory or any part thereof, such test to be made in such manner and certified by a person of such qualifications as may be prescribed by the local government.

*New Section 33A.*—The occupier of every factory erected after such date as the local government by notification in the local official gazette may specify, and in which 150 or more persons will be simultaneously employed, shall forward with the notice of occupation required by Section 33 a certificate of stability in such form and signed by a person of such qualifications as may be prescribed by the local government, stating that the factory and all parts thereof are of adequate strength.

Where it is proved to the satisfaction of the local government that such certificate of stability should be forwarded by occupiers of new factories in which less than 150 persons will be simultaneously employed, the local government may, subject to the control of the governor-general in council, by notification in the local official gazette, require the occupiers of such new factories as may be specified and in which more than any specified number of persons will be simultaneously employed, to forward the prescribed certificate of stability from such date as may be notified.

*New sub-section 37 (p).*—"The form of the certificate of stability, and the qualifications prescribed by Section 33A."

*Modification in Section 41 (j).*—This should read "any notice, return or the certificate of stability prescribed by section 33A."

*Modification in Section 49.*—There should be no limitation of six months in the case of an offence for failing to submit the certificate of stability. The Factories Bill, at present under consideration, proposes to abolish the time-limit in the case of offences under Section 33, i.e., for failing to submit the occupation notice. The same should apply to the proposed new section 33A.

44. *Incidence of Accidents in Factories.*—A comparison between the machinery cotton textile accident rate in Great Britain and in the town and island of Bombay is attached (Table III).

50. *Effect of Hours of Work on Safety.*—An analysis of the time incidence of accidents in a large railway workshop and in the spinning and weaving departments of the textile mills of Bombay and Ahmedabad is attached (Tables I and II).

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

60. (iii) *Suitability of Hours during which Factory is Working.*—The employment of women and children is governed by the limitations of Sections 24 and 51. A few areas of the cotton ginning industry are somewhat adversely affected. A late and heavy crop in the Broach and Surat areas is occasionally a gamble with the next

monsoon, and although the difficulty has not arisen recently, it is considered that the local government should have power in certain areas to slightly extend the timings permitted by Sections 24 and 51. The power should be limited to seasonal industries.

In England, "night" means the period between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m.

(iv) *Number of holidays given.*—Government establishments, railways and some other establishments give Sundays as holidays in addition to the usual recognized government holidays.

The following information from the textile industry may be useful:—

	Sundays.	Other holidays.	Total holidays.	Remarks.
Bombay Millowners' Association's list (1926).	39	18	57	Variations from the list are occasionally made.
Bombay Millowners' Association's list (1927).	39	16	55	
Bombay Millowners' Association's list (1928).	37	18	55	
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association's list (1927).	38	15	53	The Millowners' Association, Ahmedabad, were asked to stabilise holidays a few years ago. A holiday list is now published but there are frequent departures from it. In 1929, actuals will be about 30 Sundays and 26 other days. A few extra holidays are given.
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association's list (1928).	41	14	55	
Ahmedabad Millowners' Association's list (1929).	42	13	55	
Sholapur—One group of three mills (1926).	20	37	57	Actual holidays given. The mills have been asked to stabilise holidays in Sholapur.
Sholapur—One group of three mills (1927).	25	33	58	
Sholapur—One group of three mills (1928).	28	33	60	
Sholapur—A fourth mill (1926) ..	23	34	57	
Sholapur—A fourth mill (1927) ..	27	31	58	
Sholapur—A fourth mill (1928) ..	28	32	58	
Sholapur—A fifth mill (1926) ..	22	35	57	
Sholapur—A fifth mill (1927) ..	22	33	55	
Sholapur—A fifth mill (1928) ..	27	33	60	
Sholapur—A sixth mill (1926) ..	25	32	57	
Sholapur—A sixth mill (1927) ..	26	30	56	
Sholapur—A sixth mill (1928) ..	23	35	58	
Sholapur—A seventh mill (1926) ..	25	31	56	
Sholapur—A seventh mill (1927) ..	26	30	56	
Sholapur—A seventh mill (1928) ..	23	35	58	
Barsi .. .. .	—	—	—	The mills generally observe Saturdays as the weekly holiday. The mills generally observe Sundays as the weekly holiday.
Gokak .. .. .	—	—	—	

61. *Day of Rest*—(i) *Existing practices.*—Information has been supplied—Chapter VIII of the Government memorandum.

(ii) *Suitability of the law.*—A "week" means (Section 2 (8)) the period between midnight on Saturday night and midnight on the succeeding Saturday night, and corresponds with the English definition. English law is not however, applicable to male adults. Difficulties in connection with shifts of male adults do not therefore arise. In Bombay it has been impossible to get shifts to change at midnight. Such a change is not in the interests of workpeople or employers. The local government should therefore have power to vary the definition of week or for the maximum hours to be counted over a period of two weeks. The question of shifts is linked up also with the weekly rest day. Under Section 22 a "whole day" must be given. Normally the week end rest is about 36 hours duration. Legally it may be only 24 hours—from midnight Saturday to midnight Sunday. Actually it is possible to give 47 hours' rest and not give a "whole day".

According to Article 2 of the International Labour Convention it is only necessary to prescribe a period of rest comprising at least 24 consecutive hours.

I think Section 22 should be amended in the interests of employers and employees. It should also permit substitution within three days of the weekly bazaar day generally observed in the seasonal factories where Sunday has no significance.

. . . . .

## X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

### A.—Factories.

89. (ii) The smaller factories are not at present under adequate inspection while employers have no responsibilities under the Workmen's Compensation Act. Work-people in such concerns are therefore at a double disadvantage. Distances in India are large and an extension of the Act would throw a large amount of extra work on the inspecting staff. The advisability of extending only the safety provisions of the Factories Act and the reporting of accidents to small concerns may be worth considering.

### XII.—Wages.

108. *Indebtedness.*—Information collected by a mofussil mill revealed the following position : Of 2,000 persons in the spinning department, 994 or practically 50 per cent. were in debt.

Information relative to the interest charged was obtained and the following theoretical interest charges were worked out in the factory office and confirmed by the manager :—

Department.	Salary.	Number of indebted persons.	Average interest charge per month per indebted person.	Remarks.
A B C Spinning .. ..	Below Rs. 25	881	Rs. 3.79	
do. .. ..	26-50	38	4.9	
do. .. ..	51-75	4	10.9	
B (Weaving, Folding, etc.) .. ..	Below Rs. 25	131	5.37	
do. .. ..	26-50	37	7.6	
C Weaving .. ..	Below Rs. 25	122	8.9	C is a new mill.
do. .. ..	26-50	50	10.06	

Several factories grant advances to the workers, interest being charged at varying rates. A few concerns charge exorbitant interest. No risk is involved in the transactions and while it is considered that in the present state of labour, advances are helpful, the charging of exorbitant interest should be prevented.

A clause in the Factories Act stating that where advances are given, the rate of interest charged should be reasonable, may be considered.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

115. *Effect on Production of—(ii) Changes in other working conditions.*—The loom sheds concerned contained about 500 looms each.

I think it is undisputed that the textile industry is convinced that expenditure on ventilation and humidification means increased industrial efficiency. Conditions in Ahmedabad, formerly the worst centre in the Presidency, are being rapidly changed. Thus 37 of the older mills have spent Rs. 9,97,000 on ventilating improvements in the last few years. Six new mills have spent Rs. 7,34,000.

Four mills in Sholapur have spent over Rs. 3,00,000 while relatively smaller amounts have been expended in other centres.

### XVII.—Administration.

139. *Factory Inspection.*—Information has been supplied *vide* Government memorandum, and in amplification thereof it may be stated that the average fine per case in Britain in 1927 for irregular employment was 17 shillings whilst the average per similar case in the Bombay Presidency in 1928 was Rs. 23.

The following further proposals for the amendment of the Factories Act may be considered :—

(a) *Section 2 (3) (a) and (b).*—The word "simultaneously" may be omitted. Under Section 2 (3) (a) it is possible to work 57 persons on three 8-hour shifts and 38 on two 12-hour shifts without the concern being amenable to the Act.

(b) An addition to Section 2 on the lines of Section 149 (5) of the English Act, viz. : "A place or premises shall not be excluded from the definition of a factory or workshop by reason only that the place or premises is or are in the open air" appears to be desirable.

(c) *Section 7.*—An addition on the lines of Section 64 (5) of the English Act is considered advisable, viz.: "The certificate may be qualified by conditions as to the work on which a child is fit to be employed and if it is so qualified, the occupier shall not employ the child otherwise than in accordance with the conditions."

Certificates are granted after an examination for age and fitness. Some children are unfit for strenuous employment owing to their poverty and fitness would improve with light employment.

(d) *Section 17.*—The word "immediate" may be deleted and an inspector may be granted power to order the posting and maintenance of vernacular notices prohibiting smoking in certain departments of factories.

(e) *Section 30 (2).*—The chief inspector should be granted power to exempt. Cases arise in practice demanding instant decision. The Government of India have issued orders that all exemptions should be included in the annual reports. This is a sufficient guarantee against abuse. In some instances exemptions are directly in the interests of the bulk of the employees.

(f) *Section 34.*—The word "ordinary" should be inserted between "his" and "work" in the third line. Instances have been known where persons have been seriously injured and reports have not been sent on the ground that the persons have been employed on light work.

The above would follow the English definition. The section may also be simplified so that notices of dangerous occurrences need not be submitted in a prescribed form.

An extension appears to be necessary to cover the reporting of accidents to persons on factory premises who are directly covered by an order under Section 19 A of the Act.

(g) *Control over shifts.*—It is thought that the Inspector should be granted control over shifts in seasonal factories.

(h) An equivalent section to Section 79 of the English Act should be incorporated in the Indian Factories Act.

(j) The Factories Act should provide that every child should receive a weekly holiday.

(k) Action is considered necessary to control the use of chains, ropes, and cranes. Clause 22 of the English Factories Bill would be suitable.

*Comparative Accident Statement between the Cotton Textile Industry in Great Britain and the Town and Island of Bombay.*

*Effect of hours of work on safety.*

The following figures show the relation between the time incidence of factory accidents:—

TABLE I.

Number of accidents reported from a railway workshop (1927).	Time of occurrence of accidents.								
	8 to 9	9 to 10	10 to 11	11 to 12	1 to 2	2 to 3	3 to 4	4 to 5	5 to 5.30
	75	164	177	127	77	112	137	104	43

TABLE II.

*Hourly frequency of Textile accidents (Spinning and Weaving), 1927, for Bombay and Ahmedabad.*

Place.	Department.	Time of occurrence of accidents.											Remarks.
		7 to 8	8 to 9	9 to 10	10 to 11	11 to 12	1 to 2	2 to 3	3 to 4	4 to 5	5 to 6		
Bombay ..	Spinning ..	30	53	53	31	58	27	27	45	57	57	Spinning Departments include: Mixing, Blowing Card, Drawing, Frames, Spinning and Reeling Departments. Weaving, Departments include: Winding, Warping, Sizing, Weaving, Calendering, Folding and Belling Departments.	
Do. ...	Weaving ..	19	23	46	29	36	27	32	31	36	36		
Ahmedabad	Spinning ..	21	16	24	32	21	14	16	19	22	13		
Do. ...	Weaving ..	8	12	21	11	15	11	15	19	14	19		
	Total ..	78	84	144	103	130	79	90	114	129	127		

TABLE III.

Cotton textile machinery accidents, excluding those on prime movers, transmission, machine tools, circular saws and abrasive wheels.				Remarks.
	1	2	3	
	Acci- dents	Em- ployees	Rate per 100 persons	
Great Britain	25,978	517,232	.50	Column (1) :—Figures from Chief Inspector of Factories Report, England (page 144, 1927). Column (2) :—Great Britain census of production figures, 1924 (1927 employment figures are probably less). Bombay Town and Island figures are for 1927. Working hours :—Great Britain 48½ hours per week, Bombay 60 hours per week.
Town and Island of Bombay	4,400	148,005	.30	An accident means an accident which is either fatal or disables the workman for more than 8 days.

MRS. K. WAGH, SENIOR LADY INVESTIGATOR, LABOUR OFFICE,  
BOMBAY.

#### I.—Recruitment.

(1) (ii) *Causes of particular streams of Migration.—Konkan.*—Most of the Bombay factory workers come from the Konkan, Bombay being the nearest industrial centre by steamer. The immigrants can be broadly classified as labourers, agriculturists and tenants. The causes of migration of each of these are :—

*The Labouring Class.*—The labouring class who possess neither land nor tenancy in the villages do not get sufficient work on the farms of others on account of bad harvest, etc., and depend therefore fully on industrial work for the means of subsistence.

*The Agriculturists.*—Bad harvest debts and need of cash for purchasing land or cattle drive the agriculturists to take up factory work.

*The Tenants.*—Temptation of cash payment not only attracts the landless labourers but also the tenants who are desirous of buying more land or of securing the means of improving their holdings. The joint family system makes migration more easy as the small holdings are generally incapable of supporting the whole families even for three or four months in a year. So some members of the families leave the farms for factory work.

A small number coming from the Koshti (weavers) community takes up factory work as it has become impossible for them to earn sufficient wages for livelihood on the handlooms in their villages.

*Deccan.*—The immigrants from Deccan (*i.e.*, Poona, Satara, etc.) in the mill industry mainly belong to the low castes such as Mahara, Mochis, etc. These are mostly landless labourers and on account of bad harvests, etc., cannot get sufficient work in their villages, so they take up factory work for earning a livelihood. A small number of these Deccanis belong to the agriculturists' class who take up factory work because their land is not productive on account of irregularity of monsoon except where irrigation has been introduced.

*Gujarati.*—The Gujarathi workers are naturally attracted to Ahmedabad which is nearer to them than Bombay. A small number of the Gujarathi mill workers in Bombay mainly come from the Dhed and the Bhangi communities. The chief reason for these landless labourers taking work in Bombay is that the relatives of most of the workers are permanently employed in Bombay municipal and other departments and are settled there permanently.

*The United Provinces.*—The unsatisfactory conditions of agriculture drive many of the workers to take up factory work. The joint family system makes certain members free from their home duties and enables them to add to their family income. Also the small wages and insufficient work in the province force many of them to come to Bombay for industrial work.

*Madras.*—The Telanga workers in Bombay mills are generally landless labourers. On account of bad harvest and insufficient work in their province they come here to take up factory work. Besides their standard of living being low they can compete on easy terms with labour outside the province and can go over to any part of India.

(2) (i) Only a small proportion of the mill population is permanently settled in Bombay. They have neither houses nor relatives at their native villages and so they never care to return there. Even in times of difficulties such as sickness, accidents, etc., when they cannot work, they have to remain in Bombay as their relatives on whom the burden of their maintenance now falls work in the mills or somewhere else in Bombay. These are chiefly Muhammadans from Northern India and some Konkanis.

The majority of the mill population who depend more or less entirely on the mill industry for livelihood visit their villages every year for change and rest as they like to spend some time every year in their villages amid congenial rural surroundings. Most of them possess ancestral houses and have relatives in the villages.

The general season of return is the last month of the Hindu calendar when their Shimga festival falls, *i.e.*, in the month of March. The period of stay varies from one to two months and some prefer to go earlier and return immediately after Shimga while others go immediately before Shimga and return before the monsoons. Thus the period of retirement is from January to March and of return is from March to May. In short they visit their villages once a year necessarily for one to two months. The Ghatees generally return to their villages for the Dasara festival which falls in October or for the annual fairs of their respective villages between October and December.

There is no tendency to retire to the villages in cases of minor sickness, but in cases of serious illness or continuous attacks of malaria, etc., they usually return to their villages.

Those on the other hand who take factory work as supplementing their agricultural income naturally prefer to return in the monsoons. Their usual stay in Bombay is only about eight months as they come to Bombay when the agricultural season is over and when there is no work at home. They are attached more to their homes than to Bombay. Having their lands and houses in the villages they have their families stationed there more or less permanently which thus becomes an additional attraction to them. Some of them remain at home even for more than two or three years for agricultural purposes according to the necessity of their presence in the villages.

As said above these agriculturists leave their families in the villages and in cases of sickness, etc., in the family, marriages and similar occasions they have to return home. But in such cases they do not live there for more than about a fortnight.

This is however true of only those workers who come from nearby places such as Konkan, Decca, etc. The up country men, *i.e.*, United Provinces Muhammadans and Bhayyas and also the Telangu workers cannot afford to go every year on account of high travelling expenses. They visit their villages every three or four years for about four to six months.

(ii) Almost all the mill operatives except a few agriculturists put in at least ten months' service during a year, the remaining two months being spent in the villages. Though they thus keep a close contact with their villages and leave their work for visiting the villages every year most of their life is passed in the city on industrial work. They can, therefore, be said to belong to the permanent labour force. Some mill operatives who have permanently settled in Bombay and who very scarcely return to their villages do not stop work necessarily every year, and sometimes put in more than two years' continuous services. Even the agriculturists who stop factory work in the agricultural season work in the mills at least for about eight months during a year.

All these workers may be classified as permanent labourers of the Bombay mill industry. This, however, does not mean that they work permanently in any one mill.

Those agriculturists who take up factory work at intervals of some years cannot be said to belong to the permanent labour force. They take up mill industry as a supplementary work and spend more years in agricultural work at home than in mill work in the city. Such cases are, however, few.

3. (i) In the days of scarcity of labour, mill managers depended entirely on their jobbers and mukadams to secure the necessary labour, and the latter thus got opportunities to make a regular income by taxing the recruits. If they failed to get recruits who would pay them well, they did not hesitate to keep the machinery idle till the desired element turned up.

Even now the recruitment still lies in the hands of the jobbers and mukadams, and they exercise a great influence on the hands, but as labour is plentiful and there is a rush of hands at the gates of each mill the machinery cannot be kept idle as the

managers now know that labour is easily available. So the jobbers and mukadams do not get much chance to exact money from the recruits and the workers are not harassed as before. Still they are not quite free. They have generally to satisfy the jobbers and mukadams by offering something, though in a few cases admission has been secured without spending a single pie. The average amount of the entrance money can be put down at from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 per worker. So also the weavers who sustain loss owing to defective machinery and bad yarn are always on a look-out for better jobs and the jobbers who secure these for them receive a remuneration.

A Naikin who recruits female labour claims money from them, not only at the time of recruitment but afterwards also every month at about eight annas per head, and in cases of default punishes them by not supplying sufficient materials for work.

All this is supposed to be going on secretly without the knowledge of the authorities.

8. *Labour "Turnover"*—(i) *Average duration of employment.*—The peculiar character of the Bombay immigrants is that they never stick to one mill. The causes are both justifiable and unjustifiable. In the former may be classed bad treatment, bad yarn, defective machinery, insufficient supply of materials, situation of the mill far away from their residence, etc. In the latter category come *gaumwallas* (i.e., workers hailing from the same place) joining another mill or the dismissal of a favourite mukadam or jobber, etc.

Breaks in service are very common among the mill workers. There are very few cases of continuous services. The duration of the employment in one mill varies from eight days to even more than ten years. I have come across so many cases of workers who have left one mill for another even after fifteen years' service for trivial reasons. The percentage of mill workers who have completed more than ten years' service in one and the same mill is very small. It must be taken for granted that these ten or more years are not without break. A worker putting in one or two years' mill service will be found to have served at least in two mills.

The main reason for this temptation to change one mill for another appears to be the lack of a system like the provident fund, which if established will undoubtedly help to stabilize them.

### III.—Housing.

18. (i) A large number of tenements occupied by the Bombay mill workers belong to the private landlords. Naturally the tenements have been built not with a view to providing the workers' requirements but with a view to making the maximum profit. The owners generally have built one-room tenements at rents within the reach of the workers. And even these are hardly sufficient for the barest needs of a normal family.

The workers themselves never raise the question as they are afraid that they will have to pay more rent for more accommodation. The workers do not know the disadvantages of living in dark, ill-ventilated dwellings. They must be educated in this respect and be taught the advantages of better standard of living then only they will be able to state their demands.

Judging from the way they partition the verandah wherever one is provided with empty gunny bags to convert it into a kitchen, one can infer that a modest two-room tenement, one living room and other kitchen with a fair-sized *shaw* to serve as a bathing place, should satisfy their needs.

So long, however, as the work of providing houses is left to private agencies it is bound to be based on economic considerations only.

20. The number of tenements provided by employers for the labourers is comparatively very small. The rent for these tenements varies from Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 6-8-0 for single rooms and Rs. 10-8-0 to Rs. 12 for double rooms.

In the case of other chawls provided by private landlords and other agencies such as Bombay Improvement Trust and Bombay Development Department, etc., the rent depends not only on the accommodation of the rooms but also on the localities in which they are situated. There is a great demand for tenements in the centre of the mill area where rents are generally higher than in other localities.

In spite of the low rent in the Worli chawls most of the tenements there are vacant. A question naturally arises as to why the workers do not go the Worli chawls which have been built on a good site with large open spaces around with up-to-date sanitary fittings. I have often asked the workers their reasons about this and they say (1) that the chawls are far away from the mill localities, (2) that their *gaumwallas* (people coming from the same villages) do not stay in or around Worli and (3) persons like Pathans, of whom they are usually afraid, live there.

The following table is intended to give an idea of the prevailing rates :—

*Table Showing the Various Rent Rates and Accommodations.*

Agencies.	Approximate accommodation in one-room tenements.	Rent.	Approximate accommodation in two-room tenements.	Rent.
Millowners .. .. .	10' × 10' to 12' × 14'.	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 6-8-0.	10' × 12' each to 12' × 14' each.	Rs. 10-8-0 to Rs. 12.
Private .. .. .	8' × 8' to 10' × 14'.	Rs. 4-8-0 to Rs. 7-8-0.	8' × 8' each to 10' × 8'; 12' × 10'.	Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12.
Bombay Improvement Trust. Open for all.	9' × 9' 6" to 11' × 11' with independent verandah 9' 6" × 4' 6". Verandah 11' × 5'.	Rs. 4-15-0 to Rs. 9-8-0.		
Bombay Development Department.	16' × 10' with verandah 18' × 10'.	Rs. 5 to Rs. 8. For corner rooms Rs. 9 are charged		
Bombay Port Trust for Bombay Port Trust. Workers only.	10' × 10' with independent verandah 10' × 4'.	Rs. 5-8-0 to Rs. 7-8-0 on percentage of wages.		
Municipal for sweepers and scavengers.	12' × 10'	Ten annas per head in the family employed in the municipality.  Other members of the family who are not employed in the municipality are charged Re. 1 and Rs. 2 respectively for female and male members.		

#### IV. Health.

23. (iv) The dietary of the Bombay working class varies according to the provinces from which they come. The Ghatis from the Western Ghats consume more jowari and bajri than rice while the Konkani immigrants consume chiefly rice.

The staple food of the workers (Muhammadans and Bhayyas) from Northern India is wheat. Turdal is consumed by all the classes even by the Muhammadans. The Konkanis are fond of pulses such as turdal, grams, watanas, etc.



Potatoes, onions and greens are generally the vegetables consumed by the working classes.

The Konkanis like fish, but they cannot afford to spend much on fish as well as on mutton. The Ghatias take mutton only, and that also very scarcely.

The Muhammadans take mutton and beef even more than vegetables. The Konkani Muhammadans generally do not take beef.

As for eggs and fowls the working-class families as a rule cannot afford them.

The expenditure on milk is very small, and I have seen people taking tea without milk. They cannot afford to buy milk even for children.

The Muhammadans from Northern India spend a little on milk and ghee; Bhayyas spend more on ghee.

The Ghatias and the workers from the Northern India use sweet oil in cooking, while the Konkanis use cocoanut oil.

Some Konkanis and Muhammadans generally prepare tea at home once a day. The male workers take refreshments from shops, which consists generally of tea, butter, biscuits and Bhajias.

*Ahmedabad workers.*—Unlike the Bombay and Sholapur workers the Ahmedabad workers do not stick to one staple food throughout the year. The Hindu workers in Ahmedabad change their dietary according to seasons. In the monsoon they consume chiefly bajri, while in the summer they consume wheat and in the winter wheat or bajri according to liking and means. Kichare, i.e., rice cooked with mung or turdal is taken at night, generally throughout the year. The Patidar families can afford to purchase wheat but prefer bajri as they are used to it.

Among pulses turdal, mung dal and grams are consumed more than other pulses.

Many of the Ahmedabad workers are vegetarians. The non-vegetarian Hindu workers take mutton and the Muhammadans both mutton and beef. The Gujrathis like ghee, and even poor families purchase it. They use sweet oil in cooking.

The expenses on refreshment of an Ahmedabad family are less than that of a Bombay family.

*Sholapur workers.*—The staple food of the Sholapur workers is jowari. They use rice and wheat at times.

Turdal and gram dal are chiefly used for *sunaha* (a paste-like preparation of gram flour with spices) and curry. These workers as a rule do not like fish. Mutton is taken twice or once in a month. Like the Bombay workers they use onions, potatoes and seasonal vegetables. These people use chilly and spices more than the Bombay and Ahmedabad workers. Sweet oil is used in cooking.

One peculiarity of these workers is that they use raw sugar with bread. They take tea very scarcely but sometimes take milk with bread. Those who attend the gymnasium take milk necessarily.

On the whole the dietary of the workers is poor, there is no variety in the food which is not very nutritious. They cannot afford such items as mutton, milk and even staples of higher quality. At least the staples (bajri, wheat, jowari) of the Ahmedabad and the Sholapur workers are a little more nutritious than the staples of the Bombay workers, who chiefly consume rice only. The Konkanis no doubt take rice in their villages also, but the quality they use in villages is quite different and superior to the quality they consume in the city. In the villages they use rice prepared at home by themselves and they even make use of the water of the boiled rice, which is nutritious and tasty, but the rice they use in the city is tasteless and malnutritious.

(v) *Physique.*—The health of the majority of the workers does not seem to be satisfactory, the strenuous nature of their work being one of the reasons. They have to pass about 10 hours of the day in the fibre-laden atmosphere in the mills and get very little time to pass in open air. There is much difference in the work of an agricultural and an industrial labourer, though both of them have to work hard for about 10 to 11 hours a day for their livelihood. The former works in the open air all through the day and can take rest when he requires it, whereas the latter is confined to one place and in bad atmosphere and can take rest only at a fixed interval.

City life is further responsible for the bad health of the workers. The insanitary living conditions and the habits of drinking and taking tea frequently are also equally responsible. In the villages they can scarcely afford these things for want of cash. The situation of the liquor shops at a long distance from their houses in the villages helps them to check their desire. The city workers on the contrary cannot resist the temptation when they see the liquor shops near at hand in the very same locality where they live. The system of some shopkeepers to give liquor on credit further helps the process. Again, the city workers are much used to taking tea. Often the tea taken by them is of inferior quality and cheap. It is rarely freshly prepared, and is thus injurious to their health, particularly affecting the appetite. A worker who is in Bombay continuously for about two years finds that he cannot consume as much food as he used to consume in his village. The housing conditions are very

unsatisfactory. The rooms provided for them are ill-ventilated and dark and the sanitary arrangements often defective. About 97 per cent. of the working-class families live in one-room tenements. The rooms are generally crowded. The result of overcrowding in one-room tenements badly ventilated and very little open to sunlight is bound to be injurious to their health. And when to this are added the fatigues of indoor physical work, want of open-air recreation, drink and other bad habits, the result can best be imagined. Generally the Konkani workers, who form about three-fourth of the mill population, are not fond of gymnastics and never try to develop their bodies. The malaria also plays an important part in destroying their health.

Generally the women workers are not much used to taking tea. But the health of the women workers is more affected than that of the male workers by the present conditions of living. She is a wage-earner as well as a domestic drudge and has to sustain the strain doubly. She cannot pass even 15 minutes (except those spent in going to and coming from work) of a day in open air. Her bodily growth is stunted on account of over-work. Even in her delicate condition she cannot get rest, and sometimes she has to work up to the moment of confinement. When she delivers, rest is again denied to her as she is left alone at home to take care of her child and self as the other members have to attend work. She cannot get fresh and warm food. Often the nursing of the child is done by herself from the fifth or sixth day of her delivery and she has to look after the household duties if not to attend the mill work after the eleventh day. After one or two months of her delivery, according to the pecuniary circumstances of her family she again joins her mill. Naturally this cannot but affect the health of the women, many of whom look pale and anaemic.

Though the conditions of health are as described above, one would not come across many cases of tuberculosis. And the reason seems to be that many of the workers (males and females) leave Bombay for their native villages as soon as they suspect "kadaki" (vernacular name for tuberculosis in first stage).

26. (b) (i) *Latrines in Private Chawls.*—There are very few private chawls for the workers in Bombay where latrines on the flushing system have been provided, and still fewer where the flushing is in order, and that is why even in chawls with flushing w.c.'s the same sanitary inconveniences are experienced as in the chawls where the old type (basket system) w.c.'s are provided.

The chawls of the workers are generally in groups of 50 and more rooms. In some chawls, latrines are provided at the end of each chawl according to the number of tenements, and in others a separate block is provided at a short distance from the residential rooms.

Partly on account of the ignorance and laziness of the users and partly on account of the carelessness of the owners, the w.c.'s are kept so dirty that it becomes very difficult even to move about in the chawls on account of the unbearable smell.

One would really pity the occupants of the rooms which are close to the w.c.'s. Sometimes the dirty water from the w.c.'s flows in front of the chawls, emitting bad smells. In the monsoon all sorts of insects can be seen in the latrines. The scavengers never care to clean the w.c.'s from inside.

Apart from the insanitary conditions of latrines in most of the chawls, at least a few of the w.c.'s are out of order and useless. Some are without doors, some without bolts from inside and some with broken walls.

The conditions of latrines in storied buildings are still worse. In many of the chawls the dirty water from the upper floor w.c.'s leaks down to the lower floor w.c.'s.

*Latrines in Millowners' Chawls.*—The conditions of w.c.'s in millowners' chawls are not far superior to the conditions of w.c.'s in private chawls. In many chawls, w.c.'s on flushing system have been provided. Like the private chawls here also in some chawls w.c.'s are provided at the end of each chawl, and in some a separate block is provided at a short distance from the residential quarters.

*Latrines in B.D.D., B.P.T. and B.I.T Chawls.*—The arrangement of w.c.'s are far better in chawls provided by the above departments. Flushing system has been introduced in almost all the chawls. W.c.'s are provided not in separate blocks but in each chawl on each floor in most of the chawls. In some B.P.T. chawls only w.c.'s are provided in separate blocks. The number of w.c.'s seems to be adequate to the number of rooms.

(ii) *Drinking Water.*—In many of the private chawls the number of taps provided does not appear to be adequate judging from the crowd that one invariably sees at these places. No taps are provided exclusively for drinking purposes. They are used for drinking, washing, cleaning utensils and bathing.

Again some of these are often out of order and do not appear to receive prompt attention from the landlords in spite of complaints to the rent collector. This adds to the inconvenience.

In some chawls, taps are provided at the end of each chawl on each floor and in others a separate stand for the same is provided just near the chawls.

When the water supply was on the intermittent system there used to be a terrible rush at the taps generally from 4.30 to 7 a.m. and from 5.30 to 7.30 p.m., as everyone had to store water before leaving for work and after coming from work, and even those who did not attend work could not remain behind for fear of losing the chance of storing water when it was available. This led to quarrels and sometimes to fighting among the tenants.

In some private storied chawls, taps are provided only on the ground floors, which causes great inconvenience to the tenants who occupy the upper floors as they have to carry the water up the dilapidated staircases rendered slippery by the water spilling from their utensils.

The tap-stands are never cleaned properly. The tenants do not pay any attention to them because they do not realise its importance. The landlords do not pay attention to them because they do not care for the health of their tenants.

The arrangements for drinking water in chawls provided by the millowners are more or less the same.

*B.D.D., B.P.T. and B.I.T. Chawls.*—Adequate number of taps is provided in each chawl on each floor in the B.D.D. and B.I.T. chawls. In the B.P.T. chawls, separate stands of taps for drinking purposes are provided at a little distance from the residential quarters. This system causes inconvenience to the tenants especially to those occupying upper floors. In almost all the chawls provided by the above departments, arrangements are made to keep the tap-stands clean. Most of the chawls have a caretaker who seems to control the dirty habits of the tenants.

(iii) *Bathing and Washing.*—Bathing places as such, either separate or in blocks, are never provided in any of the Bombay chawls. Small rectangular spaces about 2 ft. by 2 ft., partially closed by a dwarf wall on one side, are provided in each tenement. They serve as a bath-room, a wash-stand, a sink and a receptacle for any waste water all combined in one and are called "Nhanis." The nhanis are so small that one can hardly sit conveniently in them. Baths have, therefore, to be taken standing, and as an Indian bath is taken by pouring water over the body it is inevitable that some of this water should find its way into the room.

In many of the chawls the nhanis in the rooms are not in good order; they often get choked up and become useless, and in spite of the complaints generally made to the rent collectors (because most of the tenants do not know even the names of their landlords) are not repaired promptly. Often in storied private chawls the condition of nhanis is deplorable. The dirty water from upper nhanis leaks down. Sometimes the pipes of the nhanis which are generally in the verandah are broken and the verandahs cannot be used as the dirty water flows therein.

Again, in some private chawls, rooms are without nhanis, which causes unspeakable inconvenience to the occupants, especially to the women. The male members in such rooms take their bath at the tap-stands, thus adding to the crowd, who flock there for storing water, cleaning utensils and washing. The women folk do not like to take their baths at the crowded tap-stands and they come out in the open in front of their respective rooms for bathing. When there are cases of delivery, etc. (generally these people do not go to hospitals for deliveries) it becomes very inconvenient for them. At such times I have seen small pits dug inside the rooms just near the beds of the women for making bathing arrangements for the newly-born children and the mothers. Such chawls are ground-floor structures only.

In some chawls where nhanis are not provided in the rooms, common nhanis, one for about eight or ten tenements, are provided just near the tap-stands. This arrangement also is equally inconvenient to the tenants.

*Mill Chawls.*—In very few millowners' chawls closed nhanis are provided. Here the arrangements are comparatively better. But in many of the chawls nhanis are provided in the rooms themselves. The nhanis are naturally very small as sufficient space cannot be had for them, the single living rooms being already very small. Inconvenience, due to lack of supervision on the part of the landlords, is experienced by the tenants of the mill-owned chawls also. But at least this much is true, that nhanis are provided in all the rooms, which removes a great deal of inconvenience. In some chawls, however, nhanis—one for two tenements—are supplied just in front of the rooms in the verandah.

*B.D.D., B.I.T. and B.P.T. Chawls.*—In all the B.D.D. and B.I.T. and in some of the B.P.T. chawls, closed nhanis are attached to the rooms. The arrangements of nhanis in these chawls are far better than in the private or millowners' chawls.

In some chawls of the B.P.T. there are common nhanis near the tap-stands. This is generally not liked by the tenants and in many of the ground floor structures of the B.P.T. pits are dug by the tenants inside the rooms for the bath of the women folk. After the bath is taken the waste water in the pit is baled out by pots.

*Washing.*—No separate arrangements are made for washing purposes in most of the private, mill-owned or B.D.D. chawls. Some of the B.I.T. chawls provide separate washstands for their tenants. Still in the B.D.D. and B.I.T. chawls, where separate washstands are not provided, the same amount of inconvenience is not experienced as in the private and mill-owned chawls. And the reason seems to be that in private and in some of the mill-owned chawls the number of taps is inadequate. The tap stands in most of the private and mill chawls are so dirty and slippery that there may not be a single day on which accidents do not occur.

*General Sanitation.*—As for other sanitary arrangements, there being no drainage system in the north of Bombay, the dirty water flows in open house gullies around the chawls. The house gullies in many cases are quite close to the chawls. Often the w.c.'s being inconvenient for the children the gullies are used by them and this adds more to the dirt around the chawls. In almost all the chawls and in some of the mill-owned chawls the entrances are strewn with rubbish—refuse of food and all other useless things. There are no baskets kept in the chawls for collecting refuse and in a few cases where they are provided no use is made of them. The sanitary arrangements in the mill-owned chawls are not as hopeless as in the private chawls, but are not so good as in the B.P.T., B.D.D. or B.I.T. chawls. In the chawls provided by the above departments, baskets are kept in each chawl. Sweepers are engaged to remove the refuse twice a day and if they find that the baskets are not used they force the tenants to use them.

In many of the chawls there are supervisors who check the dirty habits of the workers. But, where there is no such check, and no suitable sanitary arrangements exist, the workers' chawls are a model of insanitary conditions.

## XII.—Wages.

108. (ii) The workers who have permanently settled in Bombay, and the agriculturists who take to factory work temporarily, are somewhat free from debt. The remaining, i.e., about 50 per cent. of the families, are more or less involved in debts.

The causes that lead to indebtedness are generally connected with marriages, funerals, festivals, old debts incurred either by the workers' parents or by themselves before coming to Bombay, bad habits contracted in Bombay, especially drinking, and the small margin of saving that the workers' wages leave for emergency such as sickness, unemployment, etc.

When a villager comes to Bombay for factory work, he comes with empty pockets and takes the shelter of one of his relatives or gaumwallas. He fully depends on the helping hand of his relative till he gets work, and even after he gets work he cannot draw his wages till he puts in about one and a half month's services on account of the monthly payment system. This is the real beginning of his future indebtedness. Again, when he gets his first pay, it is not spent in repaying the loan, but on merry-making and entertaining friends. So again till the next pay-day he is more or less dependent on his relative, incurring more and more debts. But in this, the first stage of indebtedness, he is free from high rates of interest. Later on, when he brings his family and settles here, his relatives cannot help him any more and he has to take loans from the Pathans and the Marwari moneylenders at high rates of interest and once he gets into their clutches he rarely escapes.

On account of high rates of interest it becomes impossible for a worker to get rid of his debt. After defraying all his expenses he can afford at the most about Rs. 2 to 3 for repaying his loan every month. Thus a man who has taken a loan of say Rs. 40 and has to pay Rs. 2-8 annas (1 anna per rupee) as interest per month (sometimes if the rate is higher this goes even up to Rs. 5 per month) can afford to pay from month to month only the interest from his monthly savings and nothing towards the repayment of the original sum which thus always hangs round his neck as a perpetual dead weight.

In many cases loans are taken from the grocers with whom the workers keep the credit accounts for purchasing foodstuffs. So when a worker goes to pay off his interest the shopkeeper first puts it down to his account of foodstuffs and thus in some months even the interest remains unpaid.

The usual rate of interest charged by Pathans and Marwaris is from 1 anna to 2 annas per rupee per month without security, and 1 anna on security such as gold or silver ornaments. Further, ignorant workers do not know what interest is charged, how much is repaid and how much remains to be paid from month to month. Generally the Pathans deduct the first month's interest from the loan amount itself, i.e., if a person borrows Rs. 5 at 2 annas per rupee, he receives only Rs. 4-6 annas in cash.

In addition to charging high rates of interest the Pathans and the Marwaris harass their debtors a good deal. Often the workers after taking their payments from mills hide themselves (they do not even attend work for two or three days) for fear of the Pathans seizing their wages and not leaving them anything to live on.

In marriages and funerals a good deal of expenditure is incurred on unnecessary items, such as presents to relatives and drinking.

In many cases the remittances to be sent to dependents at their native villages is equally responsible for the indebtedness. It is not possible for many to save anything after defraying their own family expenses in Bombay for remitting to their relatives in the villages. So at least twice a year they have to take loans for remittances. In some cases it happens that if an agriculturist brother of a mill worker fails to pay his dues to his landlord he sends the latter to his brother in Bombay to recover the amount and the poor worker has to raise a loan to pay him, i.e., the members of joint families working in mills have to incur loans to save their families at home from indebtedness.

One more reason for the indebtedness of the mill workers is that most of them are without work for at least from one to two months when they go to their native villages. During the period they incur additional expenses in addition to the maintenance of their families, for travelling to and from the villages. Moreover, when they are in their villages for rest they spend a little lavishly as they are fond of showing to their gaumwallas that the Bombay mill workers are very happy though they themselves know that they really are not.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. (ii) The method adopted for conducting field enquiries is the interview method. The sampling method was first introduced in 1926 when the Ahmedabad budget enquiry was begun and has been since continued in Bombay also. In Ahmedabad three out of every 100 tenements in the city were visited and if a sampled tenement happened to be unoccupied or a temple or a shop or a tenement belonging to a trader, professional man or the middle or upper classes, it was omitted. If, however, the sampled tenement was occupied by a working class family who refused to give information, the next tenement was selected within the specified number. Refusals, however, were rare.

In Bombay 10 out of every 100 tenements in the predominant working class localities were visited in the following enquiries. Enquiry regarding the length of service of the mill operatives and the rent enquiry.

The budget enquiry is very comprehensive and covers all the details of a worker's domestic life. The very idea of a stranger trying to find out the condition of his domestic state does not appeal to the worker and in the earlier stages a good deal of opposition was shown to such an enquiry. Some viewed with suspicion such an attempt and others definitely resented it. The ground, therefore, has to be prepared with persuasion and the most essential requirement is to create in their minds confidence about the investigators. Once this is done further progress becomes easy.

The working class people being illiterate cannot keep accounts. Most of them do not know how to give correct information. The only thing they know correctly is the total amount they have spent. They have thus to supply the details from memory and their figures have, therefore, to be taken with caution. Expenditure on some items is exaggerated and on others minimised, and a searching cross examination in as sweet a language as one can use becomes inevitable to arrive at proper figures. Sometimes the neighbours of the family who generally collect there at the time of the enquiry help the investigators. If a worker cannot collect his thoughts and give proper replies the neighbours help him to give proper answers. The cunning, however, who wants to deceive the investigators cannot be brought round without a searching cross-examination.

As their expenditure is limited and does not cover too many items the details can be extracted with a good deal of accuracy with perseverance.

As regards items which are not required monthly, such as clothing, etc., figures given are checked by first ascertaining the number of articles in use, their market prices and their life. It is difficult to judge how long an article of clothing will remain in use and also to tell exactly the prices paid for it perhaps many months previously. But from the quality of the cloth one can judge these things fairly approximately. So also much care is to be taken to see that the expenditure on drinking is not minimised and on indebtedness and interest is not exaggerated. Here also the neighbours of the family come to the help of the investigators but even then in some cases it cannot be said that expenditure on these items can be accurately obtained in spite of the best attempts of the investigators.

The most suitable time for collecting working class budgets is the evening, as the workers do not like to be disturbed with enquiries in the morning when they are in a hurry to go to their work. So also on Sundays and holidays more budgets can be collected than on weekdays. The women generally do all marketing and know the expenditure of the family but cannot easily be persuaded to give out the information. So budgets are to be collected when both men and women are at home.

As far as other enquiries, generally speaking, no difficulties are met with and information can be collected even from the women members of the families.

Mr. C. S. C. HARRISON, C.I.E., I.S.E., CHIEF ENGINEER, LLOYD BARRAGE AND CANALS CONSTRUCTION.

### I. Recruitment.

1. (i) Labour employed on the construction work of the Lloyd Barrage and Canals Scheme is, in general, recruited from the following sources:—

(a) Local labour, i.e., from Sind proper. This labour is generally seasonal it being for part of the year agriculturist. This labour is mostly Muhammadan and as no Muhammadan women come on works, the Muhammadan labour may, therefore, be taken to be entirely male. Besides Muhammadans there are *Ods* and *Menghwars*. *Ods* are a wandering tribe who live in tents and work almost entirely on earth excavation. *Menghwars* work seasonally on earthwork and when not so employed work as tanners and leather workers in general. Both these classes of labour bring their women-folk on work. Being residents of Sind the question of migration does not arise.

(b) *Pathans*.—This type of labour is considerable, is wholly male and comes from Afghanistan and the North-West border. It is, with the exception of a very small caste called "Barsati" Pathans (who will work in Sind all the year round), is wholly seasonal. Contractors and their jemadars come in advance to Sind to scout for work and later (in November) the main gangs start arriving. The gangs start to disperse towards the end of March so as to get away from Sind before the intense heat sets in. Pathans in such gangs, almost without exception, refuse to do any other kind of work than earth-work. They are strong in physique but cannot stand the heat of Sind in the hot-weather months.

(c) *Brohis*.—Mostly hillmen from the Khirtar mountain range who eke out a precarious existence on their small holdings in the mountainous tracts during the monsoon months. They are a somewhat primitive type of Dravidian stock and are excellent workers. Being unsophisticated they are easily swindled by unscrupulous contractors and have shown partiality for canal excavation on piece-work directly under Government, i.e., without the contractor intermediary. They enter Sind from the west in small parties and leave again in May and June.

(d) *Tharis and Bhils*.—This type of labour migrates to the south-eastern parts of Sind from the Thar desert tracts. Labour from this source is fairly plentiful when the rainfall in the desert tracts is in deficiency. Some of it remains on canal work all the year round but the bulk of it returns to the desert tracts as soon as information of monsoon rainfall in the vicinity of their homes reaches them. The bulk of this form of labour subsists on grazing flocks of sheep and goats, and herds of cattle.

(e) *Gujeratis*.—Thakurs from the higher lands of Gujerat enter Sind in small gangs when rainfall in their homeland is precarious. This labour is employed on earthwork and a not inconsiderable part of it remains in Sind on work throughout the year.

(f) *Hindustanis*.—This type of labour comes from the United Provinces and works mostly as contractors' labour. Its migration to Sind in large numbers is of recent date and it works all the year round on the canal works. They bring their wives and children with them on to works.

The above classes work almost solely on earth excavation.

(g) *Artisans* for the mechanical and masonry work of this scheme immigrate into Sind from all parts of India, the bulk coming from Afghanistan, the Punjab, United Provinces, the Mekhran and Gujerat. Small numbers come from the Bombay Deccan and Madras.

(ii) (a) *Sindhis*.—Not truly immigrants. They come on canal work during the slack season of agriculture.

(b) *Pathans*.—Migrate into Sind for work in the cold weather to escape the rigorous winter of Afghanistan and to trade whilst going from and to their homes. On entering Sind in search of work they trade with Shikarpur, depositing their merchandise either for cash or subsequent barter. On leaving Sind they complete their barter transactions at Shikarpur and supplement their homeward merchandise by purchases in cash made with money earned in Sind. Their migration thus serves two purposes, trading and manual work.

(c) *Brohis*.—Their seasonal migration into Sind is due to economic pressure as they can only cultivate their lands when there is sufficient rainfall and, even then, this source of livelihood is precarious in the extreme.

(d) *Tharis and Bhils*.—Economic causes influence seasonal migration to parts where there is comparatively lucrative employment.

(e) *Gujeratis*.—Enquiries amongst the workers themselves point to a precarious existence as agriculturists in the less fertile uplands of Gujerat. This class is very poor and their men-folk have been known to travel long distances into Sind

surreptitiously on the buffers of railway goods wagons, their women-folk and children coming later when they can be sent cash for the rail journey. It would seem possible to settle many of these workers in Sind in the new irrigation tracts later on.

(f) *Hindustanis or Bhayas*.—Enquiries show that the economic conditions of these persons who come to Sind to seek work are very severe, due, it is said, to excess population in certain parts of their homeland. They are prepared to work at much lower rates of wages than is any type other of labour entering Sind.

(g) *Artisans*.—The cause of migration appears to be due to ordinary seeking after continuous employment. There is no sign of poverty amongst artisans working on this scheme.

(iii) There have been no notable changes of recent years in the stream of migration. Brohis, Punjabis, Bhayas, and Thakurs have entered Sind in larger streams than they have in the past, due to the construction of irrigation works on a large scale.

2 (i) and (ii) A large percentage of the labour employed on this work being seasonal, it follows that the extent of return to villages is in general five months in the year, and this annually.

Conditions vary, and I give an approximation for the three main tracts of Sind :—

(a) *Left Bank Area*.—Some 50 per cent. of the labour employed in the Rohri Canal Circle remains on our works throughout the twelve months of a year. Batches of this labour return to their homes for special ceremonies from time to time but only for very short periods. This 50 per cent. is "foreign" labour.

(b) *Right Bank Area*.—Approximately 40 per cent. of the labour force in this area works continuously on the canals throughout the year. Local labourers pay frequent short visits to their villages whilst some never leave their villages, working within a 5-mile radius thereof and returning almost every evening to their homes.

"Foreign" labourers pay short and infrequent visits to their homes, such visits being neither frequent nor long enough to disorganize work.

(c) *Eastern Nara Tract*.—Approximately 45 per cent. of the labour in this tract works fairly steadily throughout the year. Infrequent visits of short duration of this force are not unusual when the homes are comparatively easy of access. Long *travels* across the desert, by camel or on foot, are very strong deterrents to frequent contact with the villages.

3 (i) We (i.e., Government in the Irrigation Department) have very few direct dealings in the recruitment of labour. Government Irrigation works are generally given out by contract or ordinary piece-work and those agencies recruit the labour. They send out "jemadars" who, for local labour, advance sums in the order of, say, a week's to ten days' wages. For foreign (imported) labour heavy advances are given. They may amount to 25 per cent. of the wages likely to be earned by the labourer during the working season *plus* railway fare. Monetary advances by Government officials to recruits is generally prohibited and this confines Government's direct recruitment activities to the local area in which the work is situated.

(ii) On the whole the existing systems work satisfactorily both from the point of view of the labourer and the contractor or piece-worker as well as from the Government's view-point.

As mentioned elsewhere there is always a battle of wits in which, since the abolition of the "Workmen's Breach of Contract Act" (XIII of 1859) by the India Act III of 1925, both recruiter and recruited are fairly evenly matched. The effect of the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act has been to raise tendered rates for Government works. This goes to show that the contractor has lost a powerful hold on labour for advances made. Generally speaking the abolition of the Act has removed hardships that were undoubtedly borne by labourers who were recruited by unscrupulous contractors. On the other hand it seems likely that labour may take advantage of the repeal of the Act and thus swindle his employer.

(iii) I am not in favour of any attempt to establish public employment agencies. The efficacy of such an agency is, in my opinion, more than doubtful, for we would not be able to employ the right type of petty official to get properly into touch with the labour required and be at all sure that corruption would not become rampant.

7. (i) There are definitely no good grounds for any unemployment problem in Sind at present, so far as the manual labourer is concerned, as there is enough work on hand on the Barrage and Canals Scheme to keep every able-bodied labourer in Sind employed for 300 days in the year for the next three years, and the same condition has existed since 1924. In fact one of our great difficulties has been to get adequate labour even for the seasonal working period.

(ii and iii) These do not arise in view of the fact that there is no unemployment problem in Sind in general.

(iv) As the vast bulk of casual labour in Sind, and, indeed, in India in general, is recruited from the agricultural classes, I see no call for Unemployment Insurance. Labour can and does fall back on agriculture, which in the majority of cases, supplies a bare subsistence allowance against unemployment in non-agricultural fields of work.

8. (i) On the large irrigation works now in progress in Sind, the bulk of the labour works for only six full months in the year—from November to April. For the rest of the year Sind labour proper is employed in agriculture.

(ii) Generally speaking the vast percentage of labour employed on irrigation works is casual in the sense that when the works are completed labour needs of the Government to any considerable extent cease. The amount of permanent labour employed on open canals is almost negligible.

## II.—Staff Organization.

15. (i) Generally speaking, contractors are intermediaries in obtaining labour, the only exception being in cases where the extent of work is small and it can be undertaken by local labour available. As a rule, we have endeavoured on this scheme to give our works out as far as possible on piece-work, i.e., petty contracts, rather than on formal contracts, but where works are large and the great bulk of the labour required therefor has to be imported we are practically forced to give out the work on formal contract. This is necessary, because there is an extremely bad habit prevailing in India as a whole, and to a greater intensity in Sind, of labourers demanding very heavy monetary advances before they will proceed to work which is any appreciable distance from their homes. It is therefore, necessary in such cases to have contractors as intermediaries because it is against the general policy of the Government to give unsecured money advances to workpeople.

Were it practicable to have recruiting "jemadars" i.e., gangers, then the contractor as an intermediary would disappear.

To employ jemadars is, I consider, quite impracticable. A jemadar would probably make rash promises to the labourers whom he is recruiting, and having little or no financial stake in the successful outcome of the work on which he would be employed as a jemadar, he would certainly tend to be less responsible in such a position (from our point of view) than the contractor.

As regards the character of works given out on contracts, it varies so greatly that only a cursory idea is here given.

On a scheme such as the Lloyd Barrage and Canals we have at Sukkur, given out legally binding contracts for excavation inside cofferdams in the bed of the river Indus, and of the masonry work pertaining to the construction of the barrage and the regulators.

On canals the main work is excavation in earth. The length of a canal given out on contract depends upon its width and depth. Ordinarily speaking from one to three miles of a main canal forms a section that is given out on a contract and the value of the work may be from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 2,00,000.

Construction of masonry works is also given out wherever possible on formal contracts because Sind is very poor in supplying its own skilled labour. Such labour has to be brought from the Punjab, the United Provinces, or Kathiawar, i.e., someone has to take the financial risk of giving advances to labourers and we deem it politic to use the contractor as an intermediary for this purpose.

(ii) Almost without exception every proper contract is sublet in varying degrees by the contractor for works, such as on the barrage proper, gangs of men are given piece-work rates by the contractors for doing excavation work, and to masons for laying masonry.

On the canals the contractor ordinarily keeps a comparatively small number of men on daily wages for miscellaneous work, and the rest of his work of excavation he sublets at so much per thousand cubic feet, leaving himself as ample a margin as possible between the rates the Government pay under contract and the rates he pays to his sub-contractors or, more accurately, petty piece-workers.

(iii) Government exercises little control over the actual working conditions of the labourers. Labourers are in 50 per cent. or more of cases recruited from outside Sind. The contractor makes his advances, pays railway fares, and brings the people on to the work. He then sets each gang a task at a pre-arranged rate. The only direct control exercised by us over the working conditions is as regards sanitation. There is a certain amount of indirect control; for instance, if complaints are received from the labourers that the contractor is attempting to swindle them over measurements, or otherwise under-pay them, we endeavour to set matters right by bringing to bear as much pressure as we can on the contractor to treat his men justly.



The Government does not attempt to fix any definite working hours for contractor's labour, nor does it fix any minimum scale of pay for labourers.

(iv) I consider that the general effect of contractors as intermediaries is satisfactory. I have already suggested that the only alternative to the contractor as an intermediary is the professional "jemadar" or labour-recruiter, but I am inclined to think that the labourer gets a better deal from the contractor than he would be likely to get from a professional jemadar. Any contractor of repute obviously treats his men, on the whole, fairly well, because if he did not he would not be able to depend on a regular supply of labour from outside the province in which he is working. Nothing spreads quicker in India than the information that a contractor is unreliable as regards his treatment of labour. Individual cases of hardship do occur, but without elaborate legislation I cannot see how such can be prevented. It has to be remembered that, owing to the vicious practice of heavy advances being demanded by labour, the contractor probably deceives his labour to some extent by holding out golden opportunities from which the gilt disappears in actual practice.

I have known during my long service as a constructional engineer, as many cases where labour has "done down" the contractor as where the contractor has played false to his labour.

On these works we have had many instances of labour having deserted a contractor after having received advances which they could only repay by working steadily for him for practically the whole working season. The result is unsatisfactory, because we have one set of wits working against another set.

### III.—Housing.

16. Generally speaking, the Government does not undertake to house contractors' labour.

On the Sukkur Barrage itself, some provision has been made by the Government for housing labour in that we have built certain blocks of coolie lines on each bank of the river. These lines can only accommodate a small proportion of the labour that is employed during the working season, but the main idea is to provide some sort of reasonably good accommodation for a nucleus of the contractors' labour. The contractor makes his own arrangement for housing the rest of his labour and these are, as a rule, very primitive.

As regards labour more or less continuously employed by the Government directly, i.e., without the intermediary of the contractor or the piece-worker, arrangements are generally made to house them.

On the canals, where the bulk of the excavation work is done by mechanical excavators, all the labour employed is provided with accommodation. It, in general, takes the form of tents, and in certain special circumstances huts are erected. This labour is not stationary as the mechanical excavators during the course of the year have to move over a considerable distance of country. Were such work localized, then it is practically certain that we could and would make better arrangements to house the labourers.

### IV.—Health.

24. (i) Although contractors are in most cases the direct employers of labour on irrigation works, the Government, on the barrage and canal works, make all main arrangements for medical facilities for labourers.

(ii) A medical organization under the immediate control of the inspecting medical officer is maintained for medical attention to all classes of workers on this scheme.

This organization consists of the Inspecting Medical Officer, Lloyd Barrage and Canals Construction, with 14 sub-assistant surgeons, and a complement of compounders and other staff.

At Sukkur, where a large force of labour is concentrated, and where the nature of the work calls for prompt medical and surgical attention to labourers, a well-equipped hospital has been established in the main barrage township with accommodation for 34 in-patients.

In the left bank township there is a small hospital, all serious cases being taken across the river to the main hospital.

Construction work being scattered over an area of approximately 13,000 square miles, it is not practicable to have other works hospitals in any fixed area.

The sub-assistant surgeons, with their field dispensaries, are therefore moved from place to place as necessity demands.

In addition to our own special organization full use is made of local board dispensaries wherever practicable.

So far, the medical organization has adequately served the purpose.

25. (i) The works hospitals and dispensaries are freely attended by labourers in need of medical or surgical attention.

I am definitely of the opinion, based on a long period of construction work, that the ordinary labourer nowadays far more readily attends dispensaries than was the case, say, 20 years ago and, as a consequence, there is a far less number now of uncared-for sickness than formerly.

(ii) The proportion of women workers to men on the irrigation works in Sind is low, but medical facilities are readily availed of by such female workers as there are on our works.

26. At Sukkur, where the workers are concentrated, latrines are provided and a large staff of sweepers employed to safeguard sanitary interests when the ordinary facilities provided are not used. Workers as a whole prefer to use open spaces rather than latrines. Away from Sukkur the labour is spread over a considerable area and, except in the vicinity of dragline excavators, no special arrangements are made for latrines, etc.

The workers prefer to use the jungle and no ill-effects from the point of view of sanitation are noticed by the following of this custom. The intense heat and dryness of Sind obviates the use of scavengers, provided labour is not specially concentrated.

(ii) Except when water-borne epidemics are anticipated, or water is particularly scarce, no special arrangements are made on scattered works for a drinking-water supply. Water is generally obtained from wells in the vicinity of the works.

Where drinking-water is scarce, special arrangements are made to convey it to the works by means of lorries, camels or bullocks.

In the two townships at Sukkur, a pipe supply is provided. Even then, surrounded by water as the works in the river are, it is difficult to prevent the general body of labour from drinking direct from the river.

When epidemics are feared, special arrangements are made in the two townships to sterilize the water.

On scattered works, treatment of the water by permanganate of potash is freely resorted to by the Government agency.

29. (ii) Until the recent general outbreak of cholera in Sind our works have been singularly free from dangerous epidemic diseases. Even the recent cholera epidemic has not been very serious amongst workers who remain on our works, special arrangements made by the medical staff of the scheme having been very effective.

Malaria is prevalent in certain areas in our works zone. Quinine is freely administered, and special care is taken to treat any labourer noticed to be suffering from this malady.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) The bulk of the labour force on this scheme is not protected by the Workmen's Compensation Act. As a pure act of grace, however, all cases that would ordinarily receive protection under the Act are dealt with as if the Act applied, and this very liberal treatment is much appreciated.

Where works are given out on formal contract the contractor is held liable, and the Government protects itself and the workmen, by embodying a clause in all such contracts making contractors liable under the Act where such applies.

Where the Act does not apply, we endeavour to get the contractor to deal liberally with cases of permanent injury.

### XIII. Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. No appreciable improvement in the efficiency of workers on the class of work dealt with by this scheme has been noticed in recent years.

Generally speaking, the efficiency of the labourer is as it was 25 years ago, but as the rate of wages has risen the value of work done for wages paid shows a distinct increase in costs.

Twenty years ago mechanical excavators, for instance, could not compete with labour. It has now been proved that for earthwork in heavy bulk mechanical excavators can more than hold their own against manual labour.

116. Education of the masses to take a greater pride in manual work seems to me the only efficient means of obtaining greater efficiency. There is in general a marked absence of intelligent application to manipulation on works of the nature comprised in the construction of irrigation works. Without the strictest supervision, efficient work cannot be relied upon.

## XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

127. *Effect of Repeal of Workmen's Breach of Contract Act.*—The effect of the repeal of this Act is all in favour of the worker.

It caused no little consternation to contractors who now have no redress against workmen who fail to work off advances of wages, except in a Civil Court, and as the bulk of the labour employed on canal works in Sind comes from outside the Province it is practically impossible for a contractor to sue a defaulter in a Civil Court for recovery of advances.

I have reason to believe that the repeal of the Act has tended to lower the amount of unsecured advances made by contractors to labourers.

Statistics have not been worked out to show what effect the repeal of the Act has had on the general upward trend of contract rates, but contractors give it as an excuse for tendering higher rates.

Mr. J. GHOSAL, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., COMMISSIONER, C. D., POONA. ✓

## I.—Recruitment.

1. There are seven districts in this division. The volume of migration in some of the districts is far more pronounced than in others. The migration from the districts of East Khandesh and West Khandesh is negligible. That from Nasik, Ahmednagar, and Sholapur stands midway between the Khandesh districts on the one hand and Poona and Satara on the other. It is from the last two districts especially from the eastern part of Poona and almost the whole of Satara, that the volume of periodic migration is particularly great. In recent years the emigration from Sholapur, Ahmednagar, and Nasik is showing signs of diminution. The reason is that labour that would have otherwise migrated from the Sholapur district, is more or less absorbed by the mills in Sholapur City itself. In Ahmednagar a good deal of labour, that formerly used to go to Bombay and other labour centres, is now absorbed nearer home on account of the construction and development of large irrigation works in the district. The same remark applies more or less to Nasik. Even in Poona the volume of emigration has been materially checked by the fact that the Tata and other works going on in the district attract a considerable portion of the floating labour population.

Thus it is only from the Satara district that the stream of migration still continues unabated, though the volume slightly fluctuates in response to seasonal conditions. The population of the Satara district is ten and a quarter lacs. of which the agricultural population was estimated in 1922 to be about 827,422. Of these from 15 to 20 per cent. may be taken to represent the seasonal volume of migration. In the census of 1921, 65,953 people from Satara, mostly from this class, were found in Bombay alone. It is not, however, to Bombay alone that the Satara migrants go. They go much further afield, as far as Karachi and beyond. In any labour centre, either in Gujarath, Central Provinces or Berars, a sprinkling of labour from the Satara district would be found in almost every sphere of labour. So far as I know the conditions in this district, the people have got the peculiar knack of picking up any kind of ordinary labour and of adapting themselves to different surroundings and circumstances. A considerable number of these migrants have practically established themselves in different labour centres. The annual migrants go to these men who form a sort of nuclei around which the others congregate.

2. As indicated in paragraph 1, above, a considerable portion of what may be called the annual migrants, return to their homes at about Akshayatrutia, i.e., just a few weeks before the advent of the monsoon. They stay in their homes looking after their lands till after the Diwali, when they again proceed towards the labour centres. This annual visit to their homesteads is more or less confined to those who have either their old parents at home or some lands to look after. Those of the migrants who have no such attractions and others in whose case such attractions cease to exist in course of time for some reason or other, generally prefer to establish themselves in the labour centres. This is only a phase of the general tendency towards urbanization.

4. There is no doubt that the periodic migration referred to above, has a sort of disintegrating influence on the family life of the labouring classes. But on the whole I do not think it to be an unmixd evil. It probably serves to keep down the birth-rate to a certain extent. It is curious to note that in the Satara district, which shows the greatest volume of periodic migration, the average number of persons per house was found in the last census to be four as against five in the other districts of this,

division. It is also observed that these periodic migrants receive some polish and enlightenment by their contact with urban life which they pass on to a certain extent to their "stay-at-home" brethren. Of course this contact with urban life has also its drawbacks but on the whole the effect is good.

6. Recruitment of labourers for the Assam tea plantations was being carried on in some parts of this division without direct cognizance by Government till 1925, when it was directed that the district magistrates should give careful attention to this matter and see that nothing illegal was done by the agents to obtain recruits. Later on it was directed that recruits should be taken before a first-class magistrate and that he should try to ascertain that the recruits knew what they were doing. Subsequently Government directed that these recruits should be taken before the first class magistrate of the district headquarters, who should satisfy himself that—(1) the labourers were willing to go to Assam; (2) they knew the terms on which they were recruited; and (3) they were aware of the conditions in which they had to live there.

As the recruiting agents complained to Government about the inconvenience experienced by them in taking recruits to the district headquarters, Government allowed the district magistrates to use discretion in permitting the production of recruits before any first-class magistrate to be specified by them.

In my opinion these precautions are sufficient to prevent abuses.

7. So far as unemployment of the labouring population is concerned I do not think that there are any visible signs of it. In fact the tendency to migrate not only gives the migrants a chance of earning better wages, but at the same time keeps down the supply of labour in the local market so as to enable the labourers who do not go abroad to obtain better wages than what they could have commanded otherwise.

### III.—Housing.

16. In so far as the industrial concerns in this division are concerned, the housing accommodation afforded by the mills and factories is comparatively insignificant, though some of the millowners, especially in Sholapur, are seriously thinking of extending such accommodation.

### VI.—Education.

42. I do not think education has made such progress in this class as to affect their standard of living. As compared with former years, standard of living in this class has arisen but this is due more to increased wages than to education. It is part of the general evolution.

In spite of a greater spread of education the "efficiency" of the labourer shows no marked improvement. There are genuine complaints that the efficiency of ordinary labourers is on the decline.

Mr. Y. P. GUPTE, ACTING CERTIFYING SURGEON, AHMEDABAD.

### III.—Housing.

18. (ii) The types of accommodation supplied by the employers at Ahmedabad may be classified as below:—(1) double-room tenements, pucca buildings; (2) single-room tenements, pucca buildings; (3) single-room tenements with back to back rooms, pucca buildings; (4) single-room tenements, back to back rooms, semi-pucca buildings; (5) huts constructed by the workers on mill premises with material supplied by the employer, the usual material being corrugated-iron sheets.

The first type is very rare and is found in Asoka mills to a certain extent. It has two rooms, each measuring 12 feet by 12 feet, with large windows, roof ventilator and a kitchen.

The second type is also rare and is found in Asoka mills. It consists of a room, 12 feet by 12 feet, and a back yard converted into a kitchen.

The third type is much commoner. It consists of a room, 12 feet by 12 feet, with window and a verandah.

The fourth type is very common. It consists of a room, size 12 feet by 12 feet, with a small window, verandah in front, and in majority of the cases no plinth.

The fifth type consists of a hut built of any material available and has no definite plan. Often the hut is about 4 feet high, no plinth and no windows.

All the tenements are fully utilized by the workers.

(iii) In the double-room tenements the lighting arrangement is good, as they have big windows. In the rest of the types, the lighting arrangement is poor.

Conservancy arrangement is of the pail type.

Majority of the mills use water supplied by the municipality. There are about a dozen mills that use the water from wells in their own compounds.

## IV.—Health.

24. (i) About 28 mills engage qualified doctors to attend to the sick and injured ; about two mills engage compounders for the purpose. Two mills maintain hospitals. No charge is made for the outdoor attendance.

(ii) There is a civil hospital in the centre of the City.

There are also two Government dispensaries located in different parts of the City. There is also Victoria Jubilee Institute for women only, managed by the district local board. Full advantage is taken of this institution by all class of women. There are several municipal dispensaries located in different parts of the City also.

25. (i) People take full advantage of these institutions.

(ii) Women take advantage of these institutions but for confinement they prefer to go to their villages.

26. (a) (i) Latrines, in majority of the mills, are of pail type. There are a few mills where they are of flushing type and are connected to municipal main drains. There are two mills where they are of flush system and are connected to a septic tank of their own. The pail system requires constant attention and even then it is difficult to keep it up to the requisite standard of cleanliness. The surrounding ground instead of being kept clean is used for dumping waste material and refuse.

(ii) In majority of the cases, mills use water supplied by the municipality for drinking purposes. There are some mills where the supply of water for this purpose is from a well in their own compound.

(iii) No regular bathing places are in existence. There are open washing places and these are at times used as bathing places as well.

(b) The same remarks as above hold good. No special bathing places are provided by the employers.

34. (a) (i) *Provision of Refreshment*.—All the mills maintain a tea shop and most of them on contract system. In majority of the cases, the accommodation is inadequate and sanitary standard is low.

*Shelters*.—The mills have started providing shelters for their workers during recess hours. Some of these are very well looked after but in majority of the cases there is total neglect on the part of the workers as well as the employers.

*Creches*.—Most of the mills have creches but roughly speaking there are about 12 good creches and as for the rest there is lack of interest in this direction.

## VII.—Safety.

48. Although many mills engage doctors and have dispensaries, yet it is very desirable that some arrangement should be made for First-Aid, especially in departments where injuries are likely to be frequent. Suitable persons out of the workers should be trained in First-Aid work in the various departments. Provision of a box containing dressing material and antiseptic, and another box containing a few tourniquets, or rubber tubing instead and a few common splints would meet the requirements for the First-Aid.

Mr. P. B. ADVANI, M.Sc., TECH., M.I.E., DIRECTOR OF INDUSTRIES,  
BOMBAY.

It must be borne in mind that probably not more than one-eighth of persons engaged in industry are employed in factories which come under the Factories Act. A large number of such people, however, work entirely on their own in their own cottages and such persons probably do not come under the purview of the commission. But not an inconsiderable number of persons work in factories which either because they employ under 20 persons or have no machinery, do not come under the Factories Act. Accurate information about such persons will probably not be readily available. Among such establishments hand weaving factories are probably the most numerous in this Presidency. It is reported that in Sholapur there are some 250 such factories employing in the aggregate some 2,500 persons. Similarly, Surat has some 50 such establishments in addition to a number of gold-thread factories and lace factories where women and children are employed. Poona, Dhule, Malegaon, Bhivandi, Ulal are some of the other places where hand weaving factories are located. The Bombay Department of Industries maintains staff in the various centres to help the hand weaving and dyeing industries by the demonstration of improved appliances.

In conclusion I would state that all opinions expressed are in my individual capacity and not on behalf of Government.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. In Sholapur hand weavers for employment in factories are drawn from the local hand weavers and from surrounding villages in H. E. H. the Nizam's territories. In centres like Malegaon, Dhulia, Bhivandi and Madanpura (Bombay), weavers are attracted in large numbers from the U. P. and other places in North India. In Sura hand weaving factories get their men partly from local resident weavers and partly from those that come from Kathiawar. The labour employed in small dye-houses in villages is comparatively small and is easily obtainable locally. Other small factories such as small gold and silver thread factories and smithies, brass and copper works etc., are usually able to get their men from local workers.

2. In Sholapur weavers from surrounding villages go away to their villages for some three months in the year. In other centres where weavers are drawn from other parts of the country such as U. P. and the Punjab, weavers return to their villages once in two or three years.

3. (i) The usual practice in Sholapur for the existing small factories is to ask their employees to induce their friends to join the factory. It is almost a universal practice for the small factory owners to give an inducement in the form of a loan to new employees. When a new factory is being established the owner gets in touch with a local mukadam and gets through him the first batch of employees. In Sholapur there is a fair number of permanently resident weavers. This force is supplemented by recruitment from the surrounding villages in H. E. H. the Nizam's territories. In places like Malegaon, Dhulia, Bhivandi and Madanpura (Bombay), a number of weavers engaged come from U. P. and they are recruited by the small factory owners with the aid of local mukadams.

(iii) In the present state of education and social conditions of workers it is doubtful if public employment agencies will be successful and will benefit the workers or the industries. In any case it will be necessary to establish them in a large number of towns to cover an appreciable number of small factories and their employees. Even for factories in large industrial towns it is doubtful if workers would use them to any large extent at present. The cost at present is likely to be out of all proportion to the benefit which may be derived.

7. In the slack season, i.e., from July to September, a number of hand weavers are thrown out of employment. It cannot, however, be said that amongst the hand weavers as a whole there is any appreciable amount of unemployment. They are able to continue their work in their homes even though, specially in the slack season, their earnings are reduced considerably.

8 (i) and (ii) In the small hand weaving factories most of the employees are permanent. The employer usually induces their continued employment by loans which the weavers are practically never able to completely discharge. The percentage "turnover" of labour, therefore, is small. In the busy season each year additional men are employed temporarily. But on the whole there is little casual employment in hand weaving factories.

(iii) In addition to the weekly day of bazaar when work is suspended, some 30 to 45 days are taken off in connection with religious and social observances.

### II.—Staff Organisation.

10. The owners of small factories carry on their business themselves. For a factory of 25 looms there may be a foreman on Rs. 25 to 30 p.m., an accounts clerk on Rs. 20 p.m. The proprietor usually works the factory himself. In a small factory of 8 to 12 looms there is usually no foreman and the owner does all the work himself.

12 (ii) As regards training of weavers, the Department of Industries, Bombay, maintains 7 schools (2 more are being started in Sind) and 12 demonstrations (2 more are being organized in Sind) for the purpose of training hand loom weavers in the use of the fly shuttle looms and modern preparatory appliances. There are also 2 dyeing demonstrations. These schools and demonstrations are peripatetic institutions and are moved from place to place. Generally speaking facilities for technical education whether in connection with small factories or large textile mills and other large factories must be considered as inadequate. The Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Inquiry) recommended the establishment of Textile Trade Schools in Bombay for the training of textile workers. Technical schools teaching weaving and other subjects are also necessary in centres like Sholapur.

13. The relations between the workers, proprietors and staff are usually cordial. In this connection it must be mentioned that there is intense poverty and lack of organization among hand weavers and that they are not in a position to assert themselves in order to improve their position. Works committees or councils do not exist. Even in large factories a very limited use has been made of these institutions.

14. Attendance register is generally maintained and the owner checks it regularly. Wages are paid directly to the workers by the owner himself. The men have direct contact with the master and the evil of jobbers extorting money from them as it obtains in the mills does not exist in connection with these small factories.

### III. Housing.

16. No special provision for housing is made by the proprietors of these small hand-loom factories. In Sholapur a factory would be divided into 3 or 4 rooms. Each room will have 4 to 8 looms and the room serves as a living room as well as a workroom for some 4 families, the number depending upon the number of looms. Food is cooked in the same room and at night time the warps are rolled up and the space so vacated is occupied for sleeping purposes. The moral effect on the workers is deplorable, because of several families living together in one room.

In other centres no housing accommodation is generally provided. The employees have to make their own arrangements.

### IV. Health.

23. Generally speaking, owing to insanitary conditions of the factories and dwellings and lack of sufficient ventilation and light the health of the workers is bad. Other causes of bad health are excessive drink and insufficient food. The small employer does not provide facilities for medical attendance nor does he make any contribution to the workers in this connection. The workers take advantage of the local Government dispensaries.

26 (i) Latrines are usually provided in the factories. These are of primitive type and are insanitary.

(ii) Drinking water is generally always provided.

(iii) Bathing and washing facilities are poor and use in this connection is made of public municipal taps.

The dwellings of the weavers are generally located in the poorest part of the town badly served by the municipality. The huts are badly ventilated and sanitary arrangements are most primitive.

Hand-weaving factories do not come under the Factories Act. They can be brought in under the Act by notification under clause 2 (3) (b). But this would mean a large increase in the Factory Inspection staff. Amendment of clause 2 (3) (a) so as to bring within the scope of the Act factories with machinery employing not less than 10 persons, is more urgent.

29. (i) There is no particular industrial disease amongst the hand-loom weavers ; but in the small dyeing factories workers suffer from "chrome sores". Such men are treated in the local dispensaries.

(ii) There is considerable prevalence of other diseases, such as cholera, malaria, etc. Most of the weaving centres are visited by one disease or another almost every year.

30. I would welcome some measure of sickness insurance to cover as many organised factories as possible.

### V. Welfare.

32. There is no organised activity in regard to welfare in the small factories.

36. Apart from the facilities provided by Government and local bodies, the small employer of course cannot afford to provide any facilities for his workmen. Even where such facilities are available, full advantage is not taken of them. Owing to the intense poverty of workers it is found necessary by them to engage their children in the preparatory processes. They, thus earn 2 to 3 annas a day. Some hand-weavers, specially those engaged in fancy work who earn more than the coarse cloth weavers, do send their children to day and night schools where available. Some adults also attend night schools, but in very small numbers.

38. Co-operation amongst hand-weavers employed in small organised factories is practically non-existent.

### VI. Education.

41. So far as hand-weavers are concerned, the Department of Industries has 7 peripatetic schools and 12 peripatetic demonstrations scattered all over the Presidency. Two more schools and two more demonstrations are being at present organised in Sind. There are two demonstrations for teaching dyers improved methods of dyeing. A hand-weaving institute for the whole Presidency is being organized at Poona.

Hand-weaving is also taught in some of the industrial schools, such as the Salvation Army School at Anand, Sonawala School at Bordi, Konkan Educational Society's Industrial School at Alibag, Salvation Army School at Ahmednagar, and Edward VII Technical school at Dhulia. All these schools receive a grant in aid from Government.

In big industrial towns like Bombay and Ahmedabad so far as jobbers and others are concerned, facilities for training are limited. In Bombay, Social Service League runs a textile technical school and a class is also held for jobbers in the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute.

It will help the textile industry considerably if textile trade schools, specially intended for jobbers are established in Bombay as well as in Ahmedabad. Similar facilities are also required for towns like Sholapur and Surat.

Apart from facilities for training in cotton textiles facilities for training of jobbers and skilled men in other trades also, such as tanning, iron and other metal industries, and artware industries, etc., cannot be considered as adequate.

42. Wherever use of improved appliances has been taught to hand-weavers, their earning power has been appreciably increased. They have been enabled to meet in a better manner their elementary needs of food, etc. But I cannot say definitely that their general standard of living has been appreciably raised.

#### VII. Safety.

Apart from the hand-weaving factories where there is no physical danger to the workers, there are quite a number of other factories which have moving machinery employing less than 20 men which do not come under the Factories Act. It is suggested that the beneficial clauses of the Factories Act should be extended to apply to as many organized factories with machinery as possible; and the number of persons employed in a factory to bring it under the Factory Act may be reduced from 20 to 10. This will require the amendment of Section 2 (3) (a) of the Indian Factories Act.

#### VIII. Workmen's Compensation.

Small factories with hand appliances are not within the scope of this Act, nor is it necessary and practicable to bring them in. It is, nevertheless, necessary to extend the scope of the Act as far as it is practicable to do so.

#### IX. Hours.

55. The hours of work in small hand-weaving factories are usually 10 per day. The day commences at about 7 a.m. and the work continues till 12 noon. Then there is a recess up to 1-30 p.m. after which again the work continues till 6-30 p.m. In some places the recess is from 12 to 2 and the work continues to 7 p.m. The workers usually work for 6 complete days in a week.

60. In Sholapur, each week the workers have a holiday for one complete day on the bazaar day. In addition to the weekly bazaar day the workers have about 30 to 45 days per year as holidays in connection with religious festivals. In Sholapur the bazaar day, i.e., the day of rest, is Wednesday.

#### X. Special questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

81. Act of 1922 has not affected small weaving factories. Weavers' children are employed in the small factories without any age limit. There are no special facilities for apprenticeship. Children grow up with their parents and learn their work from them.

87. There is practically no blind alley employment so far as the hand-weavers in small factories are concerned.

89. Work of women and children in factories equipped with machinery, but which do not come under the Act, is subject to long hours and bad sanitation. It would be desirable to amend Section 2 (3) (a) fixing the limit at 10 persons instead of 20 as at present. 20 factories have so far been notified under Section 2 (3) (b). Greater use of this section is also likely to be beneficial.

#### XII. Wages.

96. Most of the work in the hand-weaving factories is done on piece system. Weavers engaged on the coarse cloth earn on an average 6 annas a day. Those engaged on medium cloth earn 8 annas a day and those engaged on fine cloth earn 12 to 14 annas a day. Those who do ornamental gold thread weaving earn from Re. 1 to Re. 1-4 annas a day on an average. Women engaged in preparatory processes earn 4 to 6 annas a day. Children earn 2 to 3 annas a day.



Payment is usually made per one piece of cloth and the rates vary according to the season of the year. When the demand for hand woven cloth is great, higher rates are paid. In the slack season the rates may be some 25 per cent. lower. The payment is always in cash.

106. Deductions from wages for bad work are frequently made and the fines levied go to the employer for his personal use.

107. In Sholapur, the usual practice is to pay the weavers once a week. In some places payment is made once in two weeks and still in some other places payment is made once in a month.

108. As a general rule handloom weavers are always indebted to their employers. The loans are taken at the time of employment and are continued for marriage and other religious ceremonies. Deductions are made in instalments from the wages. The rates of interest charged are very high.

110. No leave is granted on full pay. As stated above, most of the workers are on piece wage system. They are, therefore, not paid for any time when they do not work.

The above remarks apply to hand-weaving factories. Generally speaking, however, in all factories, large or small, law of supply and demand is the basis of wage fixation.

105. Statutory establishment of minimum wages does not appear to be practicable at present.

106. Fines are universally levied both in small and large factories. I do not think they can be abolished but it is necessary to regulate their levying and the use of the money so collected. If legislation is undertaken in this connection, it should apply to large undertakings only.

107. Legislation in connection with wage payments to regulate the periods or to prevent delay in payment does not seem to be necessary.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Trade combinations do not exist to any extent so far as small factories, specially handloom factories, are concerned.

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#### Mr. V. S. BHIDE, I.C.S., REGISTRAR, CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

16. *Co-operative Housing for Factory Workers.*—The subject was first discussed in the provincial co-operative conference of 1917, but it has not been so far found possible to evolve a suitable type of co-operative housing society for the labouring classes in Bombay. The chief difficulties in the way of such organizations seem to be: (1) the working classes have shown no special desire for housing facilities on co-operative lines; (2) The incapacity of the industrial workers to raise the necessary funds for the formation of such societies; (3) The migratory character of the mill-hand population of Bombay which makes it very unlikely that even if suitable permanent tenements are provided for them on a co-operative basis, they would willingly stick to them for any length of time.

The housing schemes at present sanctioned by Government in this Presidency are organized on (a) the tenant-co-partnership system which requires the investment of one-fourth of the necessary capital by the prospective members of the society, the remaining three-fourths being provided by Government loan at the rate of 5½ per cent. payable in 20 to 40 years; (b) the tenant-ownership system where the individual member who desires to build a house for himself is required to provide one-third of the cost, the remaining two-thirds being loaned by Government at the same rate and for the same period as in (a).

The only housing society which could possibly be thought of in connection with housing for the labouring classes would be a society under the tenant-co-partnership system. At present there are a number of such societies for the middle classes in Bombay and their experience clearly shows that a society on a similar basis for the labouring classes is an impossibility, since the people for whose benefit the chawls would be provided are not in a position to provide for themselves their own one-fourth share of the cost. The present position, therefore, is that the co-operative movement is unable to do anything in the sphere of working class housing, and I do not think that the movement will be able to tackle this problem in the near future.

38. *Credit Societies for Labouring Classes.*—As regards co-operative credit, societies for the industrial labouring classes have been organized since the year 1911-12. In that year the industrial mill-hands society at Broach and four others in the Western India mills in Bombay were registered. The object of these societies was to relieve mill-hands by granting loans for short periods to tide them over the period of about six weeks during which time their pay was withheld by the employers as a security for their good conduct and secondly, to supply cheap groceries to their members. There are in all at present 104 societies for this class of workers in the Bombay city and suburbs, and 5 outside Bombay with a total working capital of Rs. 5,55,924 and a membership of 9,274. A list\* of such societies showing the dates of registration and their present condition is enclosed herewith.

In the year 1914 the question of old debt redemption among mill-hands was taken up and about 60 old debt redemption societies were accordingly organized. Government also sanctioned the appointment of a special auditor for welfare work in Bombay city to audit and supervise these societies.

The principal lines on which the debt redemption work was organized were as follows :—

(a) The members of suitable types were selected from the groups of mill-hands united either by caste or by common employment in the various departments of the mills. The members bound themselves to take up debentures in the societies by regular monthly deposits out of their pay. The whole scheme was under the control of a strong committee called "The Debt Redemption Committee" of which the Hon. Mr. C. H. A. Hill, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., was president, and a small committee was formed for the purpose of providing guidance to the societies on sound lines. Through the efforts of Mr. G. K. Devadhar and his friends over Rs.15,000 were secured from several generous donors. Government also were pleased to sanction a grant of Rs. 500 per year to the Bombay Debt Redemption Committee for the purpose of carrying on educational and inspection work in the then existing societies. In May, 1919, Government were further pleased to sanction an annual subvention not exceeding Rs. 750 for a further period of three years from 1st April, 1919, to the Debt Redemption Committee or to any banking union into which it may merge. The members in the beginning displayed very keen interest and took pride in their societies and the progress made in temperance, self-respect and thrift was remarkable for some years. Nineteen societies were organized under this scheme, but in the year 1919, it became apparent that the societies had got into a very unsatisfactory state owing to the circumstances connected with the war and their administration also had become very inefficient. On the whole, therefore, the experience gained as to the working of these societies was very disappointing. From 1919 onwards it became very difficult for the committees of the societies to make any recoveries. At present the societies are in a most demoralized condition and 50 per cent. of the outstandings are overdue. Fortunately the money invested in this business was raised by donations from wealthy people in Bombay on a semi-philanthropic basis and even if big losses eventually occur in this part of the scheme, no money belonging to the outside depositors will be lost. In fact, from the very beginning this scheme had been organized almost as a matter of charity.

(b) The social service league, under the guidance of Mr. N. M. Joshi also organized a few independent societies and founded two workmen's institutes in connection with the Currimbhoy and Tata groups of mills. They had the services of the permanent staff of these two institutes for the purposes of supervision and control. By the year 1919, 39 societies among mill-hands were organized by the league. Profiting by the mistakes of the early pioneers, the social service league did not try to redeem the old debts of the mill-hands, but simply confined its operations to granting well-regulated advances in proportion to the wages of the mill-hands. A grant-in-aid of Rs.1,000 per annum is being given to the social service league by Government from the year 1924 onwards. This grant is being paid to the league in order to enable it to carry on its activities in respect of the spread of co-operation in the city of Bombay, particularly among the mill-hands. The Bombay Provincial co-operative institute, which is the most important propagandist body in the movement, has got a branch at Dadar for the purpose of carrying on propaganda among these classes. The welfare institutes referred to above called "The Tata Welfare Institute" and "The E. D. Sassoon Welfare Institute" were organized in the year 1925 to assist in the supervision and control of the co-operative societies of the mill-hands under the Tata and the E. D. Sassoon mill agencies. The work of each institute is carried on by a Board of Management constituted as under : 3 members nominated by the agents ; 3 members nominated by the central co-operative institute ; 1 member elected by the societies in each mill ; and 1 co-opted member.

The agents have agreed to bear almost the whole of the cost (amounting to Rs. 2,000) annually incurred by the institute for the pay of the secretary, peon and other expenses.

(c) The third agency which organized some societies was that of Rao Sahab H. V. Rajwadkar and his friends, who by their personal influence formed about a dozen societies among the labouring classes of Bombay city on the basis of caste or similarity of occupation.

Outside Bombay city the movement among mill-hands has developed sporadically, depending on the amount of interest taken by the management of each industrial concern in the organization of these societies. Among the mill-hands of Haripur and Mansukhpura at Ahmedabad two promising little societies were started by Miss Anusayabai Sarabhai. These societies did good work for some time, but the very next year after the registration, owing to political influences, they ceased to work as organizations registered under co-operative societies Act, and had to be wound up. The Broach Fine Counts mill employees co-operative credit society, being the first society among mill-hands, did satisfactory work and built up a reserve fund of Rs. 5,220 and has got a working capital of Rs. 7,090. It is unfortunate that at present the management of the mill does not seem to take much interest in the affairs of this society. The mill-hands societies in the Pratap mills at Amalner are doing very good work and the managing agents and the proprietors of the mills take sympathetic interest in the well-being of the societies. These two societies at Amalner have got a working capital of over Rs. 2 lakhs out of which the sum of Rs. 1½ lakhs is contributed by the members themselves as share capital, deposits and reserve fund.

*Consumers' and Producers' Societies.*—As regards co-operative production and consumption, there are only two societies of this class at present in Bombay. The consumers' and producers' societies have both met with a failure due mainly to inefficiency of management and absence of any real spirit of joint effort and co-operative production. The only two societies which survive are: (1) Currimbhoy Ibrahim co-operative stores (consumers); and (2) Sahakari Manoranjan Mandal (producers).

The Currimbhoy Ibrahim co-operative stores was registered on the 8th September, 1919, and it has now a membership of 257 with a share capital of only Rs. 322. It had a turnover of Rs. 7,796 and earned a profit of Rs. 1,250.

The Sahakari Manoranjan Mandal Society, which had as its object the public performance of certain plays, is the only society of the class now surviving. It consists of a band of amateurs interested in public theatrical productions. The Mandal is not showing much activity at present, but there are some hopes of reviving its working.

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Mr. F. B. PENDARVES LORY, M.A. (OXON.), I.E.S., DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

**VI.—Education.**

41. *Facilities for Industrial and Vocational Training.*—(1) I would invite attention to the report of the Committee on Technical and Industrial Education in the Bombay Presidency (1921-22). The Government have publicly announced that they are prevented by their financial position from giving effect to the recommendations of this committee.

(2) A committee, appointed by the Government, to report on the reorganization of the Primary and Secondary School Courses and the introduction of Vocational Training is still sitting.

(3) The total expenditure on education in the Bombay Presidency is:—

Total	From provincial funds
Rs.	Rs.
3,89,93,737 .. .. .	2,00,29,462

The expenditure on technical and industrial education is:—

Total	From provincial funds
Rs.	Rs.
5,20,478 .. .. .	2,07,597

This includes the cost of inspection.

(4) Apart from the provision made for instruction in engineering in the engineering colleges (of university standing) at Poona and Karachi, and of the technical instruction given in the V. J. Technical Institute, Bombay, which has been recognised by Government as the chief technological institution in the Presidency, and in

the diploma classes attached to the engineering colleges and in some four or five technical schools, there are a number of institutions giving instruction in industrial or vocational training throughout the Presidency. The industries taught are chiefly carpentry, smithing, weaving, tailoring, book-binding and the like, the first two being by far the most common.

(5) The control of technical and industrial education, except in the case of university colleges and of the special institutions referred to in the previous paragraph is in the hands of a committee known as the Committee of Direction for Technical and Industrial Education. The committee is appointed by the Government. It consists of six members, of whom the Director of Industries and the Principal, College of Engineering, Poona, are *ex-officio*. The Principal of the V. J. Technical Institute is secretary of the committee. The main function of the committee is to arrange for the inspection of schools, which it conducts through the agency of the Principal of the V. J. Technical Institute and the various members of his staff. It lays down courses of instruction and holds examinations and awards certificates.

(6) A sum of Rs. 20,000 is placed at the disposal of the committee for expenses, including those incidental to the inspection and examination work carried out. The committee submit to the Director of Public Instruction recommendations for grant to technical and industrial institutions, who awards grants from the allotment of Rs. 2,81,800, placed at his disposal for grants to special schools. In practice the Director of Public Instruction usually accepts unquestioned the recommendations of the committee.

(7) I attach a copy of the latest report\* of the Committee of Direction, that for 1927-28. I also attach a copy of the compendium\* of technical and industrial, commercial, agricultural, and veterinary institutions in the Bombay Presidency, 1926. A revised edition of the latter publication is in the Press. I would also invite attention to the Chapter on Technical and Industrial Education in the Director of Public Instruction's Annual Reports and in his Quinquennial Report for the years 1922-27.

(8) The industries commonly taught are fitting and jobbing, smithing and mounding, carpentry, weaving, canework, and rope-making. That the facilities for industrial education are inadequate is generally admitted. From the fact that there is annually a saving in the allotment for grants to technical and industrial schools, I assume that all applications for recognition for grant are entertained.

There is a general demand for more industrial education on the part of the public, and it is doubtful if the existing facilities are sufficient to satisfy the demand. Except in so far as the Department of industries encourages and arranges for instruction in weaving, it is left to private agency and to that of the local bodies (municipalities and district local boards) to supply that demand. It would appear that were a constructive scheme for the encouragement of industrial education set on foot it would benefit the industries concerned. Such a scheme would involve expenditure which it is not possible for the Government in the present financial position to undertake.

(9) There would appear to be room for enquiring how far the instruction given in the industrial schools is adapted to local needs and conditions. Thus, carpentry classes as a rule generally concern themselves chiefly with the making of furniture, to the exclusion of house carpentry.

(10) An important problem is the extent to which the labouring, and in particular the agricultural, classes are forsaking manual labour for occupations which are generally classed as "service." The problem has been fully dealt with by Professor Rushbrook Williams in "India in 1924-25" and by Mr. Coatman in "India in 1926-27," and I need not I think, restate the problem here. It is particularly operative in this Presidency. I quote from my Quinquennial Report:—"It is commonly urged that the solution of the question is to provide more industrial and technical education. There is, however, the danger of turning out a number of young men with a technical knowledge of industries which cannot provide posts for them. As it is, more than one of those who have been given technical scholarships for study in Europe are now employed in occupations different from those for which they have been trained. It seems unreasonable to suppose that a supply of men trained for a particular industry will create a demand for that industry; it would appear that the industries must come first—or at all events the two movements must be parallel. For the majority of those who aspire to secondary and higher education as the means of escaping from manual labour, against which there exists a peculiar prejudice in this country, it would appear that the true solution lies in that form which they are trying to escape—manual labour itself."

(11) Secondary education, which in this Presidency means English education, carries with it a distaste for manual labour, the motive generally underlying the taking of secondary education being a desire to pass an examination which will

nominally qualify the holder for a means of livelihood which does not involve manual labour. Little has been done to make provision in the secondary course for industrial education, though there has been for some years past a loud, though ill-defined, demand for such education. It has been contended that the form of education commonly in vogue is responsible for the so-called "Slave-mentality," against which the protagonists of the non-co-operation movement protested. It is, however, a fact that the national schools which were the outcome of that movement entirely failed, in spite of the popular enthusiasm behind the movement, to produce a form of education which could, from any point of view, be regarded as preferable to those already in existence, or one which succeeded in winning popular favour.

12. The education given in the upper primary standards also (V-VII), which in other Provinces would be classed as secondary, is admittedly of too literary a character and is ill-adapted both in respect of its curriculum, and more especially by its methods, to the needs of the rural population. An alternative course, known as the agricultural bias, was introduced for these standards some seven years ago, and is now followed with admitted success, in 64 schools in rural area. The main object is to adapt the atmosphere of the school to the environment and to provide a form of education which will not unfit the boy for village life. Less time is given to the ordinary subjects and special attention is paid to practical work in agriculture, to which is added an elementary training in carpentry and smithing.

It would seem that there is scope for a similar course with an industrial rather than an agricultural bias. The provision of such a course would assist in checking the rush towards secondary education which is responsible for the excessive supply of half-educated graduates and matriculates, and would divert them to forms of education and to occupations for which they are more naturally suited.

#### Mr. W. H. PHILLIPS, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES, AHMEDABAD.

The following statements and opinions are expressed in the undersigned's individual capacity and not on behalf of the Government of Bombay.

The undersigned agrees with the views set forth in the Memorandum from the Government of Bombay, more particularly those expressed in Chapters IV—Health, VI—Safety, VIII—Hours, IX—Special Questions relating to Women and Children, XI—Industrial Efficiency of Workers and XV—Administration, in so far as they concern Factories.

The following are on similar lines with figures for the Ahmedabad Office which comprises factories in Gujarat and Sind.

#### III.—Housing.

19. The following recent figures from one of the best of the housing schemes provided by an employer on the outskirts of Ahmedabad City indicate the extent to which accommodation is utilised and give some indication of the number of persons per chawl on the basis of two children equalling one adult :—

Block.	Chawls.	Vacant.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Persons per chawl.
A .. ..	130	3	159	120	110	389	2.56
B .. ..	48	—	49	58	81	188	3.06
C .. ..	21	—	24	16	13	53	2.2
D .. ..	119	—	149	131	89	369	2.7
Total ..	318	3	381	325	293	999	2.78

#### IV.—Health.

25. The majority of managers state that the facilities provided are utilised to an increasing extent every year and that prejudice against western methods and medicine is mainly when amputation is feared. Cases have been brought to the notice of Inspectors that owing to refusal to agree to amputation considerably worse injuries and deaths have resulted.

Women also are utilising facilities in steadily increasing numbers.

26. *Sanitary Arrangements.*—The majority of factories provide accommodation on a better scale than that which exists in the home surroundings.

### VII.—Safety.

43. The existing section 34 regarding accident reporting would appear to need amendment to include accidents to any person or child and not only to workers in view of the fact that Inspectors use section 19-A and pass orders that children who cannot be lawfully employed shall not enter certain portions of factories.

#### 44. *Incidence of Accidents (Gujarat and Sind).*—

Year.	No. of persons injured.			Total.	Average per 100 operatives employed.	Remarks.
	Fatal.	Serious	Minor.			
1926 ..	10	82	509	601	.646	A "serious" accident is one that involves loss of an eye or limb or absence from duty due to the accident for more than 20 days. In practice, this is considered the difference between the date of accident and the date of return to duty. The serious accidents are thus unduly swollen.
1927 ..	26	320	236	582	.623	
1928 ..	14	349	236	599	.614	

46. The majority of Ahmedabad mills have posted safety posters and some have special safety rules of their own.

48. A provision of the Factory Act requiring the maintenance of prescribed First Aid Boxes appears to be desirable more particularly in the case of smaller factories.

49. *Stringency of Inspection and Enforcement of Regulation.*—The majority of factories uninspected by full time staff were inspected by *ex-officio* officers.

As regards the enforcement of regulations the following table is of interest —

Year.	Cases.	Total Fines.	Remarks.
1926 .. ..	399	6,835	Full time staff only.
1927 .. ..	74	2,500	
1928 .. ..	111	5,435	

50. An analysis of accidents in Ahmedabad Textile Factories for years 1926 and 1927 was made with a view to comparing the incidence of accidents during hours of work (1) when supervision is the strictest, (2) spinning and weaving departments where classes of labour are different and the effect of time or piece-work might be observed, (3) winter and summer month conditions, (4) times of taking meals and smoking in compounds at unauthorised hours. This leads to inconclusive results : figures will be supplied if required.

### IX.—Hours.

59. *Possibility of Reduction in Maxima.*—The chief obstacles to this appear to be (1) the poor efficiency and carelessness of many workers, (2) the use of poor quality cotton although the attitude of owners in this respect has improved considerably in recent years, (3) quantities of Japanese goods in increasing quantities of better quality in some cases which some Ahmedabad mills have to compete with.

## X.—Special Questions relating to Women and Children.

## A.—Factories.

81. *Effect of 1922 Act on Employment.*—The following table shows the distribution of women and children in industries employing the majority and that more women are employed as children are reduced.

Year.	Women.					Total.
	Gujarat.			Sind.		
	All Industries.	Cotton Spg. & Wvg.	Ginning & Pressing.	All Industries.	Ginning & Pressing.	
1924 ..	14,896	10,490	4,213	1,820	1,177	16,716
1925 ..	17,369	11,773	5,123	1,782	1,032	19,151
1926 ..	17,108	11,904	4,713	1,768	1,000	18,876
1927 ..	17,370	12,371	4,573	1,836	1,105	19,206
1928 ..	17,551	12,259	4,791	2,257	1,542	19,808

Year.	Children.					Total.
	Gujarat.			Sind.		
	All Industries.	Cotton Spg. & Wvg.	Ginning & Pressing.	All Industries.	Ginning & Pressing.	
1924 ..	4,592	4,308	226	956	894	5,548
1925 ..	3,701	3,450	107	819	732	4,520
1926 ..	3,007	2,863	202	766	758	3,765
1927 ..	2,521	2,306	107	611	580	3,101
1928 ..	1,810	1,624	52	613	592	2,423

## Mr. W. B. GILLIGAN, I.C.S., COLLECTOR OF RATNAGIRI.

Only about two-thirds of the total area of 2,564,284 acres in this district being culturable the pressure of population (1,154,244 which excludes for the most part the emigrants who may number about 200,000) is heavy on the land. The district does not yield grains sufficient for the wants of the people. Some of the cultivators are very small landholders and the rest landless. The bulk of them therefore serve as field labourers on daily wages either in kind or cash and cultivate lands of others. But for the most part the chief crops in this district being monsoon crops, agricultural work occupies the husbandmen and labourers in this district for a portion of the year, viz., 4 to 5 months only. So yearly when the harvest is over, bands of able bodied husbandmen and field labourers (who belong chiefly to the Marathas, Kunbis and Mbars Communities) numbering not less than 100,000 go to Bombay and Karachi in search of employment and working there in mills, or as domestic servants or in private farms, docks, etc., during the fair season return to their homes in time for the rice sowing operations. Some of them, however, return to their homes twice—once for the Shimga festival and again at the beginning of the next cultivating season.

No difficulty is ever experienced in this district in securing field labourers. Recently, however, owing to the tension between the tenants and khots in the Northern Division of this district, the khots at some places find it difficult to secure an adequate number of labourers to work on their fields but as the tension is gradually being eased, it is hoped that the normal conditions will soon be restored.

There is no regular agency or organization in this district to secure agricultural labourers for work elsewhere, nor is there any permanent labour force and so the information in the prescribed form cannot be given.

The Royal Indian Marine has recruited its personnel from the Muhammadan Community of this district, particularly of the Northern Division, from time immemorial. Information regarding the number of seamen now in service in the Royal Indian Marine and in private ships is not available in this office. The information may be obtained from the Director, Royal Indian Marine, as to the agency employed by that Department in securing lascars in this district.

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Colonel Sir George WILLIS, C.I.E., M.V.O., late R.E., M.I.Mech.E., M.I.E.,  
MASTER, SECURITY PRINTING, INDIA, AND CONTROLLER OF  
STAMPS.

The opinions expressed are personal to myself.

I have been closely connected with labour in India for the past 22 years, in the mints of Calcutta and Bombay, and in the presses at Nasik Road. In the mint I have been responsible for the work of over 2,000 men at one time, while the presses employ about 1,000 men. The whole of the press personnel has been recruited by myself.

I assume that the labour in the mints will be dealt with by the mint masters, and, therefore, I shall confine myself to the labour in the presses at Nasik Road for the purpose of the questionnaire, only using my experience in the mints when generalizing.

#### I.—Recruitment.

Practically the whole of the labour in the presses is locally obtained. A small proportion is imported mostly from Bombay city, but recruitment from this source is the result of personal application at the press. No agency is employed. The output is practically non-fluctuating and, therefore, questions of unemployment and turnover do not arise.

#### II.—Staff Organization.

The presses are administered by gazetted officers drawn at present from the Corps of Royal Engineers.

The industry having only been lately brought to India, no detailed method of staffing the presses has yet been evolved. Proposals are now before Government for building up an administrative staff in the future. It is proposed that this staff shall have both technical and administrative training and it is probable that among the candidates there will be technical men who are unsuitable for administrative appointments but suitable for the technical supervising posts.

Workmen are trained in actual work. Those who promise well and have ambition and initiative are given every encouragement to improve themselves and are promoted to higher grades when fit.

Since fine printing is in its infancy in India, recruitment from outside sources is not possible. Hence, practically all workmen, with the exception of workshop fitters, turners and other skilled mechanics, started in the labour grade. From this grade those suitable rise through the semi-skilled grade to the skilled grade and, in exceptional circumstances, to the special grade. The maximum of this latter grade is Rs. 5 per diem. There are, of course, comparatively few posts in this grade.

The relations between the staff and the rank and file are generally excellent. Appeals by the workmen on any point are sympathetically considered by the administration, but I am glad to say that appeals are very rare, this being my justification for the statement that relations are excellent. The frequent presence of administrative officers in the presses affords full opportunity to the workmen to prefer appeals and to the officers to observe the nature of the relations existing.

Jobbers are not employed.

Works committees, works councils and industrial councils do not exist and I hold the very strongest conviction that the introduction of anything of the sort would be very harmful to the workmen themselves and a serious handicap to the work. Religious, communal and caste questions would arise at once and the professional agitator would be encouraged to begin his mischievous activities.

It has been said that the tendency of works councils and similar organizations in well managed works is to enable the bad workmen to embarrass a good management



while the bad and unsympathetic employer does not allow the organizations to embarrass him. My own enquiries at home, superficial though they have necessarily been owing to lack of time and opportunity, all tend to show that these activities appeal mainly to the indifferent and lazy man, who cannot hope to improve his position on his merits and knows it, and to the man fond of cheap notoriety. On the other hand the steady industrious worker, who trusts to his qualities to assure his retention and advancement in due course, has no love for and very little interest in the organization, but rather fears it, since he suspects that influence emanating therefrom may secure his discharge in case of reduction rather than that of some less efficient man. From my knowledge of what occurs already, unless close watch is kept, I am convinced that this fear would be justified fully if councils were introduced in India, where religious, communal and caste interests are so strong.

Timekeeping is done by a clerk from the office. There are fixed hours of entry and departure. Deduction of pay is made on account of late attendance. The closing of the outer gates and reopening provides a check on the timekeeper.

Wages are paid to workmen by the general cashier in the presence of the supervisor or assistant supervisor of the department.

No contractors are employed.

### III.—Housing.

Practically the whole personnel is provided with quarters by the employer—the Government of India.

The accommodation provided is on the scale which workers would occupy were they living in villages near. The quarters are popular, the only workers who voluntarily reside elsewhere being young men whose families reside in the vicinity. The only complaint has been that some of the labour quarters are floored with stone, whereas an earth floor which can be leaped with cow dung is preferred, as it provides a warmer couch. The dwellings are widely spaced. In the superior quarters water-borne conservancy, a filtered water supply and electric light are provided, which are paid for on a reasonable scale. In the labour quarters each block of ten quarters has two latrines of four seats each, one for men and one for women, with a screened washing place with a filtered water supply separate for each sex. The sewage is water borne. No artificial lighting is provided in the labour quarters.

In most cases, including the whole of the labour, no rent is payable. Certain appointments do not include rent free quarters and rent at the rate of 10 per cent. of pay is payable; sub-letting and occupation of quarters by tenants in other employ are not allowed. Personnel leaving the employ of the presses are allowed a reasonable time to vacate, except when dismissed for offences involving moral turpitude, when summary eviction is the rule.

The effect on the worker of the provision of good housing in the close vicinity of his work are all good. He lives in healthy surroundings at some distance from the temptations of the bazaars. He has no long distance to traverse to reach his work in the morning and his home after work. Daily inspection of the area prevents the accumulation of fly-breeding rubbish and mosquito haunts. Regulations as to those whom he may have to live with him prevent his being preyed upon by relations to the 5<sup>th</sup> degree.

### IV.—Health.

No health statistics are maintained.

The mortality during the four years the press has been in operation has been very good, both among the workers and their families. All births and deaths are reported to the Mamlatdar of the District.

The presses are well ventilated and light, with ample space for workers. There is a water-borne sewage and ample filtered water available.

The physique is generally good and I have noticed an improvement among those who have been here some time. This may be ascribed at least in part to the healthy conditions under which the workers live, their regular hours of work and their assured position.

The effect of good housing has been very noticeable. Cholera and plague have on several occasions severely attacked the neighbouring bazaars of Nasik Road and Devlali, but the labour quarters of the press have been kept clear in every instance.

A resident medical officer and compounder with a dispensary and a full supply of all ordinary drugs, dressings, etc., are maintained. Medical attendance and medicines are free. There is no provision for women doctors, trained midwives or

dais. In Nasik there is a Zenana hospital fully staffed by lady doctors, which is utilized to some extent by the families of the personnel. The medical facilities are fully utilized by both sexes.

The presses afford examples of model factory construction of the latest type.

There is no industrial disease. Malaria is endemic but not wide spread. There is no other prevalent disease.

At this stage in the development of industry the introduction of sickness insurance is a Utopian dream, on account of the difficulties enunciated in II, which are insuperable at present.

#### V.—Welfare.

Except for the provision of playing grounds, an annual sports meeting and accommodation for a house father for the Indian Christian lads recruited from the neighbouring missions, there are no welfare activities. The great difficulties of caste and communal dissension render such activities more likely to do harm than good. There are flourishing cricket and hockey teams formed by the workers themselves, while the superior staff have a social club for the encouragement of games and other amusements.

There is a primary school provided for the young children of workers in the press area. This is not very freely used. In Devlali village, one and half miles away, there is a district board secondary school which some of the children attend. There is no provision for adult workers and there are no half-time workers. I have heard no suggestion of a desire on the part of adult workers for education.

The workers will, I consider, for many long years prefer their traditional provision for old age, the raising up of a family, to any contributory scheme.

The presses have a co-operative bank, not long in existence. When it gets over its infantile diseases it may perform the useful function of spreading the blessings of co-operation.

#### VII.—Safety.

The provisions of the Factory Act are complied with. The accidents are few and far between. The causes are generally gross carelessness or disobedience of strict orders on the part of the sufferer or another employee. The Safety First propaganda is confined to stiff fines for breaches of rules designed to ensure the safeties of workers. This is the only effective action. Argument falls on deaf ears, not only in India. A supply of bandages and disinfectants is maintained in the presses for immediate use, but the resident medical officer has every case taken to him at once at the dispensary which is near by.

The hours worked in the presses are not long, so that no accidents can be ascribed to fatigue. The effect of good health probably conduces to accident among the young workers, as high spirits lead to skylarking and more than one accident is attributable to this. The good lighting and working conditions afford no excuse for accidents here.

#### IX.—Hours.

Working hours, normal and actual, 7.30 a.m. to 12 noon, 1 p.m. to 5 p.m.; Saturdays, 7.30 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. Overtime is seldom resorted to. Hours worked per week, 47½. Days worked per week, 5½.

#### X.—Special Questions.

Women and children are not employed in the presses.

There are two classes of apprentices, A and B, but no formal agreement is entered into. Recruitment is by selection and in the A class higher educational qualifications are necessary. Apprenticeship lasts four years and may lead to training in England, but the matter is now under the consideration of Government. B apprenticeship should lead to employment as a specially skilled worker or will qualify a worker fully for well paid employment outside. No guarantee of continued employment on the expiry of apprenticeship is given, but those giving satisfaction will be given preference in filling vacancies in the supervising staff.

#### XII.—Wages.

In addition to free quarters, labour employed in the presses starts on a rate slightly higher than the ruling local agricultural rate and can qualify by good work for regular increments. The higher pay is given in part as an inducement to honesty which is so necessary in an establishment of this nature and in part as an inducement to the extra cleanliness required, as well as to avoid frequent changes of personnel, which

would undoubtedly occur seasonally if emoluments were kept at the level of agricultural wages. No increments are given as a right but must be earned by good steady work.

Overtime and Sunday work are paid for at the rate of time and an eighth in the case of the technical staff and time and a quarter to labour. They are seldom required and usually only in connection with the unloading of consignments.

Fines are exacted for late attendance, careless and bad work, and damage by negligence or disobedience of orders to plant and machinery. Since all these cause direct or consequential loss to the employer—the Government—the fines are credited to Government. My experience here and elsewhere convinces me that there is no necessity for legislation regarding fines as the workmen will soon bring a system of unreasonable fining to an end by leaving the employment.

Wages are paid monthly in the case of staff on a monthly salary. Daily paid workers are paid monthly or weekly at their option but they are only allowed to elect to change the period once. Theoretically, weekly payment should be the most satisfactory to the employee. But it is found in practice that monthly payment is often preferred as the worker settles his grain bills and financial arrangements, including interest on outstandings monthly with the grain dealer. If he has drawn his wages weekly there is a liability to fritter the money away and the monthly settlement suffers.

Unclaimed wages are retained till the applicant appears to claim. No specified time is laid down by which the claim becomes barred.

Indebtedness is general as in most parts of India. It is possible that the establishment of the co-operative bank may mitigate the penalties of indebtedness, but its very popularity is proof of the general feeling that indebtedness is a normal condition.

Certain of the staff serve under leave rules and take full advantage of the rules. The daily paid personnel can take what leave they require without question on previous permission being obtained. Very little leave is asked for as religious and other holidays are so numerous that over pressure of work is not felt, and the loss of pay by absence is a serious matter.

India has not reached a point yet at which a fair wages clause would be anything but a farce. Contracts are so largely sub-let that it would be impossible to enforce the clause, and it is so difficult to get at the truth among the labouring class, that even without sub-letting, attempts at enforcement would entail endless difficulty. Indian labour forms a natural and very strong trades union and attempts to obtain labour beneath the ruling rate fail, except perhaps in the case of emigrant labour proceeding to distant places under unknown conditions. Here also, however, such attempts will fail as soon as returned emigrants are available to recount their experiences.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

The efficiency of Indian labour, as also of the labour of all countries, tends to diminish rapidly in respect of pure handicraft with the extension of the use of machinery. Where a fitter would have trimmed up a casting in a few minutes twenty years ago with a hammer and chisel, he now wants to put it on a machine, wasting three or four times the time in setting. This is only one example of many that I could give. Acquaintance with and intelligent use of machinery is increasing and the tendency to own bicycles and familiarity with motor-car engines is slowly spreading a mechanical sense.

Indian labour properly trained and supervised at one operation, if worked for reasonable hours, is as efficient as any labour so long as continued considerable effort is not necessary. I have had workers in my employ that I would not change for any that I have met elsewhere. Initiative is usually lacking, with some few very notable exceptions, and in jobbing and repair work, consequently the Indian does not shine. Intelligibly used, Indian labour employed on straightforward manufacturing is difficult to beat.

Increased efficiency can best be secured by continuous personal supervision of the whole establishment by the management. Firm, but sympathetic treatment of labour rapidly produces fruit. An absentee management or one so overburdened with office work that frequent visits to the works are not easy, leads inevitably to slack and bad work and decreased output. The mere presence of an administrative officer enforces the observance of orders and he seldom finds it necessary to interfere personally. Time spent in this way, though it may be grudged, is by no means wasted. Supervising staff which may be excellent when efficiently overlooked, are very apt to get slack on seeing no personal interest taken by those higher up and criticism and praise on the spot alike absent. This communicates itself rapidly to all grades and results in the end in the establishment of a low standard of output and of quality of work.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

No trade union exists in the presses. As mentioned above, Indian labour is very effectively organized by nature and attempts to drive down wages or to impose unpalatable conditions would be defeated by the impossibility of recruitment. This statement is true of isolated industries in agricultural areas, but probably does not hold to the same extent in large industrial areas. I have, however, found the same spirit very strong in Bombay when I was in charge of the mint there.

Mr. T. S. DOWNIE, O.B.E., CHAIRMAN, KARACHI PORT TRUST.

#### PART I.

#### III.—Housing.

16. (i) The Port Trust Indian village consists of 45 lines of masonry buildings. The accommodation in the village is as follows:—

						Approximate monthly rental.		
						Rs.	a.	p.
569	small	houses	..	..	..	6	0	0 each.
95	"	(improved)	..	..	..	6	8	0 "
20	medium	houses	..	..	..	7	0	0 "
114	new	medium (cement) houses	..	..	..	9	8	0 "
18	large	houses	..	..	..	8	8	0 "
30	shops	..	..	..	..	} 22	0	0 "
5	"	(improved)	..	..	..			
6	"	(medium size)	..	..	..			

The village also contains slaughter-house, cattle pen and blocks of latrines.

A large number of men, not in Port Trust employment, reside in the village, but as vacancies occur, Port Trust men are being accommodated there.

A number of Port Trust employees, about 40, receive rent-free quarters in the village.

18. (ii) The roads are lit by the municipality, who also carry out the cleaning and sanitation. The Port Trust pump salt water to the village for flushing purposes.

Owing to the lack of pressure in the municipal mains the Port Trust supply drinking water at groups of stand pipes served by pumping from the Erskine Wharf Power House.

Further accommodation is available in Karachi City, and the majority of Port Trust workmen reside there.

House rent is paid in the case of shunting staff at Rs. 4 p.m. each in lieu of quarters.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (i) *Figures of mortality.*—4.4.

(ii) *Birth-rate and infant mortality.*—Infant mortality at Manora, 15.8. Birth-rate: Registration is carried out by the Manora Cantonment Authority.

(iii) *Working conditions*—(a) *at workplaces.*—Satisfactory. (b) *At home.*—Suitable quarters are provided by the Karachi Port Trust.

(iv) *Dietary.*—According to circumstances.

(v) *Physique.*—Normal.

(vi) *Effects of disturbance of sex ratio in industrial cities.*—Not applicable to Manora.

29. (i) *Prevalence of industrial diseases.*—None.

(ii) *Prevalence of tropical diseases.*—None. Malaria is imported.

As regards Karachi, there is no reason to suppose that any labour occupation in the Karachi Port Trust differentiates the labourer from the average citizen of Karachi in regard to general health, mortality, birth-rate, infant mortality, etc., nor in regard to industrial diseases, cholera, malaria, etc. Nor are there any separate figures as to mortality, birth-rate, dietary, physique, etc., of the Karachi Port Trust employees. They have never been considered necessary.

## VI.—Education.

40. One vernacular school at Manora controlled by Port Trust where Sindhi, Gujrati and Marathi languages are taught. In all 80 boys and 36 girl students receive tuition out of which 70 boys and 29 girls are children of Port Trust employees, chiefly workmen. Tram hire is allowed to the children of workpeople who send them for higher education to Karachi.

At Keamari and Karachi a number of primary schools are provided by the municipality.

## IX.—Hours.

## D.—Other Establishments.

78. *Engineering Department.*—Hours worked per week, 49½ to 56; hours worked per day, 8 to 9.

*Cranemen's working hours.*—7.30 a.m. to 1.0 p.m., 2.0 p.m. to 6.30 p.m. in short days (winter). 7.0 a.m. to 1.0 p.m., 2.0 p.m. to 7 p.m. in long days (summer).

Spare cranimen are provided for each five cranes, and the work is not continuous by each man, as he is relieved at intervals by the spare man. Overtime is allowed for working beyond the above time.

*Traffic Department.*—Twelve hours with one hour's recess from 1 to 2 p.m., with the exception of the shunting staff, who work in shifts of eight hours each.

## XI.—Special Questions Relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.

93. *Port Department.*—The men of this department on the station work for eight hours a day, but there are no fixed hours for those working afloat, as they have to work according to emergency.

*Floating Craft in the Engineering Department.*—There are no definite meal hours on board the floating craft. The men are not continuously employed, and have intervals of rest for meals, etc.

94. *Port Department.*—Petty officers and stokers are paid Rs. 15-5-0 and lascars Rs. 11-3-0 p.m. in lieu of rations. They are allotted free quarters ashore and afloat according to their work. There are no articles of agreement for them.

*Floating Craft in the Engineering Department.*—Ration allowance as under is paid to all workmen (drivers, khalasies, firemen, etc.) on the floating craft, and house accommodation on shore is provided when available:—

Drivers, firemen .. ..	Rs. 15-5-0 plus 2 cwts. firewood each.
Khalasies, etc. .. ..	Rs. 11-2-0 plus 1 cwt. firewood each for <i>old hands</i> and
Khalasies, etc. .. ..	Rs. 10 plus 1 cwt. firewood each for <i>new men</i> .

95. The engagement of labour on merchant ships under the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, XXI of 1923, is controlled by the Collector of Customs and Shipping Master, Karachi, and therefore the information required can be had from that officer.

## XII.—Wages.

96.	<i>Traffic Department.</i>				No.	Salary.
	Designation					Ra.
	Shakers .. ..	..	..	..	6	40
	Cranemen .. ..	..	..	..	1	40-2½-60
	" .. ..	..	..	..	1	40
	Sewingman .. ..	..	..	..	1	45
	Shunting staff—					
	Jamadars .. ..	..	..	..	3	40-2-50
	Pointsmen .. ..	..	..	..	16	20-1½-26
	Coolies—					
	Jamadars .. ..	..	..	..	3	50
	Coolies .. ..	..	..	..	13	37-8
	" .. ..	..	..	..	21	30
	" .. ..	..	..	..	16	28-8
	" .. ..	..	..	..	12	27
	Carpenter .. ..	..	..	..	1	70

106. (iii) Fines are credited to the Port Trust.

107. Men on monthly pay are paid monthly. Men on daily rated pay are also paid monthly. Men on daily wages are paid weekly.

Unclaimed wages are credited to the Port Trust after a lapse of three years.

109. *Traffic Department—Provident fund.*—Cranemen and shakers are admitted to the benefits of the provident fund under certain conditions. One-twelfth of a monthly pay is deducted and an equal sum added to it by the Port Trust. After five years' service the subscribers are entitled to the Board's contribution and interest thereon in addition to their own.

In addition gratuities are payable to such men at the rate of half a month's pay for each year's service up to a limit of thirty years.

Gratuity is payable in the case of those not entitled to the benefits of the provident fund on the following scale :—

After a service of :—

5 and under 10 years .. .. .	3 months' pay.
10 to 15 years .. .. .	4 " "
15 to 20 years .. .. .	6 " "
20 to 25 years .. .. .	9 " "
After 25 years and over .. .. .	12 " "

Gratuities are also paid on the scale laid down in the Workmen's Compensation Act in case of injury or death irrespective as to whether the employees come under that Act or not.

110. *Traffic Department.*—One month's leave with pay after eleven months' service. This leave can be accumulated up to three months only. Casual leave, 15 days in a year.

## PART II.

### I.—Recruitment.

7. *Unemployment* (i) and (ii).—The depressed condition of the export trade which has fallen from 2,070,209 tons in 1924–25 to 660,988 tons in 1928–29, has led to the closing down of various improvement works, and to general retrenchment in office and labour staffs. This, with the lack of industries and a steadily increasing population, both through natural causes and through immigration from other parts of India, has led to general unemployment throughout the city.

(iii) From the Port Trust point of view, there does not appear to be any practicable means of alleviating and remedying the existing distress unless a strong and steady revival of trade sets in, as the improvement works of the Board are far ahead of present-day requirements, and it is not feasible to proceed with further works until there is reason to believe that the export trade is likely to exceed in volume the capacity of the existing accommodation.

### II.—Staff Organisation.

15. (i) A considerable portion of Port Trust work is given out on contract, the principal item being the work of slinging and unslinging cargo at the ship sharves. The arrangement is to give the Port Trust portion of the work to the stevedores of the discharging or loading vessels and to pay at prescribed rates on the basis of the tonnage dealt with.

(ii) So far as Port Trust work is concerned, there is very little sub-contracting.

(iii) The Port Trust do not exercise any control over working conditions except to ensure that the appliances used for the conduct of the work are in good order and condition.

(iv) It is considered that if the slinging and unslinging work were done departmentally the men employed would, as a whole, be better treated as regards wages and housing conditions than is the case at present, but the change would probably increase the cost of the work and necessitate the Port Trust keeping on idle labour during periods of depression, which is avoided under existing conditions. The present arrangement has so far been conducive to harmonious working, as it avoids the disputes which usually take place when the work on board ships and on the shore is conducted by different agencies.

### III.—Housing.

16. The Port Trust have constructed and maintain over 800 houses for the accommodation of labour at Keamari. These houses, taking five as the average number of occupants, will accommodate over 4,000 persons, but it has been found impossible to prevent overcrowding, and it may be taken that over 6,000 people actually live in these houses.

It has been the policy of the Port Trust to charge minimum rates for these houses, the rents ranging from Rs. 5 to Rs. 9·8 annas p.m., according to the size of house. The rents, although recently increased, are still unremunerative, and there is an annual loss to the Port Trust in maintaining these houses.

As many of the Port Trust employees prefer to live in Karachi in communal groups and also because they can erect their own huts at very much less expenditure than is required to rent a house at Keamari, a large number of the Keamari houses have been let to the labour employed by the various firms, and consequently there is not sufficient accommodation for the whole of the Port Trust staff at Keamari.

The question of inducing employers of labour to acquire sites on which to build quarters for their workmen and thereby set aside more houses for Port Trust employees has been taken up and negotiations are on hand towards that end.

The Port Trust have under consideration the reconstruction of a large number of the houses which were built many years ago, and propose in due course to take this work in hand.

18. (iii) Sufficient water is supplied free of charge by the Port Trust for the use of their tenants, and a scheme for the installation of modern sanitation is now under consideration.

21. Sub-letting is a prevailing evil, and it is general knowledge that tenants obtain considerably higher rents from sub-tenants than are paid to the Port Trust. Eviction is resorted to in numerous cases to prevent this irregularity, but there is every reason to believe that many cases go undetected.

#### IV.—Health.

24. The Port Trust employ two medical practitioners for the needs of their employees and subscribe handsomely to the various hospitals. They also bear a moiety of the cost of the upkeep of a motor ambulance for removing patients from Keamari to city hospitals.

26. The sanitary arrangements leave much to be desired owing to the lack of a drainage system, which so far has not extended to the Port Trust property, but, as already stated, the matter is under consideration for installing the system at Keamari.

31. *Maternity Benefits.*—As a general rule, the wives of Port Trust labourers do not perform outside work, and it is not customary for the Port Trust to employ female labour. The Port Trust, however, subscribe to the Red Cross Association, which maintains a qualified nurse at Keamari and instructs and gives assistance at child-birth to those in need of such assistance.

#### VI.—Education.

The Port Trust maintain a school at Manora for the children of their employees.

Ample schools are available in Keamari and the city for those who reside on the mainland.

#### VII.—Safety.

Numerous rules and regulations have been framed to safeguard the interests of workers on Port Trust premises and gear and appliances are being constantly inspected.

As a rule the majority of the accidents which take place on the ship wharves are due to the neglect of precautions on the part of the injured, who are mostly illiterate and would not easily understand Safety First propaganda were such introduced.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) This, under the existing Act, extends to a limited number of Port Trust employees, but the Port Trust grant compensation on the lines of the above Act to all their employees who may be injured or killed in the execution of their duty.

#### IX.—Hours.

##### D.—Other Establishments.

78. The working hours of the Port are :—

*Day-work.*—From 15th March to 14th September, 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with one hour's recess from 1 p.m. to 2 p.m. From 15th September to 14th March, 7.30 a.m. to 6.30 p.m., with one hour's recess from 1 p.m. to 2 p.m.

*Night-work.*—7.30 p.m. to 6.30 a.m.

The question of reducing the above hours was considered some time ago, but after a prolonged correspondence with the various Chambers it was decided that, in view of the extensive improvements which were taking place in connection with the development of the port, further consideration should be postponed until experience had been gained of the working of the West Wharf berths and the effect of the improvements in the railway facilities of the port, which were likely to be introduced in the near future.

## XII.—Wages.

106. (i) The amount realized in fines is trifling, about Rs. 60 p.a.

(iii) All fines are credited to Port Trust.

107. (i) (a) Men on monthly pay are paid monthly. (b) Men on daily rated pay are also paid monthly. (c) Men on daily wages are paid weekly.

(ii) (a) and (b) are paid within a week of the termination of the month; (c) are paid on Monday following the week ending on Saturday. Those who are discharged during the week are paid up at once.

(iv) Unclaimed wages are credited to the Port Trust after a lapse of three years.

### Mr. JAMSHED N. R. MEHTA, KARACHI.

My experience is mainly for the city of Karachi and somewhat for the Province of Sind.

#### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) Karachi is by itself a city where everything comes from outside, and thus labour practically consists of those who have migrated from other places. The chief portion of labour comes from the Makran coast and the mountainous areas in the vicinity. A portion comes from Cutch and Marwar and a small portion comes from Bombay and surroundings.

(ii) People are drawn from the villages to the city in order to earn their bread. The main cause is due to constant famine in the areas at Marwar and Cutch and Makran.

(iii) In the recent years we find several people coming from villages in Sind also. This is also due to same reason that they find agricultural industry not paying at all, owing to want of rain and proper facilities.

2. Generally the labour is permanent but a small portion returns back if they get the news of the rain in their area of native land.

3. There is no need of a public recruitment agency in this city for the reason that during a greater portion of the year or practically during the whole year the labour is more than is needed for this city.

4. The labour generally comes in Karachi with family nowadays. Formerly people used to come alone and the family used to be in their own villages. Now, therefore, there is no effect or disturbance in the family life.

5. (i) Generally they live in Karachi and they work from generation to generation. There seems to be no need for any recruitment.

(iii) But I would suggest that some kind of elementary education, both for further increase of knowledge in marine matters and also for better methods in fishing, would be very advisable for them.

7. (i) The unemployment is considerable in the city of Karachi. It is caused by slump in the trade and there being no industry in this city. The labour is employed generally by port trust, municipality and the railway. The railway has lately shifted their workshop from Karachi to Sukkur. Thus the unemployment is increased considerably.

(ii) The port trust had to retrench owing to export trade being considerably decreased. The prices ruling for seed and grain in Australia and America and Canada and the Argentine being much lower, the export through Karachi has considerably decreased and depressed state. So the labour had to be retrenched on the wharves and in the godowns of the exporters.

(iii) The only way I can suggest is to foster industries. The Government of Bombay has done nothing to help the people of Sind to carry out industrial schemes either to educate the people or to give them help by establishing industrial departments. It is also due to want of business education and understanding in the people of Sind and Punjab, who do not understand the methods and systems and advantages



of export trade. They have all been taught for centuries past to store their grain and seed until the prices rise high. The speculative spirit is the chief cause of loss of export trade. Investment ideal has been completely lost after the war and the people of Punjab and Sind lack the business education. This is the main cause of the loss of export trade and in consequence unemployment has become keen. They are not in touch with the world market of grain and seed.

(iv) Unemployment is so considerable that I feel any insurance for employment is hopeless.

(v) International conventions to be applied for employment would be ridiculous in the absence of education which is first necessary.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) By employer almost nil.

(ii) By Government—somewhat for their peons.

By the municipality hardly any. They have supplied about 200 houses to the people and pay rent to their peons and some of the employees at the rate of Rs. 4 per month.

By the port trust; they have built about 600 houses for the labourers, but most of the labourers live outside this area as they desire to live amongst their own people in the area provided by the municipality in the Lyari quarter.

The railway have provided some houses for their workers.

(iii) Some private landlords provide for their servants in their own compounds.

17. There is ample area of land for workers' houses if required and acquisition is not necessary.

18. The provision that is made generally for workers here is a small verandah and one room, a small kitchen for each and group of latrines and some water services are provided.

(iii) Conservancy is being provided by the municipality so also by providing group latrines. Sanitation is being observed by the municipality with more care. There is ample water supply being made to them but I do feel there is the more need of provision for bathing facilities which is not adequate at present.

19. The workers would like to utilize the accommodation made available for them. In recent years hundreds of small houses are being built by private landlords and are being lent out by them to the worker, but they demand nearly Rs. 5 which the workers cannot afford. The workers, therefore, prefer to build their own huts in Lyari quarter by paying the land rent of Rs. 1 per year to the municipality.

20. In Karachi the cheapest rent is Rs. 5, but the actual working classes have to pay from anything between Rs. 5 and Rs. 15 which they find very hard to pay.

### IV.—Health.

23. (i) I have asked the health officer of the municipality to supply with figures and facts regarding mortality and birth rate, and infant mortality for the last ten years with the method of registration which will give you a general idea.

The city of Karachi is generally healthy, specially for nine months in the year. For some three months the mortality considerably increased all around owing to pneumonia and certain diseases. This, I believe, is due to want of proper housing accommodation and owing to lack of physical fitness—due to poverty.

(iii) The working conditions at places are fairly good but the living conditions at home are not desirable.

(iv) Amongst the Muhamedans they usually eat wheat nan and sometimes a little bit of meat. Amongst the Hindus it is always the rotli and dal and sometimes a little vegetable. There is hardly any variation. Tea seems to be entering almost every house.

(v) Physique is generally very poor, except the Makrani class, who have for generations past been keeping a well-built body, but when ever they come to the city and enter the city life in a certain number of years their physique gets poorer.

(vii) I do feel the mortality would improve with the improvement of housing conditions in the city.

24. Some employers do allow medical aids to be given to their employees but that is very little in proportion. Government have provided a civil hospital which is free for every one both for indoor and outdoor patients. There is an eye hospital also. Government gives liberal grants to the Lady Dufferin Hospital and also to the tuberculosis hospital run by the municipality.

(iii) The Port Trust has provided their own medical officer for their employees. The municipality has provided 13 dispensaries and 3 maternity homes, 1 venereal dispensary, 1 epidemic hospital and 1 eye hospital. From statistical reports it

appears that Karachi has provided in the whole of India the best possible medical facilities which could be provided for patients in comparison to other cities in India. We have also our Health Association, a non-official agency which does very useful work. It has 1 maternity home and 8 centres for midwives who go round the various quarters of Karachi and advise the ladies specially for their maternity period. They also attend at the time of the delivery. At the head of it there is a lady doctor in charge.

(iv) In Karachi we have got the Lady Dufferin Hospital with a special lady doctor, 3 female dispensaries, 3 maternity homes of the municipality worked by lady doctors. The Health Association is managed by the lady doctor and trained midwives are obtainable in Karachi through the health association. There is also a training institution for midwives in Karachi called the Louis Lawrence Institute under the Lady Dufferin Hospital. For Sind, Miss Piggot and Miss Ward are doing very useful work for training dais and midwives in Hyderabad and other places and they supply almost the whole of Sind with their trained midwives.

25. From all reports it appears that considerable use has been made of these dispensaries and maternity homes and other agencies of help both by males and females. The reports are available of all the agencies and can be collected for the Commission if need be by the Health Officer.

26. As far as the latrines are concerned, generally latrines and drinking water services are well supplied. The facility for bathing is not adequate as I said before and they require improvement. In the poorer houses there are no latrines and no water pipes and these are supplied through municipal group latrines and street water services. Drinking taps are provided for bathing, and washing places have been provided at about 5 places only for working classes. They need considerable improvement and extension. I have asked the health officer and engineer to supply you with the number of street water services, latrines, etc., if need be.

27. The municipality has a health committee which is completely in charge of health and sanitation and other health arrangements of the city.

(iii) There is hardly any mill or industrial area in Karachi.

29. There is no particular division in the city there being no industry whatsoever.

(ii) Cholera, malaria, hookworm and other tropical diseases are not extensive in this city. But malarial attacks are frequent in certain months for which best possible precautions are taken.

30. As I have said above international labour convention and similar associations seem absolutely hopeless here. What is required is compulsory education first. It will be very difficult for the people to understand it and also it requires a complete change in the heart of the employer to accept such a convention.

(iii) There is no difficulty in Karachi for non-acceptance of western medicines or paucity of medical men. People take to western medical aids and doctors and they do it willingly and with faith. The difficulty is purely financial.

31. Owing to social work, the bodies like municipality, port trust and such other public bodies are now giving facilities during maternity periods such as leave on pay to women for 20 days at least. But I do feel that legislation is necessary in this direction in all parts of India which should make it compulsory for all employers, private or public bodies to give reasonable facilities.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. (i) There is hardly any for labourers. There are some social working agencies and the municipality is doing a little for the sweepers.

33. I think the municipality and public bodies ought to employ welfare workers and officers. As a matter of fact trained welfare work is not understood here at all. They do not know what it is and it is necessary that public bodies like port trust, railway and the municipality ought to employ well-trained social workers.

34 (i) There is none. Some attempt was made but somehow it was dropped.

(ii) There is hardly any serious attempt at physical culture, recreation or amusement for labourers. Of course the city amenities are provided to which the labouring class is free to take advantage of. But there is no special arrangement made for them, except for school children in which all children are free to come.

36. So far I do not see any facility provided by employers except the municipality which has opened schools which give books and slates and other educational requirements to the children of the labouring class. They also provide 2 suits of clothes every year to these poor children.

The municipality pays half the fees of their employees' children for secondary education.

37. I think that all public bodies and all private firms ought to be made to provide for at least a provident fund. Bodies like Municipality and Port Trust have their leave rules and retirement rules but generally they are not applicable to labouring classes. The general difficulty seems to be because they have not started special funds. It would lead to great financial strain to start provident fund at present for the old employees too. That is the main difficulty and it is a problem very difficult to tackle though there is the sympathy to do something.

38. The welfare work through co-operative movement for the labouring class has been so far to drag them out of the money lenders. There are 4 agencies working for it and it has led to very good results. Can give details if wanted. The municipality helps allowing co-operative banks and societies to deduct of the monthly pay of the employees instalment moneys towards loans already advanced to these employees to free them from falling victims to money lenders, who charge them heavily to the extent of 75 to 250 per cent.

#### VI.—Education.

There is no industrial area in Karachi and the children are taught in all schools. Labouring class is free to attend any school and many are taking advantages of the educational facilities. There is no facility for industrial or vocational training of any kind.

42. The effect of education is that who ever takes to school does not like to come in for any kind of hand labour and considers himself too big a person for it. I have got some definite ideas about it. As the chairman of the school board, I had made a definite scheme for it. But owing to financial circumstances of the municipality it was not brought into operation. My scheme was to give educational facilities for 2 hours and vocational education for 2 hours. The training which I had proposed was mat making, tin box making, weaving, masonry and carpentry. There are enough regulations for factories and docks as far as I am aware and if need be, the same can be extended if expedient.

46. Education may save a lot of trouble from accidents and for bringing down number of accidents generally. I have found that accidents are purely brought about by ignorance and carelessness in many instances.

48. There is ample provision made in Karachi for this purpose. There are ambulance cars, hospitals to take care of and to give help in time wherever needed.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation Act.

51. In Karachi, so far, there is the Workmen's Compensation Society which is vigilant to see every case of accident and breach of the provisions of the Act. This society is doing some good work both to the employers and employed. So far I have not seen any adverse effect on industry.

(v) The employees are free to take the advantages of insurance wherever there is the danger of frequent accidents. Others are willing to pay out of their own funds or general assets and therefore I do not suggest that insurance should be made compulsory except in certain trades where possibility of accidents is greater. I would make it compulsory in the case of dock contractors and such trades where the chance is great in regard to frequent accidents.

52. So far as possibility of providing against insolvency of employers is concerned, the Workmen's Compensation Act has been brought into force in India only very recently and I would advise to wait until experience is gained.

53. I would advise to wait for changing the scheme until some experience is gained. But I would strongly urge for a machinery of administration. I would make it compulsory that each and every case of accident should be reported to a particular agency and that particular agency should be made responsible to see that the claims are demanded and paid according to the provisions of the Act. I am not in favour of fresh legislation but with suitable modifications the existing regulations will be enough for the present.

#### IX.—Hours.

55. In factories they work from morning 8 o'clock to about 6 o'clock in the evening with a recess hour in the afternoon. This means practically 10 hours. This works out to be 60 hours per week. I consider this should be reduced to 54 hours in all cases and the daily limit should not be more than 9 hours, but in cases of emergency it should be extended to 12 hours but not for more than 2 days in a week, for which overtime should be paid.

60. Intervals should be fixed definitely at a particular time. The present system of any hour for rest should be discontinued and definite hours should be fixed by

providing 5 hours in the earlier part of the day and 4 hours in the later part of the day and 1 hour in the middle as interval for recess and rest. The number of holidays for various sections of the communities not exceeding 3 in a month ought to be given.

As far as docks and railway workmen's work is concerned, I would limit the night work to six hours with interval in between. For night work I suggested the pay to be  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times, for 6 hours work, which they get for 9 hours in the day. That means that if a labourer is paid one rupee for 9 hours in the day he should be paid Rs.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  for 6 hours at night.

#### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

82. I strongly oppose the admission of infants into factories specially as our municipality is on the eve of introducing the compulsory primary education.

83. I would make no distinction in the regulation for women's work except for the maternity period and also that women should not be compelled to come and work during their monthly period and the interruption caused thereby should not be taken as interruption of service but may be treated as special leave at the most on loss of pay.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. The labourers earn in Karachi, between 8 annas to Re. 1 a day.

102. Overtime is paid generally 50 per cent. more in all cases.

105. I am in favour of legislation for minimum wage, but I am doubtful of it being carried out favourably unless an organization is set up to manage it.

106. I am in favour of legislation for the utilization of fines to the benefit of the employees.

#### XIII.—Efficiency of Workers.

113. In my opinion the efficiency of Indian worker is much poorer in comparison with that of a foreign labourer. The lack of energy is due to poverty, want of education, want of sufficient encouragement on the part of the employers and there being no scope for further progress in any manner.

114. (vii) Education as it is given at present is bound to affect the industrial growth day by day as far as labour is concerned, both in the factories as well as in the agricultural concerns. There is no doubt that as soon as a child is sent to school they forget hand labour. The only way is to give education to each and all. There is no other method. As long as education is given to a few (?) this will continue.

115. I have no doubt that liquor, drugs and dietary are great deal responsible for the inefficiency of the labour in India. By giving fair housing conditions with the requirements of health and sanitation, with proper working hours and adult education as far as possible, the Indian labour could be turned into greater efficiency, even greater than in other countries.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Karachi and Sind are not yet advanced in my opinion for trade unions or associations. It would have hardly any effect upon the labourer.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. None at present, for two reasons. There is no recognized agency for education and secondly because the supply of labour is greater than demand.

107. I am in favour of weekly payment all throughout.

108. I am of the opinion that the indebtedness is great in all cities and villages. The temptation to borrow is so much. The poorer labourers are so honest that there are always many agencies ready to lend them, but generally they lend them at very high rates of interest. I find that more money is spent in liquor and ceremonies and this can only be removed by four different lines of work, (a) propaganda, (b) education, (c) direct legislation against the priest classes and sanyasis who take every opportunity to rob the innocent persons of their money and (d) through co-operative societies to lend moneys at equitable rates of interest.

109. Such large heartedness has yet to be created in India. This can only come when industrial men and financiers will understand the advantages of more production through co-operation and work for production. All industrial attempts of co-partnership should be encouraged by Government.

110. The labouring classes are generally excluded from leave rules by all sorts of pretexts that they are daily paid men, that it is difficult to maintain their service books and records. This requires a change of heart and mentality. I am afraid legislation may not be of much use in a country like India with the present system of education.

111. I admit the desirability of fair wage clause in public contracts, but I am not able to think out a way how to bring it into a working order. I would very much like to know it.

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Mr. MULCHAND M. KIRPALANI, B.A., PLEADER, HON. GENERAL SECRETARY, INDIAN SEAMEN'S UNION, KARACHI.

### INTRODUCTION.

In presenting a memorandum on behalf of the Indian Seaman's Union, Karachi, I wish to state that I want to be as brief as possible and confine myself solely to questions affecting the welfare of the Indian Seamen of Karachi. Incidentally, however, as I am also the General Secretary of the Karachi Port Labour Union, I shall refer to some of the important questions relating thereto.

#### Recruitment of Seamen.

1. *Existing practice.*—At the present time, Karachi is most unfortunately not recognized as a shipping port, from which a full crew can be signed on. If a full crew are needed, they are sent for from either Bombay or Calcutta. All that Karachi Port has to do, is to fill up a few gaps here and a few gaps there. These gaps are sometimes caused owing to desertion of a seaman or by sickness while in Karachi harbour. Recruitment for filling such gaps is done in the following manner. The representative of our union, as a rule, presents a number of men to the shipping office and the captain selects a few from amongst them. The system of Ghat-syrangs and shipping brokers, fortunately, does not prevail here.

The shipping office is in charge of the collector of customs. He has entrusted his duties to the deputy shipping master who gets an allowance for the purpose. But he, in turn, has entrusted the duties to the chief inspector of the Preventive Service, at Keamari.

2. *Suggestions for Improvement.*—What we want is the immediate establishment of a separate shipping office at Keamari. It is our emphatic belief that until and unless a separate shipping office is established, the lot of the poor seamen of Karachi, can never be bettered. The shipping master would then be able to devote himself solely to the amelioration of the condition of seamed.

We understand that the control of the shipping office is being shortly transferred to the port officer. *Cui bono*, we ask. How this may lead the Government to lay a flattering unction to their soul that they have done something for the betterment of the seamen of Karachi.

But we, on our own part, feel that this is hardly a step in the right direction. And who knows that this step of the Government may throw us out of the frying pan into the fire. There are separate shipping offices at Bombay and Calcutta, and why not at Karachi? Karachi is growing day by day beyond all expectations. It is the nearest port to Europe. It is the most important aerial station for all aeroplanes coming over to India, and it is to have its own lustre, glory and eminence because of the Sukkur Barrage. Its importance can also be gauged from the fact that the former Amir of Afghanistan, is understood to have demanded the port of Karachi for his country.

That such an important seaport should not have a separate shipping office and a full time shipping master of its own shows that the Government has adopted an apathetic attitude towards the port of Karachi, which is to be highly deplored. If there were a separate shipping office a complete register of all the seamen could be maintained and the syrang could be entrusted with the work of selecting the necessary quota of seamen.

The cost of maintaining a separate shipping office will not be much. The Government levies a fee of Re. 1 from every seaman who is signed on. These fees are bound to increase when full crews are taken from here. Then the Government would easily be able to defray the expenses of the separate shipping office. It will also mean a saving to the owners of the steamers for they will not have to pay the fare of seamen coming from Bombay and Calcutta, which comes to about Rs. 500 every time.

If there was a full time shipping master, he could easily bring the seamen of Karachi in touch with masters and owners of steamers by advertising in the papers.

Then we come to the question of unemployment.

**Unemployment.**—The problem of unemployment, to say the least, is very acute. The number of men available for service will be approximately 25,000, from whom khalasis, firemen, coal trimmers, greasers and saloon boys can easily be drawn. Keamari, Baba, Hit, Lyari, Kuch Coast and other places round about, abound with them. Some sturdy Punjabi, N.W. Frontier Bander Abad, Basrah and Bushire seamen numbering about 15,000 would also come down to this place and Karachi will thus become one of the best recruiting grounds in India. The seamen of Baba Islands, Cutchis, Sommalis, Makranis and Shidis are a cool, daring and excellent seafaring lot and have excellent certificates from the masters of the steamers and can compare very favourably with the seamen of any other nation in the world. These people run about in search of employment to Bombay and Calcutta from Karachi but are generally rejected, the indigenous residents getting the preference. There is a deep indignation amongst them for not being taken up. They have vehemently protested against the system of full crew being signed on from Bombay and Calcutta for service in steamers at Karachi. The only excuse that masters of steamers give is that Karachi is not a shipping port. Representations have been made to Government, but they have produced no effect whatsoever. The net result of the magnitude of unemployment among seamen is that it has worked untold misery upon them and their families. To picture the miserable condition of these seamen, one must live amongst them. Their condition will ultimately result in a disturbance at any time.

It was not many days ago that a number of seamen came to the office of the Indian Seamen's Union and said that they would take the law into their own hands, offer resistance and drive away the seamen that had come from other ports to Karachi for being signed on. We have dissuaded them from pursuing such a dangerous course of conduct for the present, but we know we cannot restrain them for long. Such rowdy scenes were enacted at Bombay when the Calcutta crew was imported there. The net result of it is that it has not, since then, been possible for Calcutta seamen, to dare to come to Bombay for being recruited there. And we are afraid that unless Government adopts a conciliatory attitude towards the seamen and opens a separate shipping office at Karachi in the near future, these seamen will soon get out of hand with evil consequences to the peace of this city.

#### Housing.

There exist no housing arrangements for the seamen. They live mostly in mat huts on payment of Re. 1 per annum. Their employers live 6,000 miles away and consequently have done nothing for them. Their sanitary conditions are far from desirable. All the epidemics that have broken out, start from there. The only housing arrangements made for them by a local body, are the 800 houses built by Port Trust at Keamari. The rent of each house is Rs. 5 per month. But this also falls heavily on them. On every Tuesday, when the court is held at Keamari, one finds plenty of cases arising out of the failure to pay rent. Recently, the rent of these houses has been enhanced by Re. 1. This means an additional source of hardship for the poor people. Many of them have left these houses and have gone back to their old mat huts.

#### Health.

The health of the seamen is remarkably good. Sturdy men that they are, they seldom fall ill. Figures of mortality amongst them are very low unless when an epidemic breaks out. Medical facilities have been well provided for them, specially by private agencies.

#### Welfare.

Much requires to be done for the welfare of the seamen. Government, Port Trust and the Municipality could each contribute substantially and appoint welfare officers and workers. Provision could then be easily made for physical culture recreation and amusements. In fact it is an urgent necessity that the spare time of the seamen should be properly utilized. A good library is a great desideratum. A reading room is another. There should be a night school for them. Games, performances, shows, lectures and out-door exercises should be well provided for them.

#### Special Questions relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.

1. **Hours of Work.**—The Indian seamen have got to work from 6 a.m. to 9 a.m., 10 a.m. to 1 p.m. and then 2 p.m. to 5 p.m. This amounts to 9 hours. In fact, they should not be made to work for more than 8 hours a day. Besides that, they have

to perform watch duty at night time for 2 hours daily. This is also undesirable and constitutes a heavy strain upon them. Europeans have to work for 8 hours per day. This racial discrimination even at sea must be avoided at all costs. On Saturdays they should have only 5 hours work and on Sundays 4 hours work.

It is here that we have to draw your attention on behalf of the Karachi Port Labour Union to the pitifully tragic plight of the dock workers in the port. From 15th September, right up to 14th March, they have to work early in the morning from 7.30 sharp up to 6.30 sharp in the evening. They get only 1 hour's lunch time between 12 noon and 1 p.m. From 15th March to 14th September, they have to work from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. As regards night work, they have to work for 11 hours throughout the course of the whole year. At Bombay, they have to work from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. and from 8 p.m. to 3 a.m. with 1 hour's time for lunch. The hours of work for these dock-workers must not exceed 8 hours.

*Rations.*—Their great complaint is that they do not even get milk with tea. Indians do not take tea without milk, but on board ship they are supplied simply with hot water made red by putting a small quantity of tea. Even as regards sugar, they get only one cup of sugar for the whole week. In fact, according to the terms of the articles of agreement entered into with the seamen, they ought to get 1 oz. and 8 drams of sugar per day. But this is honoured more in breach than in observance.

*Accommodation.*—The present arrangement for the accommodation of seamen on board the steamer is simply revolting. There is a large common poop the walls of which are infested with bugs. The atmosphere all around is sooty, smoky and stuffy. 30 to 40 people are herded together like sheep. The rooms are very badly ventilated and very poorly lighted. If any contagious disease breaks out, then woe betide the seamen living there. They have no safeguard against disease. Even the arrangements for proper bathing are non-existent. They bathe without any clothes on and there is no privacy for them.

*Articles of Agreement.*—The present form in force in Bombay Presidency meets with the requirements of the Indian seamen to a considerable extent. We have however to complain (as above) about hours of work, accommodation, good rations, etc.

*Indian Merchant Shipping Act.*—We will deal with Sections 52, 53, and 54 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act when we come to the question of wages. But one important thing we have to suggest is that even boats of smaller weight than 300 tons should also be included in the Act. This would materially benefit the seamen on those boats.

*Wages.*—The prevailing rate of wages is a very important matter and we shall deal with it in a somewhat detailed manner. The prevailing rate of wages is as follows:—Seaman, Rs. 22 per month; fireman, Rs. 27 per month; coal trimmer Rs. 21 per month; greaser, Rs. 32 per month; serang, Rs. 65 per month.

This is too low a scale of wages and we strongly recommend that it should be substantially improved. Nothing less than 50 to 60 per cent. increase will meet the situation. The fact that European seamen are getting 5 times the scale allowed to Indians is causing heart-burn and we feel that this racial discrimination must be done away with. This is a modest demand and we are certain that the Royal Labour Commission will recommend the same without the least hesitation.

Again we come to the question of the dock labourers, whose wages are sought to be raised by the Karachi Port Labour Union. We have already referred to the large number of hours they have to work, and their wages, considering the risk involved, are a mere pittance. It was about 4 years ago that the dock labourers went on strike and demanded better wages and a decrease in the number of hours of work. The strike lasted for about 6 to 7 days. The result of it was that there was a little increase in the wages but the demand for reduction in the number of hours was not conceded. It is remarkable that even the Port Trust favoured reduction in the number of hours.

*The Allotment System.*—Sections 53, 53 and 54 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act lay down the rules for the allotment system. But it is a dead law and instructions should be issued to masters and owners of steamers that it should be put into practical operation forthwith, for otherwise the seamen are subjected to very great hardship. They go on a voyage. The wife left behind goes and borrows money at an exorbitant rate of interest. The result is that when the sailor returns home from voyage, he finds everything mortgaged and the debt exceeding his wages for the period he has served. If about  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the wages are allotted to his wife during the period of voyage, the family would not experience hardships and no debts would be contracted except under extraordinary circumstances.

*Payment for Overtime and Sunday Work.*—European seamen are given overtime allowance, and why should not Indian seamen get the same. It is a question of a fair field and no favour. Sometimes these seamen are made to work at meal time. They sit down to take their meals and off goes the whistle and they have to leave their meals in the middle and run off to their work. For such kind of urgent and extra work, they must be paid something extra.

*Deductions.*—We have not much to complain about the deductions that are made by levy of fines, etc. Now we suggest that this money should again be utilized for the welfare of the seamen. Grants-in-aid should be given to schools, libraries, reading rooms, etc., for seamen.

There are four other points which are not covered by the questionnaire issued by the Royal Labour Commission, but we should like to suggest the opening of the same to the Commission.

Firstly, there should be a Seamen's Rest for Indians. There is one at Karachi, but it is meant practically for Europeans and Indian seamen cannot take any advantage of it.

Secondly, there should be a small savings bank on board the steamer so that the seamen may learn the value of economy and frugality.

Thirdly, the system of unemployment insurance should be enforced. We understand that in England, for every man that is employed about 1s. 3d. is paid per mensem to the Unemployment Society. Out of the above amount, 8d. is paid by the employers and the rest is paid by the seaman himself. So when a seaman, not through his own fault or negligence, is out of a job and is unable to maintain himself, the society keeps him going. Here the work could be managed by the Indian Seamen's Union.

The fourth and the last point with which we shall conclude this memorandum is connected with the Karachi Port Labour Union. We strongly urge that a waiting hall be provided for the dock workers. They are so poorly paid that they cannot afford to have any house. The only roof they have got is the sky above them. And even when they take their meals, they sit under the rays of scorching sun. If something is done for them, the dock workers will be benefited to a great extent.

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## THE KARACHI PORT TRUST LABOUR UNION, KEAMARI.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) Karachi has very little original population of its own. The working classes employed by Port Trust come from Sind, Cutch, Kathiawar, Gujrat, Deccan of the Bombay Presidency, Punjab, Frontier Province, Baluchistan Province, and a sprinkling of men from other Provinces.

2. (i) and (ii) Particularly the manual labourer and such others getting small wages live singly and have necessarily to go to their native places once in about two years; whereas tally clerks, mistris, carpenters, masons and others forming about 15 per cent. living with families may be regarded as permanent force.

3. (i) The recruitment is generally made by timekeepers in workshops, and as the men are not regarded by Port Trust as permanent, it is often alleged that illegal gratification is taken at the time of employment and particularly when these men return from leave, they are not taken back although the jobs on which they are engaged continue to exist. The substitutes are allowed to continue while the original men, in many cases of long services, have to wait perhaps till some others go on leave. This has caused corruptions and injustice.

(ii) The union has made representation that men who have been in service and return from leave ought to be put on the appointments they held and that as usual elsewhere substitutes should be dispensed with. As usually new men are engaged in the beginning of the month it would not be difficult if the recruitment is made by a board of three men holding important positions in workshops when the superintendent or manager of workshops should also be present. This practice is followed by N. W. railway which has set up a board to select men for appointment of clerks and others.

7. (i) Unemployment among skilled and non-skilled, as also in clerical line exist on large scale in Karachi, due to general depression of trade.

(ii) (a) It has its reaction in Port Trust which has reduced its West Wharf construction scheme and retrenched a large staff of men as also in other establishment. In Manora workshop since some time past the employment is very irregular the riveters, many of whom have ten years of service and over, have been kept idle for two weeks in a month.



(iii) The union has made representation that particular items of work which have been marked to be taken up at some later date should be taken in hand now in order to tide over the difficult times.

(iv) The union is in favour of unemployment insurance in case of workers who have been engaged in any urban areas for five years. It might be on contributory basis, but the contribution of labour should not exceed 25 per cent. and the Government and employers should contribute 75 per cent.

8. (iii) Absenteeism very little.

10. The managing staff is all European.

12. (i) The wharf supervisors are generally recruited by direct method and out of them the inspectors are recruited. All others are generally recruited direct.

(ii) No facility for training and promotion of tally clerks exist. There is only one case in which a tally clerk was promoted to the post of a supervisor in Keamari.

13. (i) Not altogether intolerable. As a result of union's activities the immediate officers have begun to realize the men's point of view and show consideration here and there.

(iii) and (iv) Do not exist. Strongly advocated.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) By Karachi Port Trust : 44 free quarters and 161 on rent.

(iii) Rest of the houses by landlords.

18. Two room tenements (first room 14 ft. by 13 ft., second room 14 ft. by 12 ft., verandah 14 ft. by 8 ft.) a portion of the first room is used for cooking. There is no sink. There are common privies, a good bit distant from the houses. The private houses are no better.

19. There is on the contrary acute shortage of houses.

20. Rs. 5 per month is the least.

21. In Manora, the Khalasis are huddled together 20 in a big room. Only 12 family quarters are provided with the result that twice or thrice during the full time of service a person would have the opportunity to stay with family for a year in rotation. It is necessary to remember that no private houses are available at Manora and that the nature of work compels men to stay at Manora. The unmoral evil effect of this can be more imagined than described and the union feels that something should be done immediately to improve upon these conditions. It is also necessary to remember that even criminals are treated better by Government in jails where accommodation of 10 ft. by 10 ft. is allotted to each prisoner.

### IV.—Health.

24. The Port Trust have a medical officer who treats staff under establishment "A" the rest of the large staff have no benefit of being treated by him even when very necessary at the hands of first class doctor that the Port Trust medical officer is. The handicap is very great as the low paid staff cannot afford the heavy fees of a private first class medical man.

The municipality maintain a dispensary in each quarter and in some cases for two quarters combined in the city. The health association by means of grant in aid from Government and municipality and private subscriptions maintain a midwife in each quarter under the supervision of health visitors and a qualified doctor.

25. (i) and (ii) Fairly fully.

26. (i) Poor ; (ii) tolerable ; (iii) nil.

31. Port Trust have no women workers.

### Welfare.

32. (i) and (ii) The Port Trust give a grant to Indian Red Cross Society which runs a small centre at Keamari.

37. Yes. With small and meagre salary some provision for old age is necessary. The Port Trust give after 25 years of approved service 12 month's salary as gratuity which does not carry very far. The Port Trust give one month's salary every year in provident fund which earns interest for the benefit of their staff on "A" and "B" establishment. If that is extended to other men it would greatly meet the needs, otherwise old age pension system should be introduced.

38. Papers for registration of Karachi Port Trust Labour Co-operative Credit Society have been sent to the Registrar, Co-operative Societies. A co-operative stores will also be soon organized.

## VI. Education.

40. Municipality have schools in every area.

Night schools aided by the municipality exist in many working class localities.

42. Even the general rise in education among upper middle and lower middle classes has had a very wholesome and alleviating influence. The standard of living has considerably gone up all round during the decade and so also among the working classes. Most of the manual workers of over 30 years of age are illiterate, but they are anxious to educate their children. The young artizan class in workshop that is making its appearance does show, even with little education, a higher level of intelligence and with it also efficiency.

## IX.—Hours. D.—Other Establishments.

78. (i) and (ii) The Karachi Port Trust bye-laws provide for wharf working hours from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with one hour's break for meals at 1 p.m., i.e., 11 hours in summer; and 7.30 a.m. to 6.30 p.m. with one hour's break for meals at 1 p.m., i.e., 10 hours in winter. From 7.30 p.m. to 7 a.m., i.e., 11½ hours without any break at night. The whole of working classes keenly feel on the question of long working hours on wharf. The hours are tiresome in the extreme and takes away life out of workmen. The conditions of work on wharf is more strenuous, less congenial and more dangerous than those existing in factories where eight hours regulations operate. Representation was made by tally clerks to introduce shift system for their staff at least. The question was favourably put by Mr. Downie, the secretary, now acting chairman, before the Port Trust Board that the hours of work on wharf should be reduced. The Board appointed sub-committee to consider the question which recommended that the hours should be reduced to ten. The board adopted the recommendation unanimously and invited the opinion of the European and Indian Chambers of Commerce. The European Chamber first viewed the proposal favourably but, in spite of entreaties of their then chairman, Mr. Clayton, who even went to the extent of suggesting to the members at the meeting that the times were fast approaching when there would be strong agitation against the long hours of work by labour, and they would be well advised to agree to a small concession now and thus satisfy and pacify labour. Unfortunately the representatives of big business; the European shipping companies, led by Mr. E. A. Pearson, manager of Messrs. Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Company, Limited, agents Ellerman Lines, Limited, set their faces against the proposal and wrecked even the small measure of reform. This attitude reveals nothing but exploitation and sweating of labour. It is interesting to bear in mind that the European Chamber of Commerce have four representatives on Port Trust, and when the question was discussed at the board they supported it. So far as the two Indian Chambers, which have the Scindia Steam Navigation Company, Limited, as members are concerned, let it be said to their credit that they agreed with the proposal of the Port Trust without hesitation. They have a large portion of inland trade in their hands and many Indian firms are exporting cotton to Europe. Many Indian firms are direct importers. Besides the fact that the prices of the raw products exported from Karachi are governed by world prices and that the prices of imports, which include items of freight, are dictated by manufacturers, the Indian is ultimately more affected than European. It is also necessary to remember that the working hours in Bombay are only nine during day and still less at night, the output of work there is only two-thirds of Karachi. It is acknowledged by even stevedores in Karachi that the labourers here are more hardy and are thus able to do more work in an hour than the workmen of Bombay, whereas the wages in Bombay compare favourably with Karachi. In Bombay a gang of seven men, including tindal, get Rs. 10-8 annas for discharging cargo; and 11 men, including tindal, Rs. 17-8 annas for loading cargo. This works out at Rs. 1-8 annas per day per man, whereas in Karachi the wage is only Rs. 1-2 annas per day per man. Further, often more than one gang per crane is employed in the hold of a steamer working in Bombay, whereas invariably only one gang is employed after each crane in Karachi. The Port Trust dues and other charges are also much higher in Bombay than in Karachi and although no diminution of work will result by reason of reducing of working hours by one hour, even if it is assumed that there might be slight reduction, Karachi would still be at a far greater advantage in point of speed and despatch of work. Karachi's import trade is largely carried on with Sind, Baluchistan, Punjab, Frontier Provinces, Afghanistan and Delhi which cannot be competed with by Bombay and even Kathiawar Ports, on account of Karachi's geographical proximity to those provinces. In fact conditions are so favourable to Karachi that cotton and wheat and other produce of United Provinces are railed down to Karachi for export. There can, therefore, be no fear of diversion of trade from Karachi. Indeed the proceedings of the Chamber of Commerce on the question of reduction of working hours make no mention of it. Their sole object, as stated therein is to maintain Karachi's reputation of

taken to this but it must not be maintained at the cost of humane conditions for labour. The labour is greatly agitated over this and as a result of this a Bill to provide a reasonable ten hour's day has been brought before the Bombay Legislative Council by the Karachi member, Mr. N. A. Bechar, who is also President of the Karachi Port Trust Labour Union. It is suspected that Government would ask for postponement of consideration of the Bill till the Royal Commissions Report is issued. This would be fatal, as moderate measure like this should not be shelved under the pretext of Commission's Report. And it is the earnest prayer of the Union that the Commission will express and indicate their opinion on this question to the Government of Bombay. Indeed if anything to alleviate the conditions of long hours for labour in port can be done, the Commission will provide an everlasting memory of good to labour in Karachi by their visit.

#### XII.—Wages.

98. *Traffic Department.*—(1) Checkers Rs. 55-5-70; (2) tally clerk Rs. 40-2½-50; (3) shakers Rs. 40 p. m.; (4) lampman Rs. 25 p. m.; (5) naik of chowkidars and peons Rs. 21 p. m.; (6) chowkidars Rs. 18-1-22 plus Rs. 4 house rent; (7) coolies Rs. 30, Rs. 28-8 annas and Rs. 27 p. m.; (8) carpenter Rs. 70 p. m.; (9) jamadar of sweepers Rs. 22 plus Rs. 3 personal pay=Rs. 25 p. m.; (10) sweepers Rs. 18-1-20.

*Port Department.*—(1) Serang Rs. 50-1-55; (2) tindal Rs. 30-1-35; (3) driver Rs. 30-2-42; (4) lascars Rs. 22, Rs. 20 and Rs. 17 p. m.; (5) signalman Rs. 25; (6) sweeper Rs. 18 (7) cook Rs. 17 p. m.

*Engineering Department Workshops.*—(1) Coppersmith Rs. 4-8 annas a day; (2) fitter Rs. 3-12 annas and Rs. 1-12 annas a day; (3) boiler makers Rs. 3-4 annas and Rs. 1-12 annas a day; (4) blacksmith Rs. 3 and Rs. 2 a day.

Hammerman Rs. 1-4 annas a day; carpenters Rs. 3 a day; coolie jamadar Rs. 2-8 a day; coolie Rs. 1-4 annas a day.

*Power House.*—Boiler boys 12 annas a day; drivers Rs. 2-1 annas a day; firemen Rs. 1-4 annas a day; oilman Rs. 1-1 annas a day; coalmen Rs. 1-3 annas a day.

*Cranes Staff.*—Pumpmen Rs. 1-6 annas a day; craneman Rs. 1-8 annas per day; crane foremen Rs. 80 starting p. m.; crane khalasis Rs. 1 per day; fitters Rs. 2-4 annas and Rs. 1-11 annas per day.

101. The Port Trust merely arbitrarily fix wages.

102. The cranesmen get Rs. 1 per night equivalent to day's wages instead of 50 per cent. extra on account of night work as is done in other branches of engineering department.

105. The disparity between the salaries of officers getting Rs. 3,000, Rs. 2,500 and so on, and a poor way gangman or a sweeper, chowkidar and peons getting hardly Rs. 20, i.e., 150th of big officer's salary is so revolting and unheard of in any civilized country that something ought to be done to improve the lot of the poor men. However miserably one would exist, it would be difficult to maintain a family with wife and only two children on a paltry sum of Rs. 20, this fact has been represented personally to the chairman, Karachi Port Trust, who has asked for family budgets, and if satisfied, has promised to put the matter of increase in salary of low paid staff favourably before the board. It does not matter what work is assigned to an individual but so long as that work is necessary and is required to be done the man who does it must be paid a wage which would ensure him and his family a minimum amount of comfort. As such, we are in favour of a minimum wage being fixed, but for obvious reasons not by a general statute but in Port Trust Acts.

106. The Karachi Port Trust do not seem to be keeping any separate account of deductions of fines imposed but we are in favour of crediting fines to a separate account and handing them over to the union or to a mixed committee for utilizing it for social purposes as is done by Bombay Port Trust.

(i) and (ii) Daily wages. Tally clerks are paid every week and Wednesday for work done up to previous Saturday. In other departments daily wages are paid every month, but in many cases the dates of payment extend to 15th of the succeeding month.

(iii) (a) The union is not in a position to express a definite opinion, (b) but legislation would greatly mitigate hardships caused by irregular payments extending to 15th. We are of opinion that payment should be made by 5th of every month.

(iv) We are strongly in favour of utilizing the unclaimed wages for social services among the workmen.

110. Annual and other leave.

(i) On an average once in about two years.

(ii) The Port Trust grant leave to what they call inferior establishment, but in no way inferior in point of loyalty and devotion to duty in comparison to the superior service, one month after eleven month's service provided the head of the department

can spare him and that no extra cost is incurred. The implications are both un-favourable and unjust to the men. It can be agreed by a critic that either there is superfluous establishment or that work must suffer by reason of granting leave. And as such, even on very important and urgent occasions, men are denied leave or else they have to depend upon whims or caprices of the officer who often exact consideration in nature of domestic work or of other kind. Besides, a large number of people working in workshops do not enjoy this restricted leave and must go without pay. Not only that, but their jobs are in danger when they return from leave, the union strongly feel that the Port Trust Act ought to lay down definite obligation to give one month's leave with pay per year.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (i) Karachi not being an industrial centre, there is no other body except Chambers of Commerce.

(ii) A provincial branch of the All India Trade Union Congress is likely to be soon organized, also, this union having just been organized, some time will elapse for combination.

120. (i) A union of tally clerks, just a small section of men was formed, but the immediate officers took unkindly attitude to it. Even C. I. D. police indirectly harassed members and as such the union broke down in a short time two or three years ago. Last year, Mr. N. A. Bechar, member of the Bombay Legislative Council, who is interested in labour and labour organizations, asked questions in the council, also interviewed the chairman and secretary, K. P. T., in the matter of forming the union and its recognition by the Karachi Port Trust. Meetings were also held of workmen and the union was formed on the 26th November, 1928. It was registered under the Trade Union Act and the Port Trust also recognized it on certain conditions. Propaganda were carried on among men in different departments with the result that over 1,000 members have joined the union.

(ii) Sympathetic and are realizing value of organization. Each section have centre Committee officered entirely by the men themselves, the general secretary usually attends to give any information and general guidance required. Centre Committee meetings are frequently held, where grievances general and individual are considered. These are represented to the managing committee on which each centre committee has two representatives. The meetings of the managing committee are usually held once a month and attendance is 80 per cent. Members take lively interest. Recently as a result of union's representation the workers are given a half holiday on Saturday in two workshops which has given some satisfaction to men and are taking keener interest. There are only three outsiders, i.e., president, one of the four vice-presidents and general secretary. The latter is a full-time paid officer and has got a lot of secretarial and other work to do.

(iii) One of indifference and, of late, resentment. Very often information would not be supplied. Even schedule of staff rules and bye-laws and copies of particular resolutions of the board affecting conditions of service of a particular department were given after continued representation. One of the conditions of recognition is that individual grievances must not be taken up by the union. The union has pointed out its hardships and particularly where circumstances in individual cases have bearing on general conditions of service men. It is the usual practice with the Government departments and public bodies which maintain service books to give opportunities to men to explain any point before any adverse remark is made against him. This is not being done by Port Trust. The Port Trust passed a resolution to bring 30 cranimen of ten years' approved service on permanent establishment "B." Yet have few men been made permanent, the members got restive and no satisfactory reply was given to union's representation. The union then desired to ascertain the length of service of each member, as also remarks, if any, in the service books. The Port Trust refused to show the books, nor gave the information required, with the result that members concerned do not know whether or not they are entitled to become permanent. Instances could be multiplied. One redeeming feature, however, is that when matters are personally represented to Mr. Downie, the secretary, now acting chairman, the discussions produce a spirit of understanding and sympathy, and as such this practice is proposed to be largely pursued.

#### Mr. R. K. SIDHVA, KARACHI.

The following memorandum was passed at a meeting of workmen and labourers of the India flour mills :—

In view of fear of victimization the labourers and workmen of flour mills are not prepared to tender evidence of their numerous grievances before the Royal

Commission, but if they feel inclined to invite them officially they can do so. They have, however, deputed Mr. R. K. Sidhva to ventilate their grievances and to give evidence on their behalf.

The following are some of their main grievances with regard to the condition of workmen in the flour mills :—

- (1) That a majority of unskilled labourers have to work for full 12 hours at a stretch without any recess for meals.
- (2) Barring very few who draw salaries between Rs. 20–30 the average pay of unskilled labourer is Rs. 18.
- (3) That no allowance is given for either Sundays or extra work.
- (4) That even on Sundays when the mills are closed they have to work for half a day.
- (5) That they are not provided with either house allowance, or houses, or medical relief, education for children, or any amenities.
- (6) That those few labourers of engine department who are allowed recess for meals are not provided with any shed to take meals or rest.
- (7) That even after 10 years' service no leave is granted with pay ; but that on the contrary when one returns from his native place after few months he is taken back on reduced pay.

(8) That the condition of skilled labour, for instance, fitters, carpenters, blacksmiths are equally pitiable. They have also to give same hours of duties as the unskilled labourers give.

The following are some of the budgets of labourers :—

A labourer whose salary is Rs. 18 per mensem and whose wife and children are in his native place, spends his income as follows : house rent Rs. 3, food, cloth, barber, etc. Rs. 13 ; total Rs. 16, saving Rs. 2 which he sends periodically to his family in his native place, which is not sufficient to maintain them and therefore he is indebted to the extent of Rs. 200 and pays interest at the rate of one anna per rupee per month which has to be paid either by further borrowings or a portion out of the savings.

Budget of a fireman whose wife and two children are with him in Karachi : salary Rs. 36 ; expenses : house rent Rs. 5, food, clothes, etc. Rs. 28, total Rs. 33, saving Rs. 3, which he sends to his old father and mother for their maintenance who are old in age which sum is not sufficient to keep them on, so he is indebted to the extent of Rs. 300, and pays same rate of interest as above.

They therefore resolve and recommend to the Commission that they should be provided :—

- (1) With wage which would keep him and his family happy and free from debt and permit of a decent civilised existence.
- (2) With free, healthy, and sanitary quarters.
- (3) With free medical relief, free education for their children in the vicinity of their works.
- (4) With bonus or pension system or provident scheme as is given in other departments to clerical staff and officials to enable them to maintain themselves in old age or in lieu thereof a system of old age pension.
- (5) That they should be granted one day in a week holiday with pay.
- (6) That their working hours should not be more than 48 per week.
- (7) That one month's leave with pay every three years should be granted.
- (8) That a scheme of adult suffrage for men and women should be introduced in order to enable the working classes to safeguard their interests.

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Messrs. COWASJEE & SONS, Stevedores and Banking Contractors, KARACHI.

#### *Workmen's Compensation Act.*

When Government inquired from various commercial institutions and individual concerns, employing labour at large, on the subject of Workmen's Compensation Act (amendment), we had submitted our views on the matter and a copy is submitted herewith.

The Workmen's Compensation Act as read by the local Commissioner provides that the wages of a casual worker is to be multiplied by 30 times to arrive at the earning capacity of a labourer. This may be working satisfactorily in industrial

areas in other parts of India where there may be little of unemployment and plenty of alternative industries, but it is not at all satisfactory from the point of employers at Karachi.

Karachi can boast of only one industry and that is the shipping industry.

Karachi Port Trust has provided 18 berths on the wharf, and 5 moorings in the stream, i.e., Karachi can accommodate conveniently 23 steamers in the harbour.

From experience it is known that during the course of a year, once or twice this number of steamers remain in port for a few days, and hardly any shortage of labour is felt during this rush.

The administration report of the Karachi Port Trust proves that the average occupation of the berths is only for 8 to 9 steamers per day, i.e., hardly one-third of the accommodation is fully occupied, and hence there is employment for one-third of the earning period, i.e., for about 10 to 12 days.

If a labourer gives an honest reply, it will be observed that wharf labourer hardly earns for 10 to 12 days in a month, when he is fit to do the work owing to shortage of employment, but if a labourer meets with an accident, he is sure of getting wages computed under the Act, whereby his daily wage would be multiplied by 30 times which again halved would yield him a monthly earning of nearly Rs. 23, his average wage being Rs. 1-8 annas per day, whereas as stated above a healthy workman honestly securing employment will not be able to get work for more than 12 days in a month which means about Rs. 18.

Thus it will be seen that the Act works more in favour of injured persons than in favour of those who are ready to work honestly.

The labour leaders in Karachi have taken it upon themselves to see the full application of the Act applied to cases of accidents, with the result that of late, accidents have been considerably on the increase for very minor injuries, the natural consequences being that the act is indirectly assisting idleness, and if a check is not put on these methods very soon, the entire discipline will be undermined, resulting in a complete breakdown, which may ultimately result in labour trouble, thus affecting the only industry of this city.

It is our opinion that the labour leaders in Karachi are more anxious to assist idleness, and they encourage labourers in submitting false claims, apparently the entire motive being to create troubles between the employers and the employees.

It is a significant fact that since the formation of the Workmen's Compensation Aid Society more accidents have been recorded for the same period than at any other stage during the history of Kimari for a similar period, and this proves our contention that minor injuries are intentionally suffered with a view to secure a steady income by way of compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

It is submitted that it could not have been the intention of the legislature that a man who is laid up suffering from some injury should earn more than a man who is willing to work when he is in good health, but the interpretation of the Act as interpreted by the Commissioner of the Workmen's Compensation Act, Karachi, evidently acts against the very principle of the Workmen's Compensation Act.

We have information from the Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation Act in Bombay and Calcutta, where they compute the earning capacity of a dock labourer as 20 days in a month or Rs. 30 per month and no more.

It is alleged that this is contrary to the correct reading of the Act, but the labour unions at those ports and the employers have come to a sort of an arrangement, and the Commissioners at those ports have agreed to decide cases on the basis of the earning capacity of the dock labourer at the rate of Rs. 30 per month.

Calcutta and Bombay are very big shipping ports and if the maximum number of days that a man can earn is put down to 20 days only or the earning capacity of Rs. 30 per month only, it is hardly fair to the employers at Karachi that the earning capacity of a dock labourer at Karachi should be calculated on the basis of 30 days or Rs. 46-4 annas per month for the purpose of assessing compensation.

In a concrete instance, in the case of a fatal accident, we have been made to pay as much as Rs. 1,387 because the deceased happened to be one of the three brothers who supported a minor sister.

It will be appreciated that when the man was alive, he was only contributing one-third towards the maintenance of the unmarried minor sister, but, owing to the faulty wordings of the Act, full amount computed, on the basis of the earning capacity at 30 days per month again multiplied by 30 times, was secured for the benefit of the sister.

It may be noted that if that man had lived till the age of 80 or 100 years he would never have collected this amount during his lifetime, but it can be seen that his unmarried sister benefited more by losing her brother than by having him alive.

We submit that the merciless application of the Act by the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation Act at Karachi is hitting very hard at the root of the shipping industry at Karachi, and unless action is taken in the matter, the employers of labour at Karachi will have to increase their charges for doing the same amount of service to their employers with the result that Karachi will become more expensive as a shipping port.

Karachi is struggling hard at present in competition with Kathiawar ports and Bombay, and if the loading and unloading charges are further increased, the steamers will have to increase their rates of freight for Karachi, which will result in entirely blockading of whatever little trade we are having for the time being.

This will prove that the shipping industry at Karachi is unable to bear any further overhead expenses and unless the present Workmen's Compensation Act is amended in a manner whereby the employers are safeguarded against bogus claims and intentional accidents, and faulty reading of the Act, the shipping at Karachi will fall to such a low level which will render the utility of the port redundant.

*Extract from a letter from Messrs. Cowasjee and Sons, Karachi, to the Director, Labour Intelligence, Bombay, dated, 24th April, 1929.*

It is inadvisable that the employer, who has enough responsibilities, should be saddled with additional ones, which come directly within the observance of the police and hospital authorities.

13. *What steps, if any, should be taken to ensure that dependents who may have valid claims for compensation do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights?* To assume that the workmen are ignorant of their rights to compensation is to live in oblivion. The workmen are not only fully cognizant of their rights, but actually worry the employers by fictitious demands either direct or through their societies.

14. *Should employers be required to maintain a register of relatives of their workmen?* It may be possible to maintain register of relatives in case of regular employees, but in case of daily wage labourer, to maintain such a register would be a physical impossibility and unnecessary waste of labour and time and unnecessarily increasing the responsibilities of the employers.

15. *Should commissioners be empowered to call on employers, depositing inadequate compensation for fatal accidents to make a further deposit?* There appears no objection to the suggestion to furnish deposits to the limit prescribed by the Act, and not of a sum as should be deemed necessary according to the discretion of the commissioner.

16. *Should provision be made for the suspension of distribution by the commissioner pending the disposal of an appeal against his decisions?* Yes. This is most essential.

#### *General Observations. \**

Workmen's Compensation Act was enacted for a good purpose and never was intended to make the workmen oblivious to the injuries received, but the workman now knowing that he gets compensation, allows his injuries to be neglected or he feigns disability to attend to work and somehow or the other he manages to get a certificate showing that he needs rest for a week or a longer period, and the Society of which the workmen is a member, helps the labourer to that end. Thus the Act has inadvertently tended to create lengthening of pretended agonies, and an incentive to the labourer to idleness.

To stop further abuses, it is necessary that the employers should not be saddled with further responsibilities. The employer has enough difficulties to contend with and this section of the society is most maligned owing to the present day mentality of "wasters" and the so-called friends of the labourers, and any steps taken to increase the employers' responsibility, would be to the detriment of the employers, and to the promotion of idleness and pretences amongst the labouring class.

Miss R. PIGGOTT, Hon. Secretary, DAIS' IMPROVEMENT SCHEME,  
HYDERABAD (SINDH).

(On behalf of the All India Women's Conference, Sindh Branch).

#### III.—Housing.

16. (i) Employers, as a rule, do not make provision for the housing of the workers. One factory in the Thar Parkar district has quite decent quarters. These are, of course, free. Some employers supply materials for them to build their huts.

(ii) Nil.

(iii) A very few live in rented quarters. The rent is about Rs. 4 p.m.

(iv) Most live in huts of their own.

17. In some places Government has given land on easy terms to the labourers. On this they build their huts.

18. (i) They mostly have their own way as the houses are built by them.

(ii) The health point of view leaves much to be desired.

(iii) Where the huts are in municipal limits the municipality provide lighting and conservancy.

Some employers supply workers with water from tanks in the factories.

In many places drinking water is obtained from wells.

19. Where accommodation is provided the workers are generally glad to avail themselves of it as it is near the factories.

20. About Rs. 4 or 5 p.m.

21. Where accommodation is provided outsiders are not allowed and in their own huts there would be no room.

22. They seem to prefer their own arrangements. Up-to-date ventilation would not be appreciated as it would surely lead (in their opinion) to pneumonia.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (ii) Infant mortality pathetic.

(iii) (a) Fairly good as all the cotton picking is done out of doors ; (b) Round reed huts, mostly far from sanitary. Where, in a few cases they are inspected by the employers, the conditions are better.

(iv) Generally bajri, as it is the cheapest grain.

(v) Normal—not at all bad.

(vi) The cotton picking is done entirely by women as they say women have more patience.

24. (i) Most employers provide medical aid (when needed) free.

(ii) In the large towns there are civil hospitals and municipal dispensaries.

(iii) There are many places where there is no public dispensary or medical aid of any kind.

(iv) No woman doctor, trained midwife or dai have I heard of being provided for the workers.

25. Medical facilities are generally gladly made use of.

26. (a) (i) Provided by the employers

(ii) Provided by the employers.

(iii) They make their own arrangements at home. N.P. (b) (i) Very often conspicuous by their absence, except where accommodation is provided by owners, and, in rare cases, inspected by them.

(ii) From wells or canals unless they live near the works.

(iii) In the open generally. In towns by a public tap.

27. Inspected by the Government factory inspector, generally 1-4 times a year.

29. Without an exception, malaria is the great foe.

30. No sickness insurance. In some cases owners pay accident premium. Others give compensation in extreme cases of accident.

31. Nil. Much needed.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. Practically nil except in case of bone factory, Hyderabad. (This is apart from Karachi where they have work at Kiamari, which I hope to see next week).

34. The bone factory at Hyderabad has two women who look after the infants while their mothers are at work.

A free trained midwife has been put on by the Hyderabad municipality, but the people do not patronize her.

The Dais' Improvement Scheme has arranged for lectures for the workers in the bone factory. It has also looked after some of the women in their homes.

36. At the bone factory a master has been engaged to teach the children of the workers. This school has been in existence 2 years. About 25-30 pupils.

#### VI.—Education.

40. In the large towns there are generally municipal schools for boys.

42. It generally raises the standard of living.



**IX.—Hours.**

55. Generally 10 hours for women. No overtime. Some work in 4-hour shifts.  
 56. Six days in all I have seen.  
 59. When this was mentioned it was remarked that the wages would, of course, drop.  
 60. Some work from 6-30 a.m. to 7-30 p.m. with 2 intervals of 1½ hours each.  
 Some work from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. with 1 interval of 2 hours.  
 Some work from 7-30 a.m. to 6-30 p.m. with 1 interval of 1 hour.  
 61. Most have Sunday, some Friday.

**X.—Women and Children.****A. Factories.**

82. They say they are not admitted. I have seen them with the cotton pickers.  
 84. (i) Generally 6 hours daily. Interval of 1½ hours.  
 (ii) Declare no child under twelve employed.

**XII.—Wages.**

96. (i) On an average, annas 6 to 11 daily. Picking cotton is paid from 9 to 12 pies a seer (2 pounds).  
 (97). (i) No increase contemplated as say prices are lower than just after the war.

**Remarks.**

I would like to stress the vital need of medical help for the women in the smaller towns and villages. As my work takes me all over Sindh, from Karachi to Quetta, I see so much of suffering among women and children. Suffering that could so easily be avoided.

In the spring of this year, I visited a small town where I found a school mistress suffering from anaemia in its worst form. She was about to become a mother and her condition was critical. It was impossible to move her as the railway was some miles off, the nearest dispensary was about 20 miles or more distant, and the nearest women's hospital a 4-hours journey by train. There was not a single trained dai in the place. Had there been, she would have seen that the patient had medical advice in time. I did what I could for her, wiring for all she needed but it was too late to save her. She died after a few days. I drew the attention of the Government to this matter.

We have come across places where there is not even an untrained dai. The women help themselves. Our great need in Sindh is education. During our last tour, out of the 2,000 women who attended our lectures in a certain area, only 2 were able to read.

Another huge need is roads. Owing to this delay in reaching patients has so often proved fatal.

The All India Women's Conference aims at ameliorating the lot of women labourers and helping women and children in every way, especially by the spread of education.

Owing to the limited time I regret not having more details—am collecting information.

In the emancipation of the women of the East it seems as though only the better classes had been thought of. On enquiring about women labourers, the other day, I was told about a certain factory where, they said, only very bad women work. I enquired why they were so called. The reply was: "Oh, they are only low caste people."

*The Sweepers.*—As a rule the municipalities are the largest employers of these. They are usually housed in huts erected by themselves on the outskirts of the town. During the recent rains their dwellings have suffered much. So far no relief have they received. Karachi, they say, is where this class of people receives good treatment.

The sweepers I know best, never have any holidays or day of rest. If absent from work they are not paid. They work about 8-9 hours a day, receiving on an average Rs. 13 p.m. These people ought to be looked after as they run a great risk during epidemics.

Provision ought to be made for workers who have served long periods. They ought not to be sent away because of old age without any reward. Inquiries made on this subject would repay the trouble.

*School teachers.*—This class comes in for either very favourable or unfavourable treatment. Some of the Government rates of payment are ridiculously high, considering the chronic plea of financial stringency.

Whenever local bodies wish to retrench it is invariably the work amongst women that the axe falls on. On the other hand, the grants to work among men and boys receive enhanced grants.

In the smaller schools the buildings are terrible. No playgrounds, and in some cases scarcely a tiny courtyard is available. The ventilation needs attention as the children spend hours in that vitiated atmosphere.

Every primary school teacher ought to be given a living wage.

The hardship felt most by the women in certain areas is their being under the direct control of men. This is much resented by them (the women). It is in every case desirable for these purdah women to have direct dealings with those of their own sex.

*Sickness Insurance* is an unknown quantity. With the exception of a very few instances health, education and welfare are not considered. I mean this as regards the ordinary labouring classes.

The grinding of grain seems to be one of the hardest works. It is not very handsomely paid.

In most cases, labourers are provided by contractors, especially in the seasonal factories.

What has struck me is the want of knowledge, on the part of the employers, of the real condition of the employed.

The Maternity Benefit Act passed by the Bombay Government, came into force on July 1 of this year. This provides for the worker an allowance of 8 annas a day for 7 weeks, 3 before and 4 after the birth of her child. As it is so new not many seem to know of it.

Labour is more often than not saddled with debt. The exorbitant rates of interest are well known. The co-operative bank charges 12 per cent. interest. This, though high, must appear mild after 75-100 per cent.

Some sort of provident fund is badly needed. The difficulty would be to find people to run it.

The dais-midwives are looked down upon as their work is considered unclean. It is amongst them that a good deal of my work lies. Their status needs to be raised. We are trying to do this by degrees. Some of them are learning to read and many have qualified. Their wages are incredible. Anything from 8 annas to 5 rupees a case are paid. The sum is always less in the case of a girl baby. Being paid so poorly means that they are obliged to take more work than they can safely manage.

Education will help labour to find its feet, therefore give education.

#### THE BUYERS AND SHIPPERS CHAMBER, KARACHI.

The labour problems of Sind except at Karachi and certain other places, are practically confined to agriculture, and as your reference directs an enquiry into the conditions of industrial labour only, we have treated the subject in a manner restricted to the conditions and circumstances attending on labour in the few industries that exist in Karachi and Sind. There are mainly cotton ginning factories and presses, flour mills, oil mills, haulage constructions, tin manufacture and shipping. The last named is the principal industry of Karachi and a good majority of Karachi labour directly or indirectly is dependent on conditions that are prevailing in the industry of shipping alone.

*General Conditions—Immigration.*—The most important feature of industrial labour in Karachi is that it is practically imported from other provinces. The class of labour required for unskilled purposes like haulage, carrying burdens, cleaning, etc., is mostly imported from Mekran, Cutch, and Kathiawar, Afghanistan, Punjab and Rajputana. A number of U.P. men are also met with in the police force as chowkidars on private and public premises and as gardeners. The skilled labour, i.e., the masons, carpenters, mechanics, etc., are mostly migrated here from Cutch, Kathiawar, Rajputana and the Punjab.

*Domicile.*—The fluctuations in number of labourers is greater in unskilled section of labour than in the skilled section, as the former form only the surplus from agricultural occupations elsewhere. A famine in any of the districts named above

increases the number of labourers in Sind. There is, however, a large number of even these Makranis and Cutchees (which term includes Kathiawaris and Gujaratis) who have settled down in Sind as permanent residents. The skilled labourers especially the "Cutchees" have made Sind their home.

Apart from these, there are a few Mahratta labourers in Port Trust, Railways, Police, as private office peons and mechanics and a few Sindhis proper, most of the Sindhis being engaged in agriculture or other avocations rather than in manual or machine labour. Majority of these labourers are domiciled in Karachi.

*Sex.*—Amongst the unskilled labour, the shipping gangs do not have any women even as "tally hands" as there are in Bombay and elsewhere. Women are, however, evidenced in large numbers in bunkering and stacking coal and in sifting of grains, in building and digging operations. But on the whole except in these few cases, women labour is not so much in evidence as it is in other industrial cities of this Presidency.

*Wages.*—The ordinary wages of an unskilled labourer range from Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4 annas, and Rs. 1-6 annas per day, the normal wage being only Rs. 1-2 annas per day. For a woman, this wage is 13-14 annas per day. For a boy it is often less than for a woman, i.e., about 8 to 10 annas a day. The skilled mechanics have different wages in proportion to the deftness required in different trades. A mason, carpenter or a joiner gets between Rs. 2-8 annas to Rs. 3-4 annas per day and a house painter about Rs. 1-14 annas per day. The "Nakhwas" or sailors on lighter boats in the harbour earn from Rs. 1-8 annas to Rs. 3 per day as may be their rank, and accrue wages on task payment system. There are in fact several operations like stacking, haulage, Nakhwas, etc., where "task-wage" system is favoured. The ultimate results in earnings however come to the same basis as time-wage, though in cases of rush work the results are often far better for the workmen. The aggregate wage-earnings are however adjusted by lack of continuous employment.

*Unemployment.*—Though not in any aggravated form under-employment and unemployment exist amongst the labourers in Karachi, especially when immigration is extra-ordinarily heavy, or when trade is abnormally depressed. It has been put by several experts that a casual labourer in Karachi is in normal times assured of an average of 20 days work in a month and skilled labourers too can depend on an average of 20 days work in a month every year.

This is mainly due to the fact that Karachi still is growing and additions in trade transport and constructional operations are quite evident though the progress may be slow.

Under-employment and unemployment being mild, Karachi has experienced hitherto a fairly contented labour. There is very little absenteeism in Karachi labour whereas as much as 10 per cent. absenteeism was registered for Bombay by the Bombay Labour Office. The stationary nature of employments in Karachi, which is an all the year round shipping port, also ensures a minimum of changes in the personnel of the labour, whereas it was reported to be 100 per cent. in Madras mills by a writer in "Factory Labour in India." To the knowledge of this Chamber only a railway strike in 1923 was of any magnitude otherwise strikes and lockouts are scarce in Karachi and so Karachi industries have not to pay the additional burden of costs involved through strike losses and Karachi labour have not to pay the additional penalty of loss of wages for long periods. Leaving aside the worst years of 1926 onwards in Bombay, for example, the loss to workers through strikes and lockouts in that City was calculated at 12,578,129 working days lost to 270,423 workers, i.e., an average of 46 days per worker were lost, in the year 1925 (Labour Gazette, Bombay, 1926, pages 779-82.).

The condition of labour in Karachi would, however, compare slightly favourably with that of labourers in other parts of India, if their days of employment are calculated over a year.

According to the census of India, 1921, Report 1 : 245, a Punjab cultivator does not get work for more than 150 days in a year. It has been said that a U.P. or a Bengalee peasant or artisan does not have work for more than 7 months in the year. Dr. Tarakanath Das, M.A., M.Sc., Ph.D., has come to the conclusion that all classes of people in India have scarcely sufficient work for more than 6 or 7 months in a year. The condition of Karachi labourer in this respect is only slightly better. If Karachi despite its steady trade and minimum of fluctuations in general welfare cannot show a better record in this respect, the reasons are to be met with in general conditions governing the labour problems of all India.

*Sickness and Disease.*—These factors which play an all important role in the labour problems of other places is solved by nature in Karachi's favour till now. Even a superficial glance at the vital statistics of Karachi will convince an observer that Karachi is perhaps the most healthy of Indian ports. The population of Karachi is continuously on the increase, and the figure of immigration alone is not high enough

to account for whole of this increase. The daily returns of the births and deaths show that the former are every day of the year more numerous than the latter and the number of survivals in children is greater here than elsewhere. The condition of Karachi's health report, it need not be said, has a direct impress on labour: Though the epidemics like cholera, smallpox, influenza, etc., are almost perennially present, their toll in Sind is exceptionally low and in Karachi it is almost negligible. Karachi has no endemics such as are telling heavily upon the labour of other provinces. Bengal loses over 1,300,000 persons per annum by malaria, and 70 per cent. of her population is reported to be infected with hook-worm. The latter infection is reported to be universal in the rural population of Madras. Big industrial centres like Bombay and Ahmedabad, nearer Karachi have a heavy wastage in man power through Tuberculosis which is omnipresent in the slums (Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18, p. 162). Karachi as yet has avoided the acute wastage curve. Yet Karachi cannot long enjoy these amenities unless arrangements for proper housing are made for the workers by large employers. In the opinion of my committee all those that regularly employ over 500 monthly wage labourers should be obliged to provide for sanitary and sufficient tenements and medical aid for their employees. In this connection my committee recalls with interest a remark from the report of the Indian Fiscal Commission, 1921-22, wherein they state (paragraph 33) that though the agricultural population in India, is in excess of the needs of that industry, their adoption of Industrial labour is retarded owing partly to "deficiencies of housing in Industrial centres." In this connection my committee can only say that a move is set on foot in Karachi to consider the question of tenements for poorer sections of this City including the members of the lower middle class and my chamber is a co-operating party to the deliberations, which up to now have been led by the provincial Government themselves on the initiative of the President of the local Municipality. The Municipality have as a tentative measure allowed areas to be occupied on nominal rent by labour, on which they build their huts. The conservancy being supplied by the Municipality, and the trade bears this charge along with other charges through terminal tax which is about 30 per cent. of the total amount of their revenue. This problem is, however, not so serious in our opinion for Karachi as it is for other cities. In fact borrowing the arguments of the Fiscal Commission themselves, the influx in Karachi, of surplus agricultural population from Sind is negligible and from Cutch, Kathiawar, Gujarat, Punjab and U.P. the imports represent only the residue of the surplus after dispersal to Bombay and Ahmedabad, etc., who employ lacs of labourers in their enormous industries.

*General suggestions.*—Having hitherto described the general conditions of labour in Karachi, we have to submit certain general considerations for your scrutiny and approval. We feel that on the whole the response given by the Indian employers to the growing demands of labour hitherto has been sympathetic and opportune. Whatever were the recommendations or conventions that emanated from Geneva or nearer home, the Indian employers have tried their best to incorporate these in their dealings with labour. But a menace from two not unforeseen quarters has been holding some of the most vital industries of the country in a deadly grip for past many months and my committee cannot but refer to this in connection with this subject. The menace is firstly from those countries who do not adopt similar conventions and recommendations and are in a position to beat Indian Industries on this score. Japan for example ignored the Washington Convention of 1919 when India embodied it in her statutory code and that, when added to the several other advantages that Japan possesses over India, broke the back of the textile industry of this Presidency. My committee therefore feel that before any labour legislation is contemplated the following conditions must be satisfied, viz. :—

(1) That Indian employers should be relieved of all those burdens in the form of excise duties, and stores duties and machinery duties, etc., in order to enable them to stand ground against foreign competitors.

(2) That the Indian industries further should be made strong enough to bear the onslaughts from bounty fed competitors importing their sweated manufactures in subsidised shipping and dump them in this country. This should be only achieved if Indian industries were protected by high tariff walls, in all deserving cases.

If these two conditions are not fulfilled, Indian industries will not be able to bear additional labour legislation however just and necessary it may be.

The second menace referred to above is as grave as the one already described, but it is fraught with more serious import to not only the industrial but even the political and social welfare of this country.

This menace is derived from the growing tendency amongst the labour leaders of the country in affiliating themselves intellectually if not actually with foreign labour organizations of extreme views and drafting their policy from the drastic programmes of the latter.

A short reference to the development of this menace will explain our statement.

At the eighth session of the Indian Trade Union Congress held at Cawnpore in 1927, a question was mooted whether the Indian Trade Unions should affiliate themselves as constituents of either the 2nd International at Amsterdam or the 3rd International at Moscow. Mr. N. M. Joshi, the General Secretary, was finally directed to convey the consensus of opinion of that session to both these bodies that unless the two organizations were amalgamated into one powerful body, the Indian Trade Union Congress would remain as it was. The wisdom of this decision will be apparent from what a scrupulously fair-minded critic like Mr. Andrews said about the latter (i.e., the 3rd) of these Internationals. "I found" says Deenabandhu Andrews, "that what I had expressed to be the basic character of the 3rd International, namely the insistence on a revolution of violence to accomplish the end which labour had in view, was entirely correct. Not only were violent methods regarded as imperative in the long run, but a practical policy amounting to violence was carried almost in every country, even while preparations were made for a revolution."

To our information it was decided to repulse the invitations of the 2nd International on quite different grounds. The 2nd International was alleged to be too imperialistic in their views and wanted to exploit Indian labour for their own benefit. This was more or less the gist of the charge laid against the 2nd International who are considerably more conservative than the 3rd at Moscow. It is evident, however, that the 2nd International have some support and sympathy in different labour camps and the prosperity of Industrial India can never be assured by this state of things if what Mr. Andrews and others say is true.

The problems of Indian labour in our opinion are peculiarly their own, and means and methods of their solution must be such as are naturally suggested by the conditions obtaining here. The progress of Indian labour must be the direct result of internal evolution and not revolution and such evolution in our opinion is possible if progress is achieved on the following lines :—

*Main Recommendations.*—(1) The labour to be content must have sufficient work all the year round with adequate and steady remunerations.

(2) The industries of India in order to be able to employ labour on these conditions must be protected from foreign competition by the tariff legislation on extensive scale and by relief from iniquitous excise imports.

(3) That labour should be literate and organized ; to see them so, being the duty of the state in India.

(4) That the progress of labour in India should be by internal evolution and without officious meddling from foreign labour organizations.

(5) That the maximum use of conciliatory boards may be instituted by statutory enactments if necessary.

(6) System of sick and family benefits, insurance, etc., may be introduced gradually wherever possible.

(7) The state and the people to co-operate in solving the housing deficiency problems wherever these are acute.

(8) A system of task wages and premium wages should be introduced wherever possible to promote ameliorative efficiency.

(9) Working hour legislation to be undertaken wherever the risk of competition from "Sweated" countries is thoroughly checked.

(10) That the labour legislation on compensation should be with a view to prevent greater privileges being conferred by Law on disabled workmen than such workmen were actually enjoying before being disabled.

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**Mr. T. K. JESWANI, SECRETARY, THE KARACHI INDIAN MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION.**

With reference to your invitation to this association to submit a written statement in connection with the objects of the Commission's enquiry, and your subsequent reminder at Karachi, I am directed by the committee of my association to state their views as under :—

1. *Industrial undertakings in Karachi and Sindh.*—There is hardly any industry in Sindh or Karachi employing group or mass labour in industrial undertakings on a large scale except the North Western Railway. In the countryside in Sindh, lacs

of agricultural labourers are employed but with these evidently, the Commission is not concerned. In Sindh or Karachi there is hardly an industrial undertaking employing more than a thousand persons at any one time. Sindh being the most sparsely populated sub-province in India (the density of population is no more than 71 per square mile) labour is generally so scarce, that it has to be attracted by better terms than in the surrounding areas. In Sindh, besides Karachi, generally we have rice mills, flour mills, ginning and pressing factories, three electric companies, a wool factory at Shikarpur, etc. There are a large number of cottage industries such as weaving, lacquer work, leather tanning, boat making, toy making, etc., but these hardly come under the Commission's enquiry, because there is no distinction between the employer and the employed, and hardly any employment of mass labour creating anything like a labour problem. We have also gangs of men employed by contractors in the forests of Sindh and in public works department work, whether in building of bungalows or bridges, or excavating and clearing of canals. We have also thousands of labourers employed directly and through contractors by the Lloyds Barrage management. But the character and face of Sindh remain largely rural. With the higher average standard of living of the Sindhi, greater demand for labour than the supply, and lack of large capital being wedded to enterprise, we have not the big industrial undertaking on a large scale we witness in other parts of India.

There are two exceptions which may be noted. One is that of thousands of boats employed on the Indus for transport. This industry is older than Alexander's entry into Sindh, when Greek travellers saw thousands of boats and a prosperous port at Tatta. But there is hardly anything like industrial labour in large groups. Most of the boatmen either own their boats or, like their agricultural fellow-workers, ply their trade on the share system.

The motor transport is a recent growth and promises within a short time to be perhaps the most important industry in Sindh. The motor industry may, as has happened in England, come to employ more men than the railway. Even at present hundreds of motor cars and buses ply for hire in the districts but the industry has nothing like a labour or a group labour problem yet.

2. At Karachi, we have an electric company, a tramway company, flour mills, two big iron foundries (Messrs. B. R. Herman Mohatta & T. Cosser), copra oil and other oil mills, a few motor garages, a good number of printing presses, building construction, aerated water manufacture, and some salt works at Maurypur, which employ labour on a large scale. The biggest employers of labour are, however, the Port Docks, The Karachi Port Trust, the stevedores and dubashes and the Karachi Municipality. We have also three tile manufacturing concerns. All new construction activity on capital or loan account by the Railway, Port Trust and the Municipality mean a large employment of industrial labour, e.g., building of new railway bridges, the west wharf scheme, municipal water drainage and road works, etc. There are also a large number of small iron foundries in Karachi, but all these have not yet given Karachi the character of an industrial city. Karachi is argely a commercial place, most of the capitalists being either commission agents, landlords or bankers. In the former two capacities the Indian businessmen employ a good deal of labour in transport and handling goods, either in the T.P.K. or in their own godowns and in building houses. The European export and import offices are also largely commission houses. Messrs. Ralli Brothers have a bone mill and the oil companies have a tin making industry. These oil as well as exporting companies also employ a good deal of dock and other labour. The aircraft base at Drigh Road employs an increasing number of men, and the fishing and boat building industries are not much of a capitalist business or enterprise. All these do not change the largely commercial character of Karachi, in spite of its having a rate of growth unique in the cities and ports of India since over three quarters of a century.

3. Taken together Karachi has a large labour population settled mostly in the Ranchore lines and Lyari quarters. There does exist, therefore, in Karachi, a labour problem which ought to be tackled on humane grounds as well as in the interests of Karachi's industrial growth, which is imminent on the great irrigation schemes in the areas served by our port coming into full operation. We should like to avoid, in Karachi, the miserable conditions of industrial life, and the conflict between labour and capital, which has proved inevitable in bigger and older cities in India, leading to a partial paralysis of trade and industry.

4. My committee are, therefore, glad of this opportunity to state their views on this question of great importance, firstly, because as representatives of employers, they feel that better relations ought to exist between the employers and the employed than have been noticed in other parts of India in recent years, and secondly, it is most desirable to avoid the miserable conditions of life and service ordinarily prevailing in industrial areas.

The programmes of social and labour welfare carried out in western countries and in India, the efforts made at improving health and efficiency of labour, resulting in benefits to the employers and the employed, and the growth of trade unionism—all these point to the necessity of forethought in planning Karachi's industrial growth. My committee are convinced that the humane and sympathetic treatment of labour, as indeed its organization on sound lines, is the greatest factor likely to contribute to industrial success in this country.

While the main fabric of Karachi's industrial life is yet to be woven, my committee think it worth while stating some of their views on the growth of industrial life, peace, and prosperity as affected by labour.

5. *Origin of Labour.*—Sindh's population being sparse and fully occupied with agricultural work, and Karachi being practically the only industrial centre, we have skilled as well as unskilled labour mostly imported from Cutch, Kathiawar, the Punjab, the United Provinces, Rajputana, the Makran coast, Afghanistan, and the Persian Gulf. Skilled labour comes mostly from the first three places, whereas, unskilled labour comes from all the places. We have about 80,000 souls, or about one-third of the total population of Karachi, consisting of these labourers. They include domestic servants, chawkidars, and peons in offices. Including chauffeurs, petty mechanics, cartmen, workers in gardens, boatmen, railway employees, and the dependents of all these they would exceed about 1,50,000 souls, out of an estimated population of about 2,50,000 souls. The rest of the population are Karachites and Sindhis and Europeans. Very few of the labouring population are drawn from the first two classes, and none from the last. A good many of the immigrants from Cutch and Kathiawar are so well settled and since long, that they may well be considered Karachites.

6. *Causes of Immigration.*—Most of the labouring population is attracted to Karachi by good wages and plenty of transport work at the docks, haulage work at the Thole Produce Yard and godowns of merchants and retail labour in small industries and commercial offices and by public bodies. A good monsoon in Cutch, Kathiawar, Makran, and United provinces often induces large numbers to go to their native places for agricultural work, and anything approaching scarcity or famine conditions in those places increases the immigrants at Karachi. There has been no striking change in the composition of our labour population in recent years.

The Makrani population settled in the Lyari quarters is nearly steady in its own composition and the strength of its numbers, though it has large numbers going to and coming from Makran, their native country, almost every month. For thousands of Makranis, Karachi is the halting place while going to, or returning from, agricultural lands in Sindh, where they work either as tenants on the share system, or as labourers. Makran is likely to supply large numbers of agricultural labourers when Sindh needs them after 1932, and as Karachi is their natural halting place, this is likely to be a great source of labour supply to Karachi in the future.

The supply from other sources, except Sindh, is likely to increase as the port handles larger imports and exports.

7. *Unemployment.*—Most of the labour keeps employed for the major portion of the year. During the last three years, however, owing to slackness of trade, induced by falling prices, greater competition among middlemen at the port and direct import from overseas exporter to the up-country buyer, there has been noticed some unemployment among labourers and consequently some distress. The cause is oversupply in Karachi, and lack of demand in supplying areas, where the labourers find themselves none too prosperous or employed; and a generous municipality accommodates most of the labouring population practically without paying taxes. This over-supply of labour has not, however, led to material reduction of wages, though there is a fall from the high level of 1920 when a labourer could earn as much as even Rs. 3 or Rs. 3 8 annas per day at the docks. Women labourers are comparatively fewer at Karachi, mostly employed in building construction, earth digging, and coal bunkering operations.

8. The average wages of a peon in Karachi are about Rs. 30 per month, and those of a casual unskilled labourer range from Rs. 1 to Rs. 1-4 annas per day. The woman labourer gets about 12 annas to 14 annas per day, and a boy about half the man's wages. A skilled labourer such as a carpenter or mason gets from Rs. 2 8 annas to Rs. 3-8 annas per day according to his known proficiency. The sailors on lighter kind of boats in the harbour earn from Rs. 1-8 annas to Rs. 2-8 annas per day, the payment being largely for job done.

It would be a fair estimate in these days to put a skilled or unskilled labourer's employment as about 20 days a month.

9. Though labour organizations and trade unionism are in evidence we have not had many strikes in Karachi. They are discouraged for lack of big industrial undertakings, better wages than in the places from where labour is drawn and easier conditions of climate, etc., than in other ports.

Labour is, however, largely most ignorant, and though municipal arrangements the climate and the wage earned are favourable factors, the conditions in which the labourers live are miserable and undesirable. This state of affairs must be improved. The remedy lies in education, not necessarily at school, but by open air lectures and visual demonstrations, by organization of labourers and their co-operation among themselves and more sympathetic treatment and care by employers. Primary education is now the care of local bodies. For that, there is a clear duty of the State to provide funds, but an appeal must, no doubt, be made to the patriotism of the country. The organization of labourers is coming as a result of consciousness among labourers the world over. It is to the interests of the country to see that this organization leads to constructive help for workers, and not mere propaganda of a destructive kind.

10. *Health and Housing*.—Though blessed by nature with a vast expanse on all sides, a salubrious climate, a progressive municipality, and a public opinion that lines up with the most forward school of thought in India, it must be confessed that the condition of some of the slums where these labourers live is horrible. The slums in old town, Ranchore, Lyari and Napier quarters would be a disgrace to any modern city. The following facts and figures of congestion taken from municipal records will show the wretched condition of the tenements occupied by the poorest section of Karachi's population.

In the old town, Napier and Market quarters, there live, according to official report, 27,829 people in an area of about 100 acres. Half Karachi's population lives in rooms, each of which accommodates 6 or more persons. No less than 5,162 of these people are crowded into rooms in each one of which 20 or more persons live!

Most of these one-room tenements are occupied by the labouring population, and the situation, in all conscience, does call for special remedies. The municipality have provided model sanitary chawls for their sweepers and some other employees, but the municipality ought to be empowered to prevent such over-crowding. The constructive remedy for better housing of this poor labouring population lies in cheap transport to outlying areas in Karachi, cheaper building materials, and co-operative organization among the workers. Hundreds of labourers live in much better conditions in the Garden quarter where the population is sparse.

The work of cheap housing in healthy areas outside the thickly-populated area is one in which the municipality, the Port Trust, the railway, the employers and the labourers through their trade unions should co-operate.

In this connection my committee would strongly suggest that any industries or industrial concerns may in future be located outside the residential areas in open spaces, with plenty of room for residential tenements nearby. This would be possible only, if the municipality, the Port Trust, the railway, the industrialists, and the labourers co-operate and not otherwise. Such co-operation, however, is not difficult if the public bodies mentioned above adopt it as their definite aim.

12. *Recommendations*.—My committee would make the following recommendations in the interests of the health, happiness and prosperity of labour, the peace and progress of industrial undertakings and better relations between the employers and the employed :—

(1) Every local body in an industrial area ought to have special attention devoted to its labouring population in the matter of housing and health. In this, it ought to be able to compel the employers to co-operate. The policy of the railway and the State all over India ought to be in favour of making it possible for the labouring population to have materials at cheap rates. The municipality may make some standard plans available for, say, a rupee a copy, have marked out plots available on annual rents and adopt stringent rules against over-crowding. In this way it is quite possible for say 10,000 labourers, living in the Garden quarter, paying rent of Rs. 3 per family. In any case co-operative management of such a plan would be essential.

(2) *Unemployment, old age, sickness, accident relief, etc.*—Under the circumstances now existing there is no better method at present than compulsory insurance of workmen. There ought to be compulsory saving of a portion of the labourer's wages, say, one anna in the rupee of monthly wage. To this the employer must add an equal amount. The ignorant Indian workman cannot look after his health, and the opportunites for better employment. Any slight disablement from disease or accident sends him into permanent inefficiency and debt for life. And even a slight debt at the usurious rates of interest (from 18 to 100 per cent. paid in Karachi) makes his life a drudgery. Two annas a month per rupee of the labourer's wage should be enough to insure him a modest standard of life, health, safety, and opportunity for work.

3. The labourer pays more than he should on the necessities of life, specially grain, flour, and cloth. In factories with over 250 employees, or for groups of between 500 and 1,000 labourers, there may easily be a co-operative shop to sell grain, ghee



and a standard cloth at cost price *plus* expenses of management. Also the very strictest supervision should be exercised to prevent the labourers getting into debt, specially at rates of interest over 10 or 12 per cent. Co-operative credit has, so far, been developed in Sindh for rural areas. Its benefits should be extended to industrial areas.

4. *General welfare work.*—For every 100 male workmen and 100 women labourers there ought to be a superintendent to look after their educational, economic, health, and moral needs. Without this personal attention no great improvement would be possible. The mere fact of medical aid, a healthy house, an opportunity for betterment of one's economic position, protection from debt is not enough. The ignorant Indian labourer, working often under conditions foreign to his natural training and environments, needs a friendly guide. The labourer often finds himself at sea for little things.

(5) The compulsory insurance and welfare work advocated above would add to the remuneration paid to labour. If the cost of it all to the employer be even as high as 10 per cent. of the wages to the labourer, my committee think it would improve the efficiency and contentment of labour very much to the advantage of the employer and the industry. But it is true that in some cases, "sweated" labour in foreign countries, not having the advanced labour or factory legislation India has adopted may compete with and cripple Indian industries. In that case due relief or protection should be given.

(6) My committee are convinced that ultimately it would not help the country to see industries advance in India with sweated labour. The humane conditions of labour must first be insisted upon, and then due protection be given in case of industries with natural advantages and prospects of holding their own after establishing themselves. In case of attempts by foreign countries to dump their manufactures in India in subsidised steamers or other bounty-fed attempts, the Indian industries ought to be protected by tariff duties in the interests of Indian labour.

(7) To avoid friction between labour and capital there ought to be a network of conciliation boards set up by law in all industrial centres. The conciliation boards would avoid a good many misunderstandings and sad situations.

(8) Schools for training of unskilled labour should be established to improve the efficiency of Indian workmen, to teach them happier and healthier living, and to help their diversifying their occupation to prevent unemployment. These ought to be financed like the primary schools. They will inculcate a better sense of responsibility. In these schools the labourers could be educated to prefer payment for job work or task work instead of pay in order to encourage their efficiency.

(9) Legislation to restrict hours of work, improvement of factory conditions, compensation for workmen, etc., may be undertaken with the fullest idea of foreign competition in the industries affected, and after protecting the Indian industries from unfair competition.

(10) There may be formed in every industrial city or area a labour bureau to collect all information and statistics regularly, and for special purposes, to help the organization and sound running of trade unions and co-operative organizations for housing, compulsory insurance, etc., the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, Factory Act, etc., and generally to watch the interests of labour in all directions without identifying itself with labour to labour disputes. Such bureaus may also maintain registers of the unemployed, and keep the labourers informed about the general welfare work carried on for them, in order that they may take full advantage. The bureau should be no partisan in any labour dispute and should be financed by the Government.

My committee wish the time allotted had been greater for a fuller study of so valuable a subject.

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Mr. G. N. GOKHALE, B.Sc., L.C.E., M.I.E. (Ind.), I.S.E. (Retired), Principal, N.E.D. Civil Engineering College, KARACHI.

*Insistence on a better Standard of Living for Industrial Labour only, not desirable.*—It may even prove worse than the disease it is supposed to remedy. We all know that the present tendency for people to leave their villages to crowd into the slums in towns is due to economic causes. Whereas an agricultural labourer who follows agriculture as a profession fails to earn 2 annas a day, a casual hiring in a village can demand Re. 1 and gets it. As soon as he comes over to Bombay he can get

wages of Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per day while it lasts. He, no doubt, spends more in Bombay, and considering the wretched and demoralizing surroundings he has to live in, one wonders if he has really gained much. But the temptation is there, and as moths rush into a flame, people are attracted by the glare of Bombay and quite enjoy their new experience until their health breaks down. This is certainly not a state of affairs which any well-wisher of the country would like to encourage.

The conditions under which labourers have to live in Indian cities are, no doubt, degrading, but they are so all over the world ; and I have seen with my own eyes slums in Newcastle which can compare very well with the worst slums in Bombay. I do not mention this to justify our slums, but I submit that if that is the condition of labour in an enlightened country like Britain, after a century of industrial growth, it is not surprising that Bombay is equally bad. Improvement in the conditions of labour is no doubt very desirable, but infant Indian industries, thrown as they are in competition with fully-grown giants all over the world, may not be able to stand the cost. The textile industry of India may perhaps be said to be on its legs, but the numerous other industries, which we hope to have in India in the near future, may be hampered in their growth by insisting on a standard of living, which Europe aspires to after a hundred years' growth. In India we have suffered a great deal from "efficiency," and many people feel afraid that this Commission will only add one more fetter to the growing life in India, which will make it impossible for our new industries to compete with the full-fledged factories of the west. I am voicing in this the feeling of a very large number of Indians, and I do hope that the Commission will not make any recommendations to justify these fears.

*Industrial Slums.*—To us the growth of our industries is not a luxury but a matter of life and death, and we cannot afford to throttle their growth, even for the sake of efficiency. We know that agriculture, being only a part-time occupation, cannot possibly pay as much as steady industrial occupation, and so we want industries to supplement—not to supplant—agriculture, and incidentally keep in the country the millions that we at present send out of our country to buy enormous quantities of goods which have now become our necessities of life. That is the first concern of awakened India, and in this task I feel that the Commission could materially help us if they inquired as to whether concentration in towns is at all necessary for the growth of industries. While dealing with slums as they exist, the Commission might justifiably point out a road for industrial growth without slums, where, instead of the farmers leaving their land, the industry will be decentralized to their farms. The amelioration of the condition of agricultural labour will then go hand in hand with industrial labour, and the standard of life will increase all round. Any attempt at raising the standard of life of the professional industrial labourer, who already gets Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per day, without even an attempt at increasing the wages of his cousin who gets 2 to 3 annas, will further increase the gulf between them, and at the same time throw an undue pressure on the infant industries which they cannot bear.

*Unemployment Insurance.*—Great Britain has adopted unemployment insurance, old age pensions and the like. All honour to those who have thus made it possible for the poorer classes to live, but I would like to point out that the time for similar reforms in India has not yet come. What we need first is an insurance against starvation for half the population in the land—young and old alike—and that is perhaps a task which will tax all our energies for the next generation. A right type of education will have its due place in this, and, if the Commission agrees with me, I would beg of them to emphasize the necessity of providing for the education of all labourers in the near future.

*Trade Dispute due to want of Human Interest.*—As regards the present industrial dispute, I attribute it to the employers not taking any interest in their employees as human beings. The employer wants to pay the minimum wages he can for the maximum work, while the employee is bent upon doing the least work he can for the maximum wage. During the last few years modern methods of carrying on trade disputes has enabled the employees to get higher wages, but neither they themselves nor their employers have bothered their heads as to how the increased wage ought to be spent. Instead of increasing wages, therefore, a sensible employer would have spent the same money for the better housing of his men, or in providing for their children and even for themselves some education, or even a restaurant or club, where they may spend their time instead of going to the liquor shop, etc., and thus taught them how to spend their increased wage. A lasting solution of the labour trouble will be found in some such measures, and if the Commission agrees, they might enquire as to how many employers have tried these methods, and with what result.

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## THE SANITARY ASSOCIATION, AHMEDABAD.

This Memorandum deals with the health of mill workers and other labouring classes in the City of Ahmedabad.

## III.—Housing.

It must be stated that adequate housing facilities do not exist. A few mills have good housing accommodation, but it is insufficient to accommodate all their hands. The Ashoke Mill has comparatively the best housing arrangement. The rent charged is Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 per apartment. The Advance Mill has also got fairly decent chawls of 196 rooms for its workmen and charges the nominal rent of only Re. 1 per month. The Calico Mill also provides good rooms in the Sara Nagar, not very far from the mill itself. But the majority of mills have not provided any housing accommodation, and some of those that have so provided, it is not fit for human habitation. Some of the worst specimens are to be noticed in the Saraspur, Gordhan, Motilal Hirabhai and the Gujarat Ginning Mills. It must be noted that some of the mills (under the same agent) have both good and very indifferent sets of rooms.

In the opinion of the association the rooms, stated to be unfit for human habitation, should be demolished and their place taken by others of a more suitable type. As regards sanitation in and round about them it is only necessary to state that it is very bad and in some cases indescribably filthy.

The association would, therefore, suggest the Government should enforce by legislation that all municipalities (including municipalities with industrial concerns) should have strict building by-laws and see that they are equally strictly enforced.

In some cases the labourers have built their own huts paying monthly ground-rent varying from 8 annas to Rs. 3, and these are mostly seen outside the city walls. Some of these huts are good and others very bad. If a scheme for cheap housing of this nature is evolved by Government it will prove a boon to the poor workers.

In the first place Government should see that no one is allowed to speculate or profiteer in land by buying it and keeping it (without building over it) for an indefinitely long period till it suits the person concerned to sell it at a considerable profit. The association would further suggest that Government land outside the city wall should only be sold or leased to those purchasers who agree to build houses or chawls over it within the prescribed period of one or two years, failing compliance with which, the land should be forfeited to Government. A procedure of such a kind will probably put a stop to speculation in land and heavy profiteering which has prevailed in the past and does even prevail now. Further, in the case of those who have already bought lands for years past (without building any structure over it) Government should impose an annual tax. Secondly, in an industrial place like Ahmedabad, the Government must give facilities for town expansion and growth of dwellings in suburban areas. This can be done by removing the tax imposed on agricultural land put to non-agricultural use, by Government, within a certain fixed radius from the city and near railway stations in the vicinity. This will prove an encouragement to the people to reside outside the city in healthy localities and come to the city for business purposes only. On the above two subjects the Sanitary Association has already passed resolutions No. 7 of the Conference held in 1923 and No. 9 of the Conference held in 1927 (copies of which are herewith attached).\*

It will thus be possible to have land available at a cheap rate for real building purposes. The association would like to suggest to Government a scheme for providing cheap houses for the labouring classes, viz., as follows :—Government should reserve sufficient open land outside the city wall and develop it by providing roads, water and sanitary arrangements, divide it into plots and then lease these to prospective owner-builders out of the labouring classes at the rate of Re. 1 as ground-rent per tenement with the condition that the superstructure should be after the pattern prescribed by Government—a few of which may be built by Government to serve as models. Considering an acre of land outside the city wall would cost Rs. 2,000, the 6 per cent. interest on which would be Rs. 120 per annum, i.e., Rs. 10 per month. If 20 tenements are built per acre they would fetch monthly Rs. 20, i.e., twice as much as the interest at 6 per cent. The surplus can easily cover the development and maintenance charges. Unless Government themselves take up some such scheme the association fears that it will not be possible to provide right and cheap type of housing facilities to the labourers. The association further invites the attention of Government to the suggestion of Mr. E. M. Gilbert Lodge, made in his paper on the Housing Problem read before the Sanitary Conference held by the Sanitary Association in 1924, under the presidency of the Honourable Dewan Bahadur Harihal Desai Bhai Desai, B.A., LL.B., Minister of Local Self-Government, Bombay, namely, that the road should be of the minimum width of 40 ft., and that no more than one-fourth of any plots should be built upon. As the tenements are meant for the working classes the minimum area should be at least 755 sq. ft., as maintained by Mr. Linton Boyle in his "Town Planning in India." No back-to-back

\* Not printed.

chawls, nor one tenement touching another should be allowed. Plinth, height length, breadth, surroundings, ventilation, etc., of each room or tenement should be strictly according to special by-laws made compulsory by law to towns of industrial importance. This should not be left to either the discrimination or the mercy of respective municipalities. The Sanitary Association, Ahmedabad, conducted an enquiry into the housing condition of labourers in Ahmedabad in 1923 as a result of the suggestion of Lt.-Col. A. W. Tuke, I.M.S., a former vice-president of the association. The interim report\* of the enquiry is included as Appendix C in the report of the association for 1923, a copy of which is herewith attached. A copy of it was forwarded to the Ahmedabad Municipality, but it is to be regretted that no action was taken on it, thus discouraging the association to complete the enquiry. Further, modifications in building by-laws drafted by the association with the help of the engineers, Messrs. G. B. Soparkar and D. J. Samson, were sent to the municipality as a suggestion, but as yet no action is taken by the municipality, though a committee has recently been formed to revise the same. So it will be seen by the Commission that it is useless to urge the municipalities to be strict with regard to the chawls or tenements for the poor. Compulsion must be made through an Act and ready-made strict building by-laws inserted in the Act.

Ahmedabad is a city that has more than half the number of total tenements as one-roomed tenements, and has half the population of the city living in those one roomed tenements, as will be seen from the following extract from the Census Report :—

*Ahmedabad, 1921.*

Tenements.	Number.	Per cent. to total tenements.	No. of occupants.	Per cent. to total occupants.
One room .. ..	39,186	55	133,069	49
Two rooms .. ..	15,835	22	55,058	20
Three or more .. ..	15,855	23	82,648	31
Total .. ..	70,876	100	270,775	100

**IV.—Health.**

There are no separate statistics of workers but it can safely be said that mortality is higher among the mill workers and other labourers than amongst the other classes. From the following table it will be seen that the wards of Jamalpur and Raikhad which are not so congested have a higher rate of general mortality than the other very highly congested wards, because in these wards very large numbers of the poor people are living in one-room tenements. The following table will show the mortality and other figures in each ward of the city in 1928 :—

Wards.	Density per acre.	Birth-rate.	Death-rate per 1,000 population.	Infant mortality per 1,000 births.
Khadia .. ..	213	39.72	41.97	376
Kalupur .. ..	192	38.24	41.84	363
Dariyapur .. ..	240	41.00	42.93	353
Shahpur .. ..	130	47.21	54.55	307
Jamalpur .. ..	77	46.54	46.08	328
Raikhad .. ..	54	52.76	53.15	327
Paras .. ..	21	40.59	40.72	318
Ahmedabad (whole) ..	50	42.37	44.32	334
Saraspur (within its walls)	414	36.49	43.55	424

*Working conditions* at home and at workplaces in mills are not at all health promoting. The women particularly are engaged two hours in the morning and two hours at night in preparing food and in looking after their children in rooms which are in most cases dark and ill-ventilated. In the mills, both men and women are engaged in rooms in which there is not sufficient ventilation or in which the machinery is so close to each other that there is not sufficient moving space. The interior of the mills is so very dark and depressing that the wonder is how people manage to

\* Not printed.

live and mortality is not higher. The dietary of the worker is generally scanty and ill-proportioned. A hurried spare meal is usual. They rarely use milk as a part of their diet. Considering the low wages of the workers it is almost impossible for them to spend more money on nutritive diet. Our Association is of opinion that a minimum wage legislation is essential, as the first charge on the industry should be a living wage. It is neither right nor fair that the agent's commission, which often is excessive, should be the first claim on the industry and that it should be based on profit earned rather than on production only. This state of affairs prevents the labourers from being paid more, with the inevitable result in many cases of their living on insufficient food. A glance at the mill-hands as they emerge from the mills will show generally their poor physique, the result of bad housing, ill-feeding and overwork in unhealthy rooms. There is no doubt that bad housing conditions increase the death rate, which in Ahmedabad is very high, and it would have been higher still if the people were not accustomed to sleep outside in the open except during rainy days and days of severe cold.

Inadequate medical facilities exist in some mills, whilst there are others where no medical facilities exist at all. It should be compulsory by law that every mill which employs more than 3,000 to 4,000 should have a qualified full-time medical man on its staff with all necessary equipments. There are some mills like the Calico and Jubilee which have maternity and hospital arrangements. Such arrangements may be made compulsory, where the number of workers is over 1,000, unless joint scheme of the hospital outlined at the end is adopted.

The Municipality provides at present about ten qualified midwives for the whole of the city, but full benefit of this is not taken by the workmen as the untrained Dais, totally ignorant of asepsis, are still being availed of by the ignorant people. If these were to be rendered more efficient in their work through the activity of Lady Wilson's beneficent scheme for training Dais, it would considerably lessen maternal and infant mortality, which is so abnormally high in this city. It is to be noticed with regret that there are no health visitors in this city, employed either by the Municipality or by another body with the result that there is no agency to carry on the necessary propaganda, both in connection with the maternity welfare and pointing out the undoubted superiority of trained midwives over the untrained Dais of the old type; and if Government could advise the Municipality to open such welfare centres in charge of health visitors, the Municipality would probably do so, if at the same time a grant be given at least for a few years by way of encouragement.

It is also advisable in the interest of the labouring classes chiefly, that the Municipality should be advised to open up small maternity homes in different wards of the city.

Where medical facilities are provided by the mills or by the labour union they are utilized to the full. But where they do not exist the labourers go without treatment or have recourse to quacks or untrained Dais.

Sanitary arrangements at work-places are not adequate and in their homes still worse. The Municipality does not fully enforce the Act and the bye-laws in connection with chawls for sanitary arrangements. There are chawls without privy arrangements. Some of the mill chawls were constructed with privies and the landlords with a view to save themselves from the municipal tax, have either abolished or locked the privies to the great inconveniences of the tenants thereof. In many chawls where they exist, they are so very inadequate that the tenants have to wait a very long time to get their turn to go to the latrines. Similar trouble exists for drinking water.

One can imagine their trouble when there is water famine, as there has been recently. Water may have to be fetched from long distances and a spare use of it means personal uncleanness, both as regards the person as well as the clothes, which necessarily endangers health. Because there are no latrines or are in an insufficient number in chawls, the mill-hands often rush to the mill latrines in the morning, but here also they have often to wait for their turn. Hence it is most necessary to increase the number of privies required under the Factory Act.

The present requirement and the proposed scale are given below :—

Present scale.	Proposed scale.
1 privy for 20 workers.	1 privy for 20 workers.
2 privies for 35 workers.	2 privies for 35 workers.
3 " up to 50 workers.	3 " up to 50 workers.
4 " " 150 "	4 " " 75 "
5 " " 300 "	5 " " 100 "
And 1 " for every additional 50 or fraction of it.	6 " " 150 "
	7 " " 200 "
	And 3 privies for every additional 100 workers or a fraction thereof.

As the number of workmen varies from month to month, 3 per every additional 100 or a fraction thereof over 200 will make allowance for this variation.

There are generally no bathing or washing arrangements provided by the mills or chawls. These should be made compulsory in mills (of course, separately for men and women) to half the extent as the privies.

Drinking water arrangements exists in most mills. The provision of drinking rooms should be made compulsory in each mill under the Factory Act.

The appointment of a board of health in mill or other industrial areas is advisable. There is an international labour recommendation on this point, which should be accepted.

Strict supervision by various officers appointed is essential and it must be very frequent. The ordinary means of ventilation or fans for removing floating cotton fibres are seldom used or only used when the inspecting officers are visiting.

Regulation of temperature and of humidification in mills and factories should be by the latest scientific means. Every 20 years the old methods should be given up and new ones implanted, if the new methods are decidedly better and more conducive to health. The methods used in the Ashoka and the Aruna and a few other mills are the best in Ahmedabad, and all mills should have the same, since the life of a mill-hand is made not only more comfortable but also safer thereby. The carrier system, with its big fan and atomized particles of water for forcing cool air through risers in each room of the factory is a blessing to the mill-hands. The cooling effect is very great and particularly in the hot climate of Ahmedabad. Its effect is much appreciated. If combined with this the vacuum stripper is used, all the fibres from the card room would be removed without any flying into the air. The old crude method of hand cleaning should be given up and used only when the vacuum stripper is out of order, as a very large number of fibres float about in the air. Avoidable nuisance and danger must be given up in favour of more health-promoting methods.

In old type mills the various machineries are placed too close to one another. There is not sufficient ventilation, even though proper humidity and temperature required are maintained. The Association points out these defects without going into details with a view to their being removed as early as possible. There are some mills in the city which are so cramped up for space as to render their further development and expansion impossible. If such could be removed to localities where more space is available, it would be better for the health of the workers thereof.

Pthisis is the chief disease probably amongst the mill-hands as the result of inhaling the floating cotton fibres, working in an unhealthy and overcrowded atmosphere, being also ill-fed on account of low wages and overtired by long hours of work daily. Malaria is also very common, whilst occasionally cholera or choleraic diarrhoea also break out. All this can be easily prevented by suitable measures.

**Waste Water.**—The waste water of the mills flows out and causes much nuisance. As there is no suburban drainage, this waste water cannot be efficiently disposed of. An underground drainage is absolutely needed for this purpose. If Government were to kindly contribute half the cost of suburban drainage the Municipality would promptly undertake the work left undone for want of sufficient funds. This nuisance would then be regularly and efficiently removed as the present method of its disposal by sprinkling the water on open land is neither efficient nor health promoting. Some mills have not sufficient space to sprinkle and others store up the water in ditches and allow it to run out at intervals to the great detriment of the health of the people living in the neighbourhood.

Sickness Insurance though unknown in Ahmedabad is quite feasible and ought to be introduced. The International Labour Convention on this question is worthy of being adopted. Labour Unions can arrange for this and the Government should contribute a certain percentage towards it or give a subvention. Western medicine is generally accepted by the mill-hands in Ahmedabad and medical men trained in the above system are easily available for the purpose. Migration of labour will not come in its way as the labourer can produce a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner for the period he was under his treatment. As regards finance the labourer will himself contribute towards this to the Union and Government should give subvention for it. If some philanthropic mill owners do that themselves without Government aid, they may do so, but Government subvention should be given to the Unions, as though the mill-hands may be migrating from one mill to another, they will continue to remain members of the same union throughout.

Maternity benefits now given at 8 annas per day for one month before delivery and for one month after are sufficient, but should be extended to one month more in cases of complications arising, such as anæmia, general debility, etc.

### V.—Welfare.

About half the number of mills have no creches at all, very few have well conducted creches and the rest have very nominal ones without any one to look after them. Those who have good creches have generally also arrangements for educating half-time workers and children of the mill-hands. The Women's Council has 2 creches in the city but women working on hand lorries mostly take advantage of these to a large extent. These creches are well kept and well looked after. The mill owners as a general rule do not care for such welfare activities, and if these along with the employment of Welfare Officers and Welfare Workers could be made compulsory by Act, it would be a boon to the working classes. The Mill Owners' Association should provide facilities for physical culture, recreation and amusement (sports, cinema, music, etc.) in the mill areas. The Labour Union is working in this direction, but some organized general welfare activity should be taken up by the Mill Owners' Association, for the benefit of the mill-hands in general.

No facilities are provided for adult education. Half-time workers are taught reading, writing, etc., in a very few mills. Even the annual contribution of Rs. 15,000 by the Mill Owners' Association from the interest of their donation to the Tilak Swarajya Fund has been withdrawn since last year. It would be better if this amount were to be used for welfare activities of these kinds. If this be not feasible, it will be for Government to consider if these could be made compulsory by law in the interests of the public at large.

In larger mills co-operative stores, housing facilities, etc., can be arranged by the employers or by Labour Unions to the great advantage and convenience of the mill-workers. Each mill should have a well-kept refreshment room, which may be under the supervision of the Labour Union or of the particular mill itself.

The Advance Mill sets a good example by having a Provident Fund for its employees. If all mills were to be advised or even if necessary compelled to provide such a fund, it will no doubt prove a boon to the workers.

### VI.—Education.

Free and compulsory education should be provided for by the Municipality with the help of Government and the Association attaches such great importance to it that it would recommend that it be given even though a heavy expenditure may have to be provided for it. As the mill-hands, however, are mostly ignorant and illiterate, propaganda relating to health and welfare as now carried on, is practically wasted on these people.

Vocational training should be given side by side with the general education so that the children of the mills workers may be efficient in these crafts.

### IX.—Hours of Work.

The Association is in favour of eight hours a day, and until such times as this could be brought into force permission for working for 11 hours on any single day should be withdrawn, as 10 hours a day is already too long. It is likely that the efficiency of workers will increase if the working hours are lessened. In regard to women the hours are very long. Including their domestic work at home, their working hours very often come to nearly 18 per day. Women work generally in the spinning, winding and reeling departments. The spinning department is worked both by men and women, whereas the workers of winding and reeling departments are exclusively women. It will be difficult to prescribe shorter hours for women only in the spinning department, where both men and women are working. The same difficulty does not arise in the case of the other two departments consisting exclusively of women workers. The working hours in the winding and reeling departments can be immediately reduced to eight. This reduction will not effect the finances of the mills because workers in these departments are paid according to the work they turn out. In other words they are piece-workers. A reduction in hours will not very much affect the wages of the workers also. Their production in eight hours is more likely to be equivalent to production in 9 hours. Women who have more domestic responsibilities will work in these departments of shorter hours and women who want to earn higher wages and who have not much domestic worry will work in spinning departments for longer hours. Shorter hours in the winding and reeling departments for women may be made compulsory under the Factory Act. This legislation is specially necessary for India because unlike England and other Western countries it is not unmarried girls alone but also married women with children work in Indian mills.

One might wonder how the industry is to bear the additional burden which will result from the recommendations made in the foregoing pages without entering into details. The Association believes that it is the duty of Government to put the industry on sound footing so that it may be enabled to bear the additional burden.

The Association has another suggestion to offer for financing general welfare activities like medical aid, recreation, amusements, etc. The Calico and Jubilee mills have got a Servants' Self Supporting Fund which is raised by deducting from the agent's commission down to workers' wages at various rates per rupee, e.g., workers earning less than Rs. 150 per mensem pay 3 pies per rupee, those getting between Rs. 150 and Rs. 400 at 4 pies per rupee and over that at 5 pies per rupee. The Calico mill alone realises from these compulsory deductions about Rs. 25,000 per year whereas the mill's total expenditure on welfare activities including hospital is about Rs. 30,000. If a similar scheme is adopted by all the mills and if in addition one pie per rupee on the sale of yarn and cloth is levied as a small burden on the public, it is estimated that the realisation from these deductions will run into lacs which will constitute an adequate general fund for undertaking welfare activities including hospitals. The fund may be administered by a Joint Committee consisting of the representatives of the Labour Union, Mill Owners' Association, the Municipality, the Sanitary Association, Women's Council and Government. The whole joint scheme of welfare activities can be executed economically and thus much wastage and duplication of work by individual mills can be avoided. The scheme, in the opinion of the Association, is deserving of serious consideration and a fair trial.

MR. G. I. PATEL, SECRETARY, THE AHMEDABAD MILLOWNERS' ASSOCIATION.

I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) Eighty per cent. of Ahmedabad mill labour has migrated from within the radius of 50 miles—round about Ahmedabad, including villages and districts.  
(ii) Higher earnings obtainable in industrial concerns than in agricultural pursuits as also growing unemployment in villages and the districts are the principal causes of the streams of migration.
2. (i) Ten to 20 per cent. of such of the workmen who have connections with their villages go out for about a week during festive seasons.  
(ii) Eighty per cent. is roughly the extent of permanent labour force.
3. (i) The assistants in the departments engage workmen whenever there are vacancies.  
(ii) (a) No need for establishing public employment agencies is found in Ahmedabad.  
(b) Under the present circumstances, no possibilities of practical schemes exist.
4. As work-people mostly come with their families to work in the mills and there are groups of families as workers, the disturbance of family life does not take place to any appreciable extent.
7. (i) There is no unemployment practically in local textile industry. Seasonal failure of crops and want of employment in the districts and villages tend to create unemployment, and draw labour in industrial areas.  
(ii) (a) In local industry retrenchment or dismissals do not create special unemployment.  
(b) Cases of voluntary retirement are rarely found.  
(c) Temporary unemployment may be due to the causes of supply and demand at certain periods.  
(iii) and (iv) There is no necessity of unemployment insurance or of special methods of alleviating and remedying unemployment, so far as the local textile industry is concerned.  
(v) Under the existing condition of Indian labour no application of International Conventions relating to unemployment is desirable.
8. (i) In textile mills the composition of labour is uniform and no changes are required to be made in such composition.  
(ii) Instances of casual employment in mills are rare.  
(iii) (a) Usually absenteeism is found to an appreciable extent after pay days and holidays. This is due to illiteracy, indolent habits and want of training among working classes.  
(b) During seasons of the sowing and reaping of the crops, absenteeism increases. The percentage of absenteeism is about 3 on an average.  
(c) Time and wages lost could be roughly estimated from the above basis of 2 to 3 per cent. of absenteeism.



9. Act No. XIX of 1850 concerning the binding of apprentices is not found operative locally. The form of agreement under Schedule A of the said act could hardly be acceptable when labour has not been educated and trained up in such matters. There are orphans and poor children brought up by public charity in certain local institutions like the Ananha-Ashrama but they are not found to be taking advantage of learning trades, crafts and employments on the lines indicated in the said act.

### II.—Staff Organization.

10. The organisation and administration of local mills are conducted by the managing agent representing the firm of agents. He appoints secretaries, spinning masters, weaving masters and assistants. The manager of the spinning or weaving heads, select and appoint head-jobbers, line-jobbers and other departmental persons.

11. Managing staff is selected by the managing agent. Recommendation of the authorities under whom they have previously worked regarding the merits of the applicants is considered. Selection by merits after obtaining applications through advertisements is also in vogue.

12. (i) and (ii) Recruitment and training of subordinate and superior supervising staff is usually made by the ascertaining of merits and experience of the candidate. Apprentices are taken up by several mills in various departments for training. No special system of promotion prevails but promotions are given after taking into consideration the quality of work, experience gained and the satisfaction given by the candidate to his superiors.

13 (i) Relations between the staff and rank and file in mills are cordial and harmonious.

(ii) The system of employing jobbers has its value in ascertaining the qualification and experience of the workmen recruited. The jobbers are direct supervisors of workmen and thus they are a necessary factor in the maintenance of efficiency. The defects of this system are sometimes found in the lower moral tone of some jobbers who treat some workmen unfairly. In Ahmedabad, complaints of such character are brought to the notice of the mills by the Labour Union through the Millowners' Association whenever such instances occur.

(iii) and (iv) Under the existing arrangement duly established by constitution and convention between the Millowners' Association and local Labour Union there is no scope for any Works Committees, Works Councils or Industrial Councils. The system obtainable under the existing constitution is far better than such councils and has proved very efficient and satisfactory to capital and labour.

14. (i) Time-keeping work is done by trained clerks who are called time-keepers. Piece-work paysheets and attendance registers are kept and scrutinised by special clerks engaged for that work. All paysheets and registers are checked by accountants and verified by the secretary or manager whoever is in charge of the office.

(ii) Wages are paid to workers by pay clerks in the presence of time-keepers, assistants and head-jobbers.

15. In mills certain class of work only is entrusted to contractors. Dhobi-bleaching is given on contract to specially trained dhobies. Drawing, beam-carrying, cotton mixing, folding, stamping and such other works are done by contract (in group). The headman usually engages special workmen under him for that particular kind of work. Greater efficiency and regularity are experienced in entrusting such special class of work to trained contractors. There is no sub-contracting so far as mills are concerned. Under the Factory Act, due control is exercised over working conditions in regard to such contracts. The effects of giving contracts for certain special work are good, as less direct supervision and greater efficiency result therefrom.

### III.—Housing.

16. Regarding housing the following quotation from the Factory Report of the Presidency of Bombay, 1927, p. 20 supplies the necessary information. "The Certifying Surgeon, Ahmedabad, has collected information to show that over 3,500 rooms have been built in the past by mill owners. The continued depression in industry has doubtless hindered activities in the provision of housing. In Ahmedabad, however, two agents are erecting 450 suitable rooms."

"The agent of the Asoka and Raipar mills in Ahmedabad built 130 rooms to improved designs. It is a moot point whether the housing of factory employees by the factory-owners is altogether in the interests of labour, yet decent housing is one of the chief needs of the working classes and up to the present, the housing of employees by factory-owners has on the whole, been beneficial to the working classes. In several

instances, however, operatives will not utilise the housing provided for them and housing provided by an occupier is utilised by operatives of other factories." (p. 19—Annual Factory Report of the Presidency of Bombay, 1928).

Ahmedabad mills provide over 100 chawls with 3,500 rooms for their operatives and schemes for working class housing are already under the serious consideration of the municipality. There are chawls of private landlords in which workmen stay owing to the convenience derived by them in going to the mills, situated in that locality. Few workers have their own houses.

17. There is hardly any facility for acquisition of land for workers' houses at present; however, the municipality is carefully investigating the problem with a view to afford such facilities.

18. Chawls erected during the last 6 years are of the best type from the points of lighting, conservancy and water-supply. However, the problem of water shortage in Ahmedabad causes inconvenience to the workers and public during certain seasons.

19. Workers do utilise accommodations made available to them and in some cases operatives would not utilise housing provided for them by mills, owing to their traditional habit of living in their communal group or locality.

20. Rents charged from workmen vary from Rs. 2 to Rs. 6 per month according to the class of accommodation selected by them.

21. In very few cases sub-letting is observed. In some cases, employers' houses are occupied by tenants in other employ as mentioned in the Report of the Inspector of Factories.

22. Improvements which are made in erecting chawls for workmen since the last 3 years produced good moral effect on workers. Reservations of certain areas for industrial housing have been made in town planning schemes. Primarily the education of working-classes and secondarily their housing provisions should be the chief duty of Government and the municipality. The following extract from the Report of the International Federation of Textile Workers published under the leadership of the Rt. Honourable Tom Shaw, M.P. after the Delegation's last visit to Indian cotton mills is noteworthy.

"I have already referred to the fact that in many cases the employers themselves are doing more to educate the people and to deal with the evil conditions than the authorities whose work it ought to be, I now desire to enlarge on what I say about the housing of the people. Whenever the great employers of labour, either companies or individuals, have built houses in connection with their firms, there appears to have been a laudable attempt to give greater cleanliness, more air space and better conditions than are found outside. I am quite satisfied that the worker who is working for the large firms of which I have spoken is generally better housed, better treated and lives under more hygienic circumstances."

#### IV.—Health.

23. No separate figures of birth-rate, mortality and infant mortality of workers in Ahmedabad are available. The municipality does maintain the method of registration in general.

(iii) Working conditions at work places are described in the Report of the Factories for 1927.

(iv) Dietary conditions of workmen are described in the Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budget in Ahmedabad, published by the Labour Office, Bombay, in 1928. The staple food is changed according to the seasons in Hindoo working class family. Wheat is used during summer while bajri is generally used in monsoon. Bajri being cheaper than wheat certain class of work-people use it for diet. In this connection, the details mentioned in the tables printed at pp. 36 to 42 of the said Report, give necessary information.

(v) Physical conditions are fairly good. Under the Factory Act, operatives enjoy recess for 1 hour from 12 to 1 p.m. and the mills are closed at 6 p.m. leaving sufficient time for rest and entertainment for workmen. The Labour Union has also undertaken movements like that of the Sevadal (similar to the Scouting Movement) for mill operatives.

(vi) The number of women workers is being gradually reduced in Ahmedabad cotton mills since the last 2 years. There is less disturbance in the social life of industrial workers in Ahmedabad than in other centres.

(vii) Congested housing and ill-ventilated areas tend to increase mortality. The mill-chawls and certain other chawls which have been built in improved style would no doubt reduce mortality.

24. About 45 mills in Ahmedabad provide dispensaries or arrangements of medical aid for their workmen. More than 30 mills maintain dispensaries for this

purpose. Some mills in Ahmedabad maintain well-equipped hospitals and keep well-trained and efficient doctors, nurses and other staff. Medical aid is also given to the dependants of workmen. Thousands of patients are treated in such dispensaries every year. The Factory Report for the year 1927 has taken note of the following :— "The mill dispensaries were particularly valuable in dealing with the malaria cases that followed the floods in Ahmedabad. Thus in one mill dispensary, 210 malaria cases were treated in the 4 months preceding the floods while 771 cases were dealt with in the succeeding 4 months."

(ii) Government maintains a well-equipped civil hospital in the city and the municipality also maintains dispensaries for medical relief to the ratepayers in general.

(iii) There are private hospitals and dispensaries also in Ahmedabad. Institutions like the Victoria Jubilee Hospital for women and obstetric wards are rendering service to the public in Ahmedabad. A leading millowner has recently opened a maternity home in Dariapur and there is a similar maternity hospital in Dedka's Street, Maneckchock. These institutions are run on charitable lines.

(iv) Women doctors, trained midwives or "dais" and nurses are provided in such institutions and Government hospitals. The Labour Union also maintains a labour hospital.

25. (i) In general, medical facilities are well utilised by the public and the labour class in this city. The municipality has also received donations of large sums for a maternity hospital to be built near the Ellis Bridge and it is hoped that this medical institution will provide more up to date and ideal accommodation to the women of the city in near future.

(ii) Women take increasingly better advantage of the facilities provided by Government, municipal, private and charitable institutions. This fact could well be gleaned from the reports of different institutions which are published from time to time.

26. (i) and (ii) Sanitary arrangements at work places are supervised by the factory inspector and the certifying surgeon from time to time. Provision for latrines is made under the rules laid down in the Factory Act. Drinking water is supplied from municipal taps and storage tanks.

(iii) The municipality has recently sanctioned expenditure for the erection of bathing sheds in certain wards in which workpeople reside.

27. Public Health Department, Municipal Health Department, Certifying Surgeon and Factory Inspector supervise officially general health conditions of the city and industrial area.

28. Control of temperature and provision of ventilation and humidification in Ahmedabad cotton mills are regulated by the rules duly made in that behalf by Government since the last two years. The following remarks from the letter addressed by the Collector of Bombay to the Secretary to Government Department, Bombay, dated 18th June, 1928, and printed in the Factory Report for the year 1927, speak for themselves :—

"A very satisfactory feature of the year is the advance that has been made in the provision of comfortable working conditions in textile factories, particularly in Ahmedabad where several mills have instituted special humidifying, cooling and ventilating plants in their weaving sheds and spinning departments."

"Local government has already framed rules for this purpose and the results obtained have been stated to be successful in the Factory Report published by Government."

29. No special industrial diseases are prevalent in Ahmedabad. During times of epidemics greater efforts and active services are rendered by mills, Government, hospitals and other institutions.

30. Sickness insurance and introducing of similar systems are neither suitable nor necessary under the existing conditions. Difficulties arising from non-acceptability of western medicines, paucity of medical men, migration of labour and finance are not found in Ahmedabad.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. About 36 mills in Ahmedabad provide creches or facilities of cradles. Regarding schools for labour classes local millowners gave a grant of Rs. 15,000 every year for a period of 5 years to the local Labour Union out of a welfare fund raised by them for the good of Ahmedabad labour. In the Factory Report of 1927, it is mentioned that "8 mills in Ahmedabad maintain schools and a few mills in other localities. Infant schools are attached to some of the creches in Bombay and Ahmedabad."

"The Labour Union in Ahmedabad has continued its educational activities. Eleven day schools and 15 night schools were maintained and education was imparted to over 1,200 students about equally divided between the day and night schools." An infant class and spinners students' (Ashrama) Home as also a girls' school are run by the Labour Union.

33. Doctors, nurses, ayahs and compounders are employed in the welfare work.

34. Provision of dining sheds and creches is made in most of the mills. The Labour Union and Sanitary Association as also Temperance Society assist in the welfare work. There are in Ahmedabad general provisions for physical culture through "Akhadas" and a "Sevadal" of Majur Office along with public gardens for recreation and amusements like those of magic lantern shows, cinemas, theatres, etc.

35. As a result of various activities in the welfare work, labour population has profited and has obtained better facilities.

36. Some mills provide schools for the education of their workmen and some give grants to certain labour schools for assisting such education. Donations were also given by millowners for this purpose for 5 years.

37. Provision for old age and premature retirement of workmen in cases where they serve in a mill for a certain number of years would be desirable and possible but so long as labour is not first given education and raised to the level of understanding and obtaining the advantages accruing from better sanitation and modes of life purged of vices, of drinks, opium eating, gambling, etc., there appears little possibility of the successful application of such schemes of old age pensions and provisions for premature retirement.

#### VI.—Education.

40. Facilities for general education in industrial areas are extremely meagre and it can safely be said that they are practically nil. The following remarks embodied in the Report of the Rt. Hon'ble. Tom Shaw, M.P. are noteworthy :—

"It is precisely the great employers of labour in the textile trade who appear to be doing more for the education of the masses than either national or local governments. Over and over again in the huge concerns that we saw in different parts of India we noticed in the mill-grounds or compounds, schools that have been maintained by the employers for the purpose of giving instructions first to the young persons—boys and girls—who were employed in the mills and secondly in many cases the younger children of the work-people employed. The same thing applies to the provisions of sickness-benefit and medical treatment. Over and over again we found that there seemed to be absolutely no provision, or even meagre provision indeed, made by the authorities, but judged by Indian standard a remarkably good provision made by the employers."

The following quotations from the factory report for 1927 throws special light so far as Ahmedabad is concerned : "The physique of school children in Ahmedabad appears to be superior to that in Bombay and as a matter of general interest it is satisfactory to record that the physique of school children of the depressed classes in Ahmedabad is practically identical to that of the higher castes." (p. 11.)

41. The R.C. Technical Institute in Ahmedabad affords facilities for industrial and vocational training. A similar institution is also run by the Baroda State at Baroda called the Kalabhuvan. Students trained in these institutions obtain employment in industrial concerns of Gujarat.

42. Effect of education on standard of living and industrial efficiency of workers is good. However, the State should seriously tackle this problem of educating the working class and the masses of the ratepayers. Comprehensive schemes of compulsory primary education submitted by local bodies to the provincial government remain unsanctioned for over four years, and it is a misfortune to observe very slow progress of Government in such matters which are primarily concerned with the value of society and the structure of mass upliftment. A negligible proportion of the working class population knows reading and writing, much less does it know methods of intelligent working, decent living, abstinence from drinks and such other vices. Government and municipal bodies have neglected this important duty for all these years and introduction of compulsory primary education should without further delay be made.

#### VII.—Safety.

43, 44 and 45.—The provisions of the Indian Factories Act and the incidence of accidents in factories provide sufficient safety to industrial workers. On page 14 of the Factory Report for the year 1928 a tabular statement of accidents with details for the last ten years is given.

46. Safety posters for the textile industry have been recently distributed to the mills and inspectors of factories have found that the lessons involved in the use of such posters tend to produce precautionary effects.

48. First aid and medical relief are given by mill dispensaries or the civil hospital and private institutions.

49. There is no stringency of inspection and enforcement of regulations.

50. The effect upon safety of hours, health, light and working conditions generally is good and progressive.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) Workmen's Compensation Act is in operation from 1924. Practically all industrial concerns insure their workmen and by now the commissioner for workmen's compensation holds regular sittings at intervals and decides the cases. Details are obtainable from the reports published from time to time in the Labour Gazette and other papers. (*Vide* Labour Gazette, August 1929, p. 1157).

(iii) The effect of this legislation on the industry is to increase financial burden on it. An average mill with 25,000 spindles and 600 looms has to pay about Rs. 800 every year for this purpose by way of insurance charges.

(iv) and (v) Insurance facilities are available and are utilised to a greater extent from year to year. From the workers' point of view these are also advantageous. The recent amendments to be made in the Act would practically tend to make the insurance by employers compulsory.

#### IX.—Hours.

55 and 56. The hours of employment in factories are 10 for a day and no persons are employed for more than 60 hours in any one week, under Section 27 of the Indian Factories Act. Under Section 28 no persons are to be employed in a factory for more than 11 hours in any one day.

57. The restriction of 60 hours has produced a good effect on the operatives, but it has increased cost of production on the industry.

58. Ten hours a day is the uniform daily limit and its effect on workmen is good as they get good time for rest, amusement and recreation.

59. No further reduction in the hours of working should be made. Workmen get sufficient time after 6 p.m. when the mills are closed for recreation and rest. The period of rest in the afternoon is one hour at a stroke, and this also tends to give them sufficient rest during the interval. Further reduction in working hours would enhance the cost of production to such a degree as would harm the industry and render its position to compete with other manufacturers very weak.

60. Section 21 of the Indian Factories Act regulates the periods of rest in factories. At intervals not exceeding six hours, periods of rest of not less than one hour are granted. At the request of the employees concerned periods of not less than half an hour each so arranged that for each period of six hours work there shall be periods of rest of not less than one hour's duration in all (and that no person shall work for more than five hours continuously) could also be granted. The law has proved suitable under existing circumstances.

(iv) Over 55 holidays are granted to workmen every year.

61. Under Section 22 of the Indian Factories Act holidays are granted usually on Sundays. In certain cases holidays are granted for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday. It has been provided in this section that the factory will not be worked for more than 10 consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day.

#### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

81. The effect of 1922 Act on employment has been wholesome on the workers,

82. Owing to the provision of creches in several mills admission of infants in the departments of factories is not found in vogue.

83. Employment of women is regulated by the Indian Factory Act. Night work by women is prohibited.

84. Regulations affecting children are also embodied in the Indian Factories Act. Children under 13 years of age and without authoritative certificate for employment in a factory are prohibited from working in factories, under Section 23 of the Act. Children are not employed for more than six hours in any one day. Night work by children is also prohibited under the Act.

85. There is no double employment of children.

86. Apprentices are taken up by several mills though not by all. As young adults are trained to work they receive higher employment according to their capacity and knowledge.

87. Children are not usually dismissed on reaching full age but according to their training and quickness of work they are given adult wages.

88. Instances of double shift system are rare and at certain times or during certain seasons some mill or mills take to double shift system. If the same workmen do not work in two shifts in contravention of the Factory Act the health of young adults is not affected. Women and children are prohibited from working at night. (This question has been referred to in detail in para. 70 of the Tariff Board's Report.)

## XII.—Wages.

96. Prevailing rates of wages in Ahmedabad mills are printed at page 110 of the report of the Indian Tariff Board. Average earnings of spinners and weavers in Ahmedabad are mentioned in the table printed at page 125 of the report of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29, Vol. I. On page 111 of the report of the Indian Tariff Board the figures of average monthly earnings per head in 1914, 1921 and 1923 for Bombay, Ahmedabad and other centres in the Bombay Presidency are given under Table LXVI. Average monthly earnings of a weaver in Ahmedabad exceeds Rs. 44, while that of the spinner exceeds Rs. 26. Greater details are printed on page 125 of the report of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee. Ahmedabad mills pay the highest scale of wages in the northern division as compared with the scale of wages of other class of workmen including agricultural labour in surrounding areas. The question of money wages and money value of all earnings has been fully discussed in the report on "an Enquiry into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry," published in 1923 and 1925 (*vide* pages 20, 21 and 24, 25 respectively).

97. Increases and decreases in money wages and money value in recent years are contained in the report published in the Labour Gazette every month. Wages were increased when cost of living was high. On page 7 of the Labour Gazette for June, 1923, a tabular statement of average percentage increase in cost of living from 1918 to 1923 appears. From 83 in 1920 (which was the highest) it was reduced to 73 in 1921 to 64 in 1922, and to 53 in 1923. It is about 47 at present. Detailed information is available from Labour Gazettes which are published every month. When profits were abnormal wages were increased to about 122 per cent. over the basis of 1914, and annual bonuses were granted to the mill operatives.

101. Wages have been fixed in later years by negotiations with the labour union or by awards of arbitrators duly appointed by the millowners' association, and labour union.

102. Payment for overtime and Sunday work is governed by Section 31 of the Indian Factories Act, and the rules of exemption made by local government in that behalf.

103 and 104. Wages in the spinning section are practically on a fixed and standardized basis while in the weaving section these are based on piecework system. In Ahmedabad cotton mill wages being higher than other class of workers no effect on labour supply due to wage changes is visible.

105. The principle of minimum wages is not found in operation in any class of organized industry in this country. The Fawcett Committee in their report on the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee have recently thrown light on this question. A reference to paragraphs 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162 and 163 may be relevantly made in this connection. On page 78 of the Report the committee opine that "we consider that we should determine what would be a fair and reasonable wage on practical consideration suited to the circumstances of the case and that we should not entertain a new demand of a much larger kind based on debatable ideas as to a proper standard of living, etc." The Committee further state that "in Ahmedabad at any rate the earnings of cotton mill workers are greater than those of all other workers" (page 77). On the same page it has been mentioned that the cost of living in Bombay is higher than in Ahmedabad. In the circumstances when industries in India have not become fully self-supporting and when they have to meet keen and cutting foreign competition it would neither be advisable nor possible to have any statutory establishment of minimum wages. Labour is not yet trained to the level of having even primary education and is moreover unorganized and illiterate.

106. The Government of India have obtained through local governments information on the extent of the practice by which employers in industrial concerns inflicted fines upon their workmen in 1926. The system of fines on industrial workers does not constitute an evil of such proportions as would require any special consideration

as the infliction of fines is very small. The results of the labour office enquiry also support this view. In this connection reference to Labour Gazette for August, 1927, may be made. In view of the enquiry made by the labour office in 1927 there exists no scope for any legislation.

107. In Ahmedabad mills wages are paid to weavers and spinners on a fortnightly basis and to other workers on a monthly basis. Usually a period of about 8 to 10 days elapses before payment. No legislation is desirable in view of the easy and regular system which is obtained in local mills.

Unclaimed wages are paid to workmen even if they come to receive it after certain months. Thereafter if any balance remains it is utilised either for the good of labour or for charity or for making up deficits or in calculating profits as may be suitable to the mill concerned.

109. Bonuses were granted to mill operatives in 1919, 1920, 1921, and 1922 when profits were high and abnormal. Profit-sharing schemes in the present circumstances of labour and capital (industry) are neither possible nor desirable.

110. Workers go on leave on certain occasions, e.g., during certain days of monsoon or seasonal holidays. Wages are not paid for the days of absence. To certain workmen who receive their wages on a monthly basis leave is granted by the heads of the department. In this class boilermens, sizers, back-sizers, jobbers, fitters, workmen of the engineering department, etc., are included.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. Indian workers gradually show greater efficiency owing to training, experience and handling of different types of machinery. Want of sufficient education to enable them to read easy pamphlets and treatises about the work which they have to do prevents them from obtaining greater efficiency.

113. Efficiency of Indian workers is much lower as compared with that of foreign workers. The following extract from the Labour Gazette of July, 1926 would lat  
19:  
a comparative idea about efficiency.\*

114 and 116. All the nine factors enumerated in this question affect the  
to which comparisons are affected. Want of education, climatic conditions, in  
habits, and want of awakening of sanitary conscience affect in particular, eff  
of Indian textile workers.

115. The ten factors embodied in this question affect the production  
and indirectly. Abstinence from alcohol and drugs, better tone of health an  
tion, beneficial legislative measures, and improvements in working conditions  
no doubt affect production favourably. In all such matters Government should  
shoulder the responsibility when various kinds of taxes are recovered from the  
masses, classes, industries and individuals. Limitations in regard to welfare wo  
compatible with the position of the industry prevent progress beyond certain lines  
and the State should directly shoulder responsibilities regarding well being and  
amelioration of labour class and the masses.

### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association is an organization of employers wherein mills and factories are enrolled as members. Sixty-seven mills and factories, including some of Nadia, Surat and Cambay are members of this association. Practically the association represents cotton interests.

The labour union is an organization of workers in the spinning section of local mills and some other minor departments.

118. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association was established prior to 1891, while the local labour union was founded in the year 1918, and properly organized from the year 1920. Labour troubles in organized form began in 1917 and after the great strike of 1918 the association and the union have established a constitution with convention to refer labour disputes which are not amicably settled between the union and the association to a Board of Arbitration, consisting of Mr. M. K. Gandhi and Sheth Mangaldas G. Parekh. In case of a difference of opinion between the arbitrators the matter is referred to an umpire. This has improved the condition of workers in general and has preserved factors of co-operation between labour and capital in Ahmedabad in proper harmony.

120. The local labour union has taken up some benefit schemes for operatives. Their membership comes to about 18,000, and there are separate unions—Mahajans—called Throstle, Card, Blow, Frame, Engineering, Jobbers and Mucadams Mahajan,

etc. Medical aid, hospitals, schools, infant class, assistants in case of accidents, arrangements of cheap loans in some cases, saving bank arrangement, some cheap grain shops and hotels, etc., are the chief activities of the union. Industrial education like sewing, carpentry, hand-sewing, hand-weaving, is given to children in the "Vidhyarthi Ashrama" (students home).

Arbitrators do not award strike pay as the convention of resumption of work unconditionally prior to the consideration by the arbitration board of an unauthorised strike is practically established by this time.

121. Trade Union Act of 1926, though taken advantage of by union in Bombay and other centres is not being taken advantage of by the local labour union due to certain reasons.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. In December, 1917, a strike of warpers took place when warpers from Bombay and other places were engaged by mills through the millowners' association. Ultimately a settlement was arrived at. The strike was settled after a fortnight. By the end of 1918, owing to plague in Ahmedabad, weavers were paid daily attendance bonus. This reached to the extent of about 70 per cent. After the plague was over the amount of bonus was to be reduced and practically all mills of Ahmedabad decided to reduce the percentage to 20 per cent. Mr. M. K. Gandhi on behalf of labour asked for 35 per cent. As a result of disagreement when the mills put up notices for 20 per cent. a strike was declared and this was followed by a lock-out at a subsequent stage. All the mills were closed and the strike began on 22nd February, 1918, and ended on 20th March, 1918. At a later stage Mr. Gandhi declared a vow to fast till the matter was settled. Ultimately the dispute was referred by way of arbitration to Mr. Anandshanker Dhruve, Prof. of Sanskrit Gujarat College. In 1920 there was a strike in the spinning section for about a fortnight and it was settled by mutual consultation between the authorities of the millowners' association and our union. The condition of textile industry became very grave from the end of 1922 and in 1923 a reduction in wages was proposed by the association. The labour union insisted on a deed of arbitration to be executed by the association. As the association thought it to be humiliating, as also the union insisted on certain terms and conditions in the deed which were not relevant to the dispute a strike took place which lasted for about 10 weeks. It was settled by the union agreeing to obtain arbitration through negotiations carried on by their representative, Professor Dhruve and Sheth Mangaldas, the president of the association. A cut of 15½ per cent. in wages was declared by these representatives of both the bodies. Since then no organized strikes and lock-outs have taken place in the textile industry of this city.

124. From 1917 gradual development in labour troubles and organized efforts between labour and capital brought into existence in 1920 a mutually agreed constitution which has been functioning (backed by certain conventions) till today. On certain occasions collectors and commissioners (officials) as also leading citizens have taken part in bringing about negotiations and settlements of disputes.

125 and 126. The Trade Disputes Act has recently come into operation, and the attitude of Government towards trade combination and industrial disputes is to be watched still.

#### XVII.—Administration.

133 to 135. Labour questions are increasingly handled by Government and during the last six years several enactments have been made. Workmen's Compensation Act, Trade Disputes Act, Trade Unions Act, Maternity Benefit Act and Humidification and Ventilation Rules are already in operation and the reduction of working hours from 12 to 10 as also prohibition of women and children in night work are due to international labour organization and ratification of certain conventions. Relations between central and local governments are harmonious and the Bombay Government maintain a labour office which publishes a monthly called Labour Gazette, and appoints labour investigators in industrial centres.

136. The director of labour, labour investigators, inspectors of factories, chief inspector of factories, certifying surgeons, lady investigators, are some of the administrative authorities of the Bombay Government.

137. Difference in working hours and working conditions in Indian States and British India affect industries in British India unfavourably. Factory law and other enactments pertaining to labour should be uniform in Indian States and British India so that no unfair advantage may be secured by one over the other.

138. Workpeople are obtaining greater acquaintance with factory legislation, particularly due to the organizations of labour unions and trade unions.



139. Factory inspection is carried on in Ahmedabad with adequate staff, sufficient rigour and good efficiency. Prosecutions are made and the results tend to greater caution. Details of these are available from the reports of the inspectors of factories.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. Statistics are collected, compiled and published by Government in Labour Gazettes and in separate reports like wages and hours of labour, working class family budget, workmen's compensation reports, etc., from time to time. The annual report of the factory inspector also contains necessary information.

144. The Bombay Government have greatly improved the system of compiling statistics and further improvements are made in the light of experience gained from time to time.

146. International exchange of views and labour conferences tend to throw more light on questions relating to industry and labour and further developments are likely to take place.

#### Financial Statement of the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association.

Number of cotton mills.	Years.	Paid up share capital.	Reserves including carried forward in Profit and Loss Account.	Block Account original value.
50	1921	3,01,76,893	5,00,39,223	7,51,73,944
49	1922	3,00,86,973	7,06,98,325	9,07,85,014
47	1923	2,86,31,157	5,81,30,852	9,00,93,721
50	1924	3,26,84,526	6,95,46,900	10,67,91,790
48	1925	3,25,68,873	7,25,13,462	10,30,35,987
56	1926	3,70,17,075	8,63,31,537	12,30,81,964
51	1927	3,59,13,342	7,56,48,931	12,01,70,262

Block Account after depreciation.	Annual depreciation.	Net profit of mills making profits.	Dividend.	Percentage on capital.	Reserve.
4,99,16,074	38,24,927	2,51,56,230	183,30,205	60·11/15	65,64,133
5,12,16,266	30,02,639	1,47,02,204	117,34,405	30·9/10	27,27,832
5,95,12,398	22,48,927	35,24,611	34,77,056	12·1/7	3,58,596
7,16,44,485	29,02,493	49,67,749	41,53,121	12·23/32	8,27,799
6,71,09,966	30,97,421	55,96,238	46,71,343	14·11/32	9,38,753
8,10,90,687	30,31,187	56,52,240	45,88,308	12·14/15	8,64,618
7,88,27,865	33,01,309	52,45,723	42,78,192	11·32/35	8,29,355

Carried forward in Profit and Loss Account.	Loss of such mills as made losses.	To declare Dividend	
		Agent's Commission given up.	Reserve debited.
2,16,505	3,998	---	---
3,11,364	53,790	52,638	42,000
2,27,052	7,16,035	1,58,661	2,73,515
2,59,806	9,01,038	4,50,709	26,000
2,38,042	5,17,898	1,17,522	47,547
1,72,265	3,93,975	3,27,740	60,000
1,25,692	3,55,221	2,12,834	7,210

*Financial Statement—contd.*

Year.	Capital plus Reserves.	Percentage.	Percentage in Block Account.
1924	10,22,31,426	3-9/10	3-4/5
1925	10,50,82,335	4-4/5	4-9/10
1926	12,33,48,612	4-1/4	4-1/4
1927	11,15,62,273	4-4/11	4-1/15

THE AHMEDABAD BRANCH OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY WOMEN'S COUNCIL.—SECRETARY, LADY RAMANBHAI NILKANTH.

**Introductory.**

The Ahmedabad Branch of Women's Council, takes special interest in infant welfare of labouring classes. It runs two creches of its own to which infant classes for teaching, reading and writing are attached. The council has an honorary lady doctor who prescribes at the creches medicines. People in the near locality take advantage of this. It has made arrangements with the local eye specialist to treat free of charge children sent to him by the Creche Committee. Moreover the members of the council visit several creches at the local mills. Their advice is very often sought by mill managers when anything concerning creches has to be done.

**I.—Recruitment.**

4. In Ahmedabad, in the majority of cases the families of labourers live with them on account of living expenses not being prohibitive and also on account of the fact that labourers as a rule do not come from very great distances.

**III.—Housing.**

16. (i) 10 per cent. of houses for labourers are provided by the employers.  
(ii) None by Government or public agency ;  
(iii) Nearly 85 per cent. by private landlords.  
(iv) 5 per cent. by workers such as heads of departments, etc.

17. At present no facilities are given by Government for acquisition of land. It is desirable that the Land Acquisition Act be extended for the purpose of acquiring land at reasonable prices for building workmen's houses by millowners or public agencies and not by private landlords.

18. Nearly 92 per cent. of houses are 1 room houses. Majority of them have either no plinth or a very low one. Ventilation is very bad. The roofs are made of corrugated iron sheets, mostly without tiles so the houses are very cold in winter and very hot in summer. Arrangements for water supply is very inadequate, and for latrines most unsatisfactory.

19. Quarters provided for workers are always taken advantage of and there is still great demand for them.

20. Rents paid range from Rs. 2 to Rs. 6 per month in mill area. In the city similar accommodation costs considerably more.

21. Cases have arisen when, labourers gone on strike, the employers have demanded the houses being vacated within 24 hours.

22. We suggest that houses for workmen should contain at least two rooms to secure privacy and consequently better moral condition and also hygienic improvements.

Housing of labour by industrial concerns has its disadvantages also, for by such a method the worker loses a certain amount of independence and cannot leave his employment without vacating his house.

**IV.—Health.**

23. (i) The rate of mortality of children in all mill areas is very high.

(iii) In most of the Ahmedabad mills, a large percentage of the women work in the cellars as reelers and winders. These places in all cases have been infected with mosquitoes. Arrangements should be made to get the water properly removed.

24. (i) Government do not specially provide medical aid in the mill area. Each mill should have by law a dispensary in charge of a *qualified* medical man who may be a part time worker, and a compounder who should always be on the spot.

(iv) No special provision for women doctors or trained midwives specially for the mill workers except the Labour Union Hospital (where there is no woman doctor but qualified midwives). Municipality engages qualified midwives for all wards in the city which includes mill areas.

28. (i) In the past, control of temperature in the mills has been impossible, until the advent of the carrier system of cooling.

(ii) With the advent of the carrier plant, cooling and control of humidification together with continuous changing of atmosphere has been made possible and is the only ideal method.

(a) Government have taken no definite action but it is essential that legislation should enforce this or any other similar method producing the same effect.

(b) The result is that the worker is not continuously inhaling the same atmosphere and does not have that same tiring feeling of exhaustion after completing a day's work. He also can earn more money by obtaining a greater efficiency by less exertion.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. Welfare work under proper supervision by mills would be ideal in the first stage. If any public agency were prepared to carry on the work, municipalities and Government should encourage these with every possible help.

34. Less than 50 per cent. of mills provide creches for children of women workers.

36. In one mill only education is provided, compulsory education should be strictly put into force. Thus either the local authority or millowners would be obliged to provide for schools for workmen's children.

Reading rooms and some recreations should be provided by millowners. These would to a great extent stop mill workers resorting to liquor shops.

#### IX.—Hours.

55. (i) At present mill workers work for 10 hours a day and 60 hours per week. We suggest 9 hours instead to ensure physical and educational uplift of working classes.

### Mr. R. G. KAUTEKAR, THE TEXTILE BROTHERHOOD.

#### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) Local and surrounding villages, 10 per cent.; Marwar and Rajputana 25 per cent.; and from U.P. side, 65 per cent.

(ii) The local labour is mostly from hand-loom weavers. The hand-loom industry has suffered and hence the migration. 25 per cent. of neighbouring villages form a majority of agricultural class, and as this occupation too has been suffering, part of the population has migrated. As regards 65 per cent. of migrations from northern side, the agriculture itself is insufficient to maintain its population.

(iii) Nil, except a small number from U.P. mainly weavers. The percentage being so low at present that it is simply perceptible and not measurable.

2. (i) and (ii) 25 per cent. coming from near villages return 2 or 3 times on short leave for marriage or crop season after short holidays during a year. The period of return covers about 1 month a year. 65 per cent. from northern side return once a year for about a month at a stretch.

3. (i) No organised method. However the direct suppliers are what they are called jobbers. Labour approaching them through friends and acquaintances thus get ushered into the mill line.

(ii) No possible improvement.

(iii) (a) There is a desirability of establishing public employment agencies.  
(b) Apprentice classes for different lines of textile industry should be maintained by public corporations and conducted by technical experts in different branches to supply adequate labour. The present primary school should be advantageously extended and the above training classes should be attached to them.

4. The present factory system of textile industry is not very conducive to a healthy mode of family life and consequently the disturbances in family life directly affect efficient working.

7. (i) There is no unemployment in skilled labour.  
 (ii) (a) Retrenchment or dismissals affect only unskilled labour; (b) No voluntary retirement.  
 (iv) Unemployment insurance not necessary.
8. (i) Average duration of employment is 11 months a year.  
 (ii) One month in a year.  
 (iii) (a and b) 3·45 per cent. monsoon and marriage season; (c) One month, Rs. 24 per head per month.

### II.—Staff Organization.

10 and 11. The management rests with the agents and the departmental organization rests with the heads of the individual departments. The officers are selected by the agents and the subordinates by the heads.

12. There is no regular system of training supervising staff either superior or subordinate. Majority of them are recruited from practically trained persons and very meagre minority from amongst men of technical school.

13. (i) Relations :—good.  
 (ii) Jobber is in no way better than a buffer between officers and labour so far as the labour is concerned. His value as a mechanic is nil and hence the system is defective.

(iii) and (iv) Nil.

14. (i) The attendance registers of all the monthly hands is kept by a time keeper. The piece worker's work is booked by the clerks. The monthly paid staff excepting the head of the department is paid generally by the time-keeper and piece-workers by the pay clerk. In both the cases the supervisors or jobbers are to wait for payment and receipt. But this system, is, however found defective.

### III.—Housing.

16. In fact there is no idea of providing houses. In some, there are chawls, but these are never meant to provide housing but an earning factor and in case of a strike, may get some hold over the workmen.

24. The medical facilities are really provided with. But it is painful to mention that our medical men have not got so much sympathy for the poor. Whatever facilities are given by our agents the fullest advantage could not be had owing to the social attitude of the middle class people towards the labour and the attitude of the operatives with the belief of the old methods of treating diseases.

25. If beneficial results could be had and if labour can get effective results, best and most supple mind people our labour are, and they will never fail to take the advantage.

26. (i) (ii) and (iii) Sanitary arrangements are just to meet the requirements of the Factory Act.

28. The control of temperature in existing factories is quite necessary. The local government, the millowners and partly labour also are tackling the problem, and better results both congenial to the health of the labour and the progress of the industry can be expected within half-a-decade.

29. (i) Tuberculosis.

(ii) Malaria.

30. It is quite essential and requires legislation.

31. (i) Already in existence.

### V.—Welfare.

32. Employers and labour unions have realized the importance of the welfare work and are trying their best.

34. Judicious application is under consideration as the employers have realized the benefit of welfare activities.

36. Nothing yet except a few schools and creches.

(iv) Whatever little is so far done has been much appreciated by labour.

37. Provision for old age is quite essential and they should be on the lines of the Indian Railway Institutions.

38. Nil.

## VI.—Education.

40. (i) and (ii) Deplorable.  
 (iii) Facilities are existing but education must be compulsory.  
 41. No facilities.  
 42. Expected to be good.

## VII.—Safety.

43. Quite alright.  
 48. More efficient first aid and medical relief is quite necessary.

## IX.—Hours.

55. (a) 60 hours a week and 10 hours a day.  
 (i) Normal 10 hours.  
 (ii) Actual 10 hours.  
 (iii) Spread over 11 hours with 1 hour recess after 5 hours work.  
 57. (i) Physical exhaustion.  
 59. It is possible only if the working conditions are improved.  
 60. More than one interval if food facilities are to be had in the mills.  
 61 and 62. Present system is quite alright and suitable.

## X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

81. Good. Less children.  
 82. Allowed if sufficient creche system in adopted.  
 83. Present regulations satisfactory.  
 85. Double employment of children is practically getting extinct.

## XII. Wages.

96. Departmental average wages per one man per month. Engine and boiler, Rs. 32; mechanic, Rs. 44; mixing, Rs. 20; blowroom, Rs. 25; card, Rs. 30; Frame, Rs. 27; spinning, Rs. 24; yarn bundling or baling, Rs. 26; Winding, Rs. 26; Warping, Rs. 50; sizing, Rs. 50; Weaving, Rs. 42; calendaring or folding, Rs. 24; cloth baling, Rs. 26; waste, Rs. 24; dyeing, Rs. 24; store, Rs. 24; miscellaneous workers, Rs. 20.

97. (i) Increase demanded, 15 per cent.  
 (ii) Standard of living has risen high due to city life.

103. There is no standardization in weaving, but in spinning the wages are practically standardized in some of the departments.

104. The effect of wage-changes as opposed to standardization is bad and hence undesirable.

105. Rs. 15 for females and Rs. 20 for males. It is advisable and possible and quite necessary to standardize minimum wages.

106. (i) Weaver's fine comes to 3 to 4 per cent. In spinning department there is no system of fining.

- (ii) Negligible.  
 (iii) In weavers' case, half of the fine is used by the company in paying folders.  
 (iv) Not desirable for the present.

107. (i) Wages are paid to the weavers and spinners fortnightly.

- (ii) One week.  
 (iii) Regulation not necessary.  
 (iv) Unclaimed wages are paid up to 3 months.

108. *Indebtedness.*—*Factory inspector's remarks.* 1928.—Of the 2,000 persons in the spinning department 994 or 50 per cent. were in debt. The average indebtedness per person in the lowest wage category, i.e., below Rs. 25, was practically Rs. 200. 159 out of these borrowed money at or up to 12 per cent. interest, 79 from 12 per cent. up to 18 per cent., 450 from 18 per cent. up to 24 per cent., and 193 above 24 per cent. 69 persons' rate not ascertained. Discarding these the average debt charge per month per person was Rs. 3.79 or between 15 to 20 per cent. of the earnings was theoretically absorbed in paying debt charges.

(*Vide* also memorandum of Chief Inspector of Factories).

109. (i) Bonus and profit sharing scheme is yet unknown in this country. There was something like bonus-system in the Great War times.

110. For the supervising staff some considerations are made but for operatives no paid leave is allowed.

#### XIII.—Industrial efficiency of Workers.

112. The efficiency of Indian workers in recent years is gradually on the increase.

113 and 114. Indian labour is less efficient than foreign labour because they are raw hands. They are not accustomed to machinery. The efficiency of plant and management is low, and physique and health below normal. Education not to the mark and standard of living very poor and above all the most oppressive climatic condition. However, in case the Indian labour is given the same facilities as foreigners are provided with, they can well stand in competition with the foreigners in efficiency.

116. Possible methods of securing increased efficiency. Efficiency can be improved by having technically trained, qualified and honest men at the head interested with the business. There should not be made frequent changes in the staff. The staff members should have theoretical knowledge as well as practical experience of the line.

Introducing co-operative system from the supervising staff down to the lowest worker is one of the factors in increasing the efficiency. The operatives should be educated and should be supplied with better conditions and comforts to work with.

Suitable labour saving appliances, most up-to-date machines and well spaced machinery and well lighted and well ventilated rooms go a great way to increase the efficiency.

*Materials.*—Scientific and practical testing of all materials should be made before buying.

Buying and selling should not be entrusted to interested parties.

- (i) Specialization.
- (ii) Mass production.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

122. There is an arbitration board in Ahmedabad which tries to meet the differences between the two unions.

- (ii) Nothing has been done as yet.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. No strikes or lockouts after the settlement between the unions.

### THE JOINT HON. SECRETARIES, GUJERAT CONSTITUENCY OF ALL-INDIA WOMEN'S CONFERENCE, AHMEDABAD.

We represent the Ahmedabad branch of the All-India Women's Conference, and as such are interested in the condition specially of women and children working in the textile factories in Ahmedabad.

11. Although there is such a large number of women workers there are hardly any women supervisors in the mills. It is desirable to place women supervisors in charge of departments largely worked by women.

16. (i) Thirty mills provide housing for 13 per cent. of their employees.

(ii) Nil.

(iii) Most of the chawls, about 92 per cent., are provided by private landlords.

(iv) About 5 per cent. of the total number of labourers in Ahmedabad have no self-owned houses.

17. The land acquisition Act does not apply to the labourers' houses, but the benefit of it should be extended to such public agencies which will undertake to build houses for labourers.

18. (i) No difference between all the classes.

(ii) There is no difference in the accommodation provided in all the classes except in one or two mill-owned chawls where better quality of accommodation is provided. But even here the sanitary arrangement is very poor.

(iii) *Lighting (Ventilation).*—In chawls provided by employers and by private landlords ventilation is unsatisfactory, and in the latter it is worse than in the former, e.g., there are chawls even below the level of the road and the roof is so low that

a person can scarcely stand erect in the rooms. There is no arrangement for even the smoke to go out. *Conservancy arrangements* are unsatisfactory in all the three classes, but they are specially worse in chawls provided by private landlords and in those owned by workmen themselves. We feel that one latrine for two families should be insisted upon.

*Water Supply.*—Sufficient in all the classes. There is no water supply at all in houses owned by workmen themselves. There should be an half-inch tap in each two-roomed tenement. Apart from the unsatisfactory character of the existing tenements, it is to be noted that there is not even a sufficient number of these available. It is estimated that at least 5,000 more tenements are needed to meet the requirements.

19. Yes, fully utilized—the demand is greater than the supply.

20. The rent rates in various classes are almost the same. The lowest is Rs. 1 8 annas, rising to Rs. 8. In the majority of cases the rent is between Rs 4 and Rs 5.

21. *Eviction.*—There is some victimisation in the chawls owned by the employers. In chawls owned by private landlords rent is raised under the threat of eviction due to scarcity of houses. Government should legislate with a view to make public provision of houses as has been done in England and other European countries.

22. The existing industrial housing conditions in the majority of cases are so bad that they do affect the morals of the workers. Improvements have been tried by millowners where the housing conditions have been improved, tangible results are apparent.

In our opinion the minimum housing requirements of a family are a kitchen, a living room, an open space in front of the house and a verandah with adequate water facilities and proper sanitary arrangements. At the present scale of wages a workman cannot be expected to pay rents exceeding from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per month in different grades.

23. (iii) The places where the women work are mostly in the cellars, and as such are damp, therefore malarial.

23. (iv) *Dietary.*—Food in morning. Bread of wheat or bajri, and pulse.

*Evening.*—Khiehdi with oil or small quantity of ghee. Green vegetables and raw sugar are used every third or fourth day. Non-vegetarians afford meat only one or thrice a week. Milk scarcely forms part of a workman's diet; tea is drunk from the hotels in the mills, women scarcely drink tea.

(v) *Physique.*—Very poor. Tuberculosis is on the increase and a sanatorium is badly needed. Workmen do not have sufficient information about proper diet and personal hygiene. Compulsory education and proper housing arrangements will remove these disabilities.

24. (i) In about half the number of mills medical aid is provided. All the mills should be made to arrange for giving proper outdoor medical relief to the workpeople by law.

(ii) Nil. Except the civil hospital, which is closed on Sundays and on other holidays and open only during work hours, and therefore absolutely useless to the labourers.

(iii) Municipal dispensaries are not open after six in the evenings, and therefore practically not available to the workpeople.

(iv) Practically nil. There are dais in the municipal employ, but that scheme is not effective and extensive.

31. (i) There are no schemes except in Jubilee Mills, Calico Mills, and Advance Mills where they are satisfactory.

(iii) The Government of Bombay has recently enacted a Maternity Benefit Act, but we understand it has not yet come into operation. We strongly feel that the extent of the benefit should be given for at least six weeks before and after delivery.

34. (i) The provision of creches for babies of the workers should be made compulsory in factories employing women. Only a few out of 64 mills in Ahmedabad have at present made any satisfactory arrangements in this respect.

40. (i) and (iii) The Textile Labour Association is providing education for 15,000 children of workers and adults, the latter by night schools, spending altogether about Rs. 40,000 per year.

40. (i) and (iii) *Education.*—The working-class women, even the younger ones, are almost all illiterate. It is unfortunate that in India alone, of all civilized countries, the State has not yet realized its duty to provide free and compulsory primary education to the children of the land. The importing of elementary education is the only foundation on which can be raised the superstructure of the healthy and

efficient labouring population, fully cognisant of its rights and duties. The municipality, we understand, had drawn up a scheme for free and compulsory elementary education, but has not been able to bring it into operation because the necessary help by way of funds has not been forthcoming from the Government.

57. (i) There is a decided improvement in health since the 60 hours' restriction. The 48-hour week is a fact all over the world, and it should be introduced in India immediately.

96. Wages are inadequate with the present standard of wages; the workmen cannot afford sufficient nourishment, decent housing, no provision for sickness, old age and unemployment.

115. (ix) *Liquor Shops*.—A large part of the inadequate wages earned by the labourers goes, at present, to the liquor shops. We feel strongly that the conditions of the working population cannot materially improve unless these temptations are removed out of their reach. While the expenditure on drink combined with inadequate wages and the absence of any sickness insurance scheme keeps the labourer in a perpetual state of indebtedness, the results of the drinking habit on the health and the morals of the working population are terrible. A revision in the policy of the Government in respect of excise is immediately called for.

N.B.—*Age Limit for Children*.—The children are half-timers. It would be desirable to raise the present age limit of 12 to 15, so as to allow sufficient time for the completion of their education.

#### CERTAIN MUHAMMADEN WEAVERS IN AHMEDABAD.

1. In some of the mills in Ahmedabad jobbers and head jobbers take bribes from the workers when they employ them in the mills. This practice should be put an end to.

2. Government should establish employment exchanges. It will help the unemployed workers to secure work wherever it can be had.

3. Weavers are not generally promoted to the higher grades of weaving masters in all the mills. Increase in pay depends on the will of the jobbers and head jobbers, who will not concede it unless men resort to flattery. Jobbers generally take a binding from the men when they are employed that they would be content to serve on the same pay for a certain period of years, and only after they have received some money from the men that they would give them promotion. An inquiry should be made in this unsatisfactory state of affairs.

4. When we refer our complaints to the jobbers and head jobbers they are redressed only where there are some sympathetic jobbers and head jobbers. But in many cases our complaints are not only not listened to, but we are threatened with discharge for bringing complaints. In some cases men have been discharged for this.

5. We have to pay heavy rents for our houses. We have to pay sometimes Rs. 5 for a room which can with great difficulty accommodate one man. We have again to stay far away from the place of our work. We think, therefore, that houses should be built for us near our place of work. It would be better if the Municipality provides better housing for us; for in that case we shall have no difficulty in transferring ourselves for work from one mill to another when we need it.

6. It is impossible to describe the hardship involved in working in some mills where no fans have been provided. It is impossible to work continuously there, as the air gets stuffy. In the mills where fans have been provided working conditions are better. But it will be found that where fans have been provided lower wages are being paid than where there are no fans installed. We think that installation of fans is a great necessity for good work and should be provided in all the mills, but wages should not be cut down on that account as is being done in some mills.

7. Dispensaries should be provided in all the mills, and they should be kept open all the day and not only for a short time, as is done in some of the mills.

8. In times of sickness, as the municipal dispensaries are situated at a great distance from our places, we have to spend a good deal for medical treatment. Municipal dispensaries should be opened in the mill area to enable us to take advantage of them in time of need.

9. We get no remuneration during the time we are sick and not at work on account of it. We should get some pay during that time, as we have to spend for medical aid.



10. There are two schools conducted by the Municipality in the mill area—one day school and one night school. There is a want of two or three more schools in that area, and we would suggest that provision should be made also for teaching of English in some of them.

11. We have been working ten hours a day. It would be better if the working hours are reduced.

12. The present rate of wages is insufficient and inadequate, and we are unable to make both ends meet. We think that the wages should be increased. In some mills, when the millowners want to reduce the rate of wages, they recruit new jobbers on the undertaking that they would get men to work in the mills at the new reduced rate. When they get these new jobbers they dismiss the old hands and the old jobbers even without any excuse if they do not readily agree to work on the reduced scale. This involves great hardship and inquiry should be made in this matter.

13. Deduction of one anna per head per day is made from our wages, and further deductions are made for any damage to the cloth. The damaged cloth is given to us and money deducted from our wages. We have then to sell the cloth at a much reduced price and we thus suffer a loss. Damaged cloth is made over to us even though the fault may lie with the machine alone; we have thus to suffer for no fault of ours.

14. In many mills, in order to harrass us, leave is not granted when we want it. If the owners do not want our services they discharge us without notice, but six days' notice is demanded of us when we want to leave the work. We think the owners also should give us six days' notice in case they want to discharge us, or they should pay us six days' wages in lieu of the notice for discharge.

15. After we become unfit for work after a long period of work in the mills some provision should be made for giving us some pension, as we are then unable to do work and earn our living.

16. There is frequent unemployment in Ahmedabad and we have to sit idle for no fault of ours. It would be better if we receive some unemployment benefit during that time.

17. Whenever we are late in coming to the mills, even by five minutes, we are asked to go back to our homes or else we would be regarded as absentees. But if there is any damage in the machinery, or if the machinery does not work properly and takes time to be set up properly, we have to suffer for no fault of ours, as our production suffers to that extent.

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## SETH AMBALAL SARABHAI, THE AHMEDABAD MANUFACTURING AND CALICO PRINTING CO., LTD.\*

### I.—Recruitment.

1. From enquiries, it appears that approximately 15 per cent. of the workers are permanent residents of Ahmedabad (see Appendix VII). The rest come from the rural classes of the adjoining districts of Gujarat and Kathiawar. Some of them go to villages for seasonal work. There is, however, a small but fair number from the C.P., the U.P. and the South of India.

2. (i) Please see Appendix VIII.

(ii) The extent of permanent labour force is, as given above, about 15 per cent.

3. (i) Daily vacancies are filled from amongst the machine workers who come every morning for work. Appointments are nominally made by the departmental heads or by the assistants, but in actual practice, very largely from amongst the men brought by the jobbers. Efforts are being made to give due consideration to the qualifications of the persons in the way of previous experience, but so far with no or little success. The persons so appointed are called *Badis* or *substitutes*. They may be made permanent, if their work is satisfactory, when vacancies occur or when new posts are created.

(ii) For a beginning, in one of the mills under my management, the duties of making appointments and investigating causes of dismissal are entrusted to an employment officer, whose main duty is to interview men waiting for work and allocate them to

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\* Mr. Ambalal Sarabhai in a covering letter informed the Commission that this statement contains his personal views which should not be considered as those of the companies under his management.

the various departments according to requirements. The selection has to be made quick enough to enable new men to begin work soon after the starting time. This point is of special importance, as, under the present system, the practice of direct appointments in each department separately, minimizes loss of time. The system deserves and is being given a trial. Its success will depend largely on the calibre of the employment officer and the support he gets from the management. The employment department has not yet been able to show any good result, the reason being the disfavour with which it is viewed by the heads of the departments, who do not like any curtailment in their authority in this respect, even though when they possessed it they did not use it judiciously and with care.

(iii) (a) The work of collecting and disseminating information regarding requirements of labour in different mills can best be done by a public employment agency, situated centrally, and having branches in the different areas of the city. In the matter of casual or day-to-day appointments, e.g., *Badlis*, the agency will not be in a position to render valuable service unless it can be kept in touch from day to day with the requirements of the mills in advance. This the mills will not be in a position to do, as they themselves are unable to forecast the number of absentees, for even in cases where leave is granted, it is very rarely asked for in advance. It will be at the best a guess work. Moreover, in the mills in which working conditions and wages are good, there are a number of men every morning at the starting time who apply to be taken as substitutes. In this particular respect the advantage to a worker is of small value as it does not do away with the necessity of walking from mill to mill for employment. The case is different when permanent vacancies are to be filled either owing to the installation of new machinery or dismissal of workers.

(b) An employment agency may be either (1) a Government agency managed by Government with the co-operation of the employers and the labour union, or (2) a private agency worked by the employers acting through their association or jointly with the labour union, or (3) by the labour union. The first alternative is both desirable and necessary only when the problem of unemployment becomes so acute that Government assistance can rightly be demanded in the economic interests of the nation in general and the workers in particular. It is not, however, called for under the present conditions in Ahmedabad. Nor can the millowners in Ahmedabad be asked to start such an agency as the needs of labour are well served under the existing methods. The party that is most concerned and will stand to gain from such arrangement is the workers, and it is, therefore, the function of the labour union to start such an agency. For the efficient working of the scheme it will be necessary to collect men in central places, whence they can be despatched to the different mills according to their requirements.

4. Results of enquiries among the workers regarding age, sex, marriages, and the number of members in each family, are given in Appendices I, II, III and V.

7. (iv) The introduction of unemployment insurance is unnecessary and uncalled for. Industrial labour forms only a small percentage of the total labour in the country. Before introducing a scheme for the benefit of the industrial workers, Government should do everything in their power to diminish unemployment in other ways. This could be done by passing agricultural legislation, preventing fragmentation of land and uneconomic holdings. It would be a better policy to send labourers in towns looking for industrial work to villages, where the land can be utilized in a much better way than is being done at present. Cottage industries should also be started and encouraged. A good deal of labour can be absorbed in making roads, improving transport facilities, and in starting more irrigation works.

8. (i) Please refer to Appendix IV.

## II.—Staff Organization.

10. The details of administrative and departmental organization for the mills under my management are as follows :—

The board of directors decide the policy in all important matters. The actual management of mills is left to the managing agents, whose duties are defined in the Articles of Association. Under the managing agents there is a general assistant, who supervises and co-ordinates the working of all the mills (separate companies but under the same management), subject to the control of the managing agents. In addition to this, each mill has got a manager who works under the general assistant, and is responsible for the good working of the mill under him. Next comes the assistant manager. Under him are the heads of the technical and administrative departments, who have got assistants under them to whom some of their powers are, in turn, delegated. In mills which are not big, assistant managers are not kept.

11. Managing staff is selected from men of university education, who, after the necessary training, are confirmed as assistant managers and managers.

12. Superior supervising staff consists of departmental heads, assistants and sub-assistants. Subordinate staff consists of jobbers.

(i) *Assistants*.—Formerly, the assistants were recruited from amongst persons who had served in similar capacities in other mills or who after receiving necessary training in the same mills were appointed as assistants. Such men mostly came from the middle class, as they did not do well in schools and had no other openings. Very few of the persons so appointed could be said to possess a sufficient sense of responsibility and any education at all—either university or secondary—except practical knowledge in their technical lines. There was no theoretical background to their practical knowledge, while the type of men whom the work attracted had neither the desire nor the equipment for gaining fresh knowledge and information about their subjects and for keeping themselves informed about the progress of the industry. The reason for this is not far to seek. The conditions of employment, work, and prospects, were not such as to appeal to an educated man; also the education received by them did not encourage them to seek anything except professional and desk work.

Having been dissatisfied with the calibre of the assistants, a few graduates were taken as apprentices in 1919. A regular scheme was introduced in 1921, and at present, in the mills under my management, there are 12 graduates in the technical departments and 10 in the commercial departments.

According to the scheme, applications are invited from honours graduates, and selected candidates are appointed as apprentices in the technical departments on an initial salary of Rs. 60 p.m., rising to Rs. 150, after a period of apprenticeship of five or seven years. During the period of apprenticeship, the apprentices have to work on machines to gain practical experience, and are required to read books, periodicals, and other literature to understand the theoretical side of their work and keep themselves in touch with the latest methods. After gaining sufficient experience and as vacancies occur, they are confirmed as assistants in their respective departments and they take full charge of the departmental working during the absence of the heads. This system has now been tried for about eight years and it has very largely fulfilled the expectations. Thus a new type of assistants is being created—men who have greater sense of duty, a wider view of the industry, and above all, a desire to learn and to progress.

(ii) *Jobbers*.—Persons appointed as jobbers are promoted from the ranks in the same department. No special training is given to fit the worker to be a jobber. He learns by experience. No attempt is made to train the worker to be an assistant, as the calibre of a man required for an assistant's post is much higher and different from that of the worker, due to lack of sense of responsibility and literacy amongst the machine workers. He becomes a jobber if he has friends and relatives in important positions in the mills and is also a favourite of the head of the department; the chances of his becoming a jobber entirely on his own merit are very few.

13. (i) The relations are usually cordial, except with the Pratinidhis (shop stewards) between whom and the supervising staff there are occasional estrangements which, however, do not last long.

(ii) The policy of recruiting labour through jobbers is attacked on various grounds. e.g., it makes it difficult for the ordinary worker to obtain work on the strength of qualification alone; he must know the jobber or purchase his acquaintance and goodwill directly or through intermediaries; once employed, he must continue to retain the goodwill by payments in money or kind in addition to standing whatever bad treatment he might receive from the jobber. Most of these are not necessarily the accompaniment of this system of recruitment; they are common wherever men who abuse their powers find others who will stand the abuse.

It is useless to expect a change in the present relations between the jobbers and the workers, and to abolish amongst others the evil of corruption unless the former are recruited from a different class of men altogether. The present class is uneducated, corrupt and tyrannical. The employers have very often to put up with such jobbers, due to the difficulty in doing without them and getting better men to replace them. It is a heritage from the past. Attempts must be made to recruit them from higher social strata—young men with school or college education, of better moral and mental calibre. It would be difficult to get such men in the beginning—the nature of the work would appeal only to a few. But as the prejudice dies away it should not be impossible to enlist the services of such men which will ultimately contribute a great deal towards soothing the labour troubles.

The duties of a jobber are (1) to get full complement of men, (2) to supervise their work, and (3) to attend to minor repairs and alterations in the machines. With regard to the first, there is no need now for a jobber, as there is surplus labour,

the various departments according to requirements. The selection has to be made quick enough to enable new men to begin work soon after the starting time. This point is of special importance, as, under the present system, the practice of direct appointments in each department separately, minimizes loss of time. The system deserves and is being given a trial. Its success will depend largely on the calibre of the employment officer and the support he gets from the management. The employment department has not yet been able to show any good result, the reason being the disfavour with which it is viewed by the heads of the departments, who do not like any curtailment in their authority in this respect, even though when they possessed it they did not use it judiciously and with care.

(iii) (a) The work of collecting and disseminating information regarding requirements of labour in different mills can best be done by a public employment agency, situated centrally, and having branches in the different areas of the city. In the matter of casual or day-to-day appointments, e.g., *Badlis*, the agency will not be in a position to render valuable service unless it can be kept in touch from day to day with the requirements of the mills in advance. This the mills will not be in a position to do, as they themselves are unable to forecast the number of absentees, for even in cases where leave is granted, it is very rarely asked for in advance. It will be at the best a guess work. Moreover, in the mills in which working conditions and wages are good, there are a number of men every morning at the starting time who apply to be taken as substitutes. In this particular respect the advantage to a worker is of small value as it does not do away with the necessity of walking from mill to mill for employment. The case is different when permanent vacancies are to be filled either owing to the installation of new machinery or dismissal of workers.

(b) An employment agency may be either (1) a Government agency managed by Government with the co-operation of the employers and the labour union, or (2) a private agency worked by the employers acting through their association or jointly with the labour union, or (3) by the labour union. The first alternative is both desirable and necessary only when the problem of unemployment becomes so acute that Government assistance can rightly be demanded in the economic interests of the nation in general and the workers in particular. It is not, however, called for under the present conditions in Ahmedabad. Nor can the millowners in Ahmedabad be asked to start such an agency as the needs of labour are well served under the existing methods. The party that is most concerned and will stand to gain from such arrangement is the workers, and it is, therefore, <sup>simultaneously</sup> marked on the board which start such an agency. For the <sup>simultaneously</sup> machine. It enables the supervising staff to check the according to their <sup>near the machine</sup> and the employee to see that he has been <sup>marked properly</sup>.

For the calculation of wages, the following systems are adopted.

In case of time workers, the timekeeper sends the attendance musters to the pay department which calculates the wages according to the fixed scales. In the frame department where payment is by piece-work, the timekeeper's clerks also mark the production per man according to the hank indicators and send the registers to the pay department as above.

In the weaving department, the production for each weaver is marked by the departmental clerks. The clerks of the pay department copy the same every day in their books. The two are checked daily with the production of the department in which the cloth is folded. The registers kept by the weaving clerks are sent to the pay department at the end of each hapta for the calculation of wages.

In the winding, reeling, and warping departments, figures of production are marked by departmental clerks and are sent to the pay department which calculates the wages.

(ii) The pay rolls are prepared by the pay clerks, the amounts being worked out as per rates fixed for piecework or time scale as the case may be.

Deductions and additions for fines, bonus, etc., are duly made. Each worker is given a slip on his pay-day showing his name, department, and the amount due to him. The worker exchanges the slip for his pay from the pay clerk after getting it initialled by the departmental head or his assistant. This is done so as to allow him time to make complaints if his wages are not properly made up.

15. (i) The following work is done by contract :—(1) Weighing the incoming cotton bales, taking them to the godowns and from the godowns to the mixing rooms, and stacking the mixing. (2) Carrying the beams from the warping to the sizing machines and from there to the loom sheds. (3) Bundling the reeled hanks and pressing of yarn bales. (4) Pressing the bales of cloth. (5) Delivery of the local bales and despatching bales to railway stations. (6) Bleaching such cloth as is not calendered or machine bleached. (7) Whitewashing and turning tiles. (8) Cleaning the boilers.

11. Managing staff is selected from men of university education, who, after the necessary training, are confirmed as assistant managers and managers.

12. Superior supervising staff consists of departmental heads, assistants and sub-assistants. Subordinate staff consists of jobbers.

(i) *Assistants*.—Formerly, the assistants were recruited from amongst persons who had served in similar capacities in other mills or who after receiving necessary training in the same mills were appointed as assistants. Such men mostly came from the middle class, as they did not do well in schools and had no other openings. Very few of the persons so appointed could be said to possess a sufficient sense of responsibility and any education at all—either university or secondary—except practical knowledge in their technical lines. There was no theoretical background to their practical knowledge, while the type of men whom the work attracted had neither the desire nor the equipment for gaining fresh knowledge and information about their subjects and for keeping themselves informed about the progress of the industry. The reason for this is not far to seek. The conditions of employment, work, and prospects, were not such as to appeal to an educated man; also the education received by them did not encourage them to seek anything except professional and desk work.

Having been dissatisfied with the calibre of the assistants, a few graduates were taken as apprentices in 1919. A regular scheme was introduced in 1921, and at present, in the mills under my management, there are 12 graduates in the technical departments and 10 in the commercial departments.

According to the scheme, applications are invited from honours graduates, and selected candidates are appointed as apprentices in the technical departments on an initial salary of Rs. 60 p.m., rising to Rs. 150, after a period of apprenticeship of five or seven years. During the period of apprenticeship, the apprentices have to work on machines to gain practical experience, and are required to read books, periodicals, and other literature to understand the theoretical side of their work and keep themselves in touch with the latest methods. After gaining sufficient experience and as vacancies occur, they are confirmed as assistants in their respective departments and they take full charge of the departmental working during the absence of the heads. This system has now been tried for about eight years and it has very largely fulfilled the expectations. Thus a new type of assistants is being created—men who have greater sense of duty, a wider view of the industry, and above all, a desire to learn and to progress.

are made for ~~collaboration~~ ~~with~~ ~~the~~ ~~workers~~ ~~and~~ ~~to~~ ~~promote~~ ~~them~~ ~~from~~ ~~the~~ ~~ranks~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~month~~ ~~per~~ ~~tenement~~.

Private persons have also built some tenements ~~near~~ ~~to~~ ~~be~~ ~~an~~ ~~assistant~~, ~~as~~ ~~accommodation~~ ~~is~~ ~~only~~ ~~a~~ ~~small~~ ~~fraction~~ ~~of~~ ~~what~~ ~~is~~ ~~in~~ ~~demand~~. ~~at~~ ~~the~~ ~~mill~~ ~~at~~ ~~Saranagar~~ ~~were~~ ~~built~~ ~~with~~ ~~a~~ ~~view~~ ~~to~~ ~~provide~~ ~~housing~~ ~~for~~ ~~our~~ ~~workers~~ ~~on~~ ~~sanitary~~ ~~lines~~. Every attempt is being made to make it a small compact colony and to develop social life. Open spaces are kept, gardens are being made, and it is our intention to provide further amenities of life. Cases of eviction are very rare, they occur only when the tenant becomes a source of nuisance to other tenants or refuses to pay the rent for several months.

Lands for housing purposes are available under the Municipal Town Planning Scheme and also under the Land Acquisition Act for co-operative housing societies.

Results of the inquiry into the rents paid by the workers in the Jubilee Mills have been given in Appendix VI.

22. Industrial housing conditions in Ahmedabad are far from satisfactory. The houses are badly built, in insanitary surroundings, ill-ventilated, unclean, and above all, overcrowded. The resulting evils are constant illness, physical and moral deterioration, high child mortality, and high death rate. The problem of housing, closely bound as it is with the health and productive capacity of the worker, is of no less importance to the employer than to the employee. No real solution of the problem on an adequate scale has yet been attempted.

The building byelaws are defective and are not properly enforced. This is due among other reasons, to the landed interest being strongly represented in the past, and at present, on the municipal board. There are many chawls without proper arrangements for water and sanitation. Roofs are low and of iron sheets. A good many houses are surrounded by pools of water.

The work which the mills can do in this regard is of a limited character. It involves a large capital outlay, supervision of buildings and repairs, recovery of rent, work for which they are not well equipped, and which is outside their normal sphere of activities. Even while acting with the best of intentions their action is often misunderstood. Genuine attempts to relieve housing congestion and provide better housing facilities are almost without exception, interpreted in the labour circles as additional weapons to strengthen the employers' grip on the workers.

particularly in the mills in which working conditions and earnings are good. In regard to Nos. 2 and 3, the duties can be better discharged by a fitter than by a jobber. An attempt was made in one of my mills to do without jobbers, but the system was too novel and due to want of support on the part of the manager and the departmental heads and I had to give it up. Due to disinclination of the supervising staff, the present mood of labour and the objections that are urged by the labour union, it is not probably the right time to introduce such an innovation.

(iii) and (iv) Works committees, works councils, and industrial councils have not yet been tried in any of the mills under my management. The reasons for this are to be found in the present labour situation in this country. A recent scheme for these was not viewed with favour by the labour union and had to be abandoned.

There can be no objection on principle to the formation of the workers' committees. Joint meetings of the employers and the employees for the purpose of free discussion of the conditions of work, of grievances and other matters of mutual interests will not only conduce to goodwill and harmony, but will increase efficiency and the earnings of the employees. But if this result is to be brought about, it is essential that the discussion be conducted in a spirit of sympathy, goodwill and understanding. There is suspicion and distrust on both sides. And as a result of this feeling undue importance is being given to the well-being of the industry on one part and of the workers on the other.

This is inevitable in the present state of transition. It should be taken as a temporary reaction against the old order of things, when due to the absence of any combination amongst the workers, the employers, perhaps unintentionally, did not give labour its due in wages, conditions of work and in treatment.

#### 14. (i) The ticket system was introduced but did not work.

The attendance of all workers paid on the time scale, including those in the frame department, is marked twice a day, i.e., before and after the mid-day interval, by the clerks in the timekeeper's office. This is done not at the gates but in their respective departments. If a worker is absent in the morning a substitute is appointed in his place for the whole day. A worker who leaves with permission after the mid-day interval is marked as present for half the day; if he absents himself without permission, he is marked absent for the whole day. In the department in which payment is made at the piece rate, the attendance is marked by the departmental clerk. In the frame department it is marked by the timekeeper's clerk. In addition to this, every machine has a wooden board with a form of attendance pasted on it. The clerk who marks the presence in his book simultaneously marks it on the board which is kept hanging on the machine. It enables the supervising staff to check the presence of the worker near the machine and the employee to see that he has been marked properly.

For the calculation of wages, the following systems are adopted.

In case of time workers, the timekeeper sends the attendance musters to the pay department which calculates the wages according to the fixed scales. In the frame department where payment is by piece-work, the timekeeper's clerks also mark the production per man according to the hank indicators and send the registers to the pay department as above.

In the weaving department, the production for each weaver is marked by the departmental clerks. The clerks of the pay department copy the same every day in their books. The two are checked daily with the production of the department in which the cloth is folded. The registers kept by the weaving clerks are sent to the pay department at the end of each hapta for the calculation of wages.

In the winding, reeling, and warping departments, figures of production are marked by departmental clerks and are sent to the pay department which calculates the wages.

(ii) The pay rolls are prepared by the pay clerks, the amounts being worked out as per rates fixed for piecework or time scale as the case may be.

Deductions and additions for fines, bonus, etc., are duly made. Each worker is given a slip on his pay-day showing his name, department, and the amount due to him. The worker exchanges the slip for his pay from the pay clerk after getting it initialled by the departmental head or his assistant. This is done so as to allow him time to make complaints if his wages are not properly made up.

15. (i) The following work is done by contract:—(1) Weighing the incoming cotton bales, taking them to the godowns and from the godowns to the mixing rooms, and stacking the mixing. (2) Carrying the beams from the warping to the sizing machines and from there to the loom sheds. (3) Bundling the reeled hanks and pressing of yarn bales. (4) Pressing the bales of cloth. (5) Delivery of the local bales and despatching bales to railway stations. (6) Bleaching such cloth as is not calendered or machine bleached. (7) Whitewashing and turning tiles. (8) Cleaning the boilers.

(ii) There does not appear to be any sub-contracting.

(iii) No special control is exercised over the working conditions. As long as the work is satisfactory, no stipulations as regards the number of men to be employed, time of attendance, etc., are made.

(iv) The working of the contract system has been on the whole satisfactory. It has relieved the mills from the trouble and expense of maintaining a large staff in such of the processes where the amount of work varies from time to time necessitating constant engagements and dismissals of workers, e.g., when the cotton bales arriving from outside are to be weighed or when the bales are to be pressed during the slack and the busy seasons. The contractors are in a better position to regulate the number of men according to the seasonal or daily requirements.

The workers themselves have the advantages of continuous employment. They also get the benefit of the compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act, for which the premium is paid by the company.

### III.—Housing.

16 to 21. The Calico mills have built houses on two different sites for their workers.

(1) Chamanpura.—This is just near the mills. These are chawls of single tenements with verandahs in the front. The total number of rooms is 131. These were built years ago and are not satisfactory.

(2) Saranagar.—This is situated at about half a mile from the mills. Each tenement consists of a room, a kitchen, a bathroom, and a common verandah. Such tenements are 48. This settlement is not popular, due to its distance from the town.

There is a great deal of overcrowding in these tenements. A worker in addition to his own family, will take in to live with him his relations and their families, not working necessarily in the Calico Mills. Six or seven persons including children in one room is a matter of common occurrence. There is always a great demand for accommodation in Chamanpura owing to the proximity of the houses to the mills and to the city. Rooms in Chamanpura are not rented to non-workers in the Calico Mills. In Saranagar, it is done on rare occasions. Sub-letting is done to a small extent, but the mills discourage it and at present it is much reduced. Arrangements are made for conservancy, water, compound lighting, etc. The rent is Rs. 3 per month per tenement.

Private persons have also built some tenements near the mills but the total accommodation is only a small fraction of what is in demand. The blocks in Saranagar were built with a view to provide housing for our workers on sanitary lines. Every attempt is being made to make it a small compact colony and to develop social life. Open spaces are kept, gardens are being made, and it is our intention to provide further amenities of life. Cases of eviction are very rare, they occur only when the tenant becomes a source of nuisance to other tenants or refuses to pay the rent for several months.

Lands for housing purposes are available under the Municipal Town Planning Scheme and also under the Land Acquisition Act for co-operative housing societies.

Results of the inquiry into the rents paid by the workers in the Jubilee Mills have been given in Appendix VI.

22. Industrial housing conditions in Ahmedabad are far from satisfactory. The houses are badly built, in insanitary surroundings, ill-ventilated, unclean, and above all, overcrowded. The resulting evils are constant illness, physical and moral deterioration, high child mortality, and high death rate. The problem of housing, closely bound as it is with the health and productive capacity of the worker, is of no less importance to the employer than to the employee. No real solution of the problem on an adequate scale has yet been attempted.

The building byelaws are defective and are not properly enforced. This is due among other reasons, to the landed interest being strongly represented in the past, and at present, on the municipal board. There are many chawls without proper arrangements for water and sanitation. Roofs are low and of iron sheets. A good many houses are surrounded by pools of water.

The work which the mills can do in this regard is of a limited character. It involves a large capital outlay, supervision of buildings and repairs, recovery of rent, work for which they are not well equipped, and which is outside their normal sphere of activities. Even while acting with the best of intentions their action is often misunderstood. Genuine attempts to relieve housing congestion and provide better housing facilities are almost without exception, interpreted in the labour circles as additional weapons to strengthen the employers' grip on the workers.

The position of the owners during strikes and lockouts will be particularly difficult. Eviction will become both impracticable and inadvisable, rents will remain in arrears, and cases of default will be not a few. The provision of housing is hardly a business proposition for the mills, with private owners it is a different thing.

The best way out of the difficulty is for the workers to build and own their houses by starting co-operative housing societies and for local bodies to build houses and to give grants-in-aid. According to the scheme, Government advances as loan the major portion of the cost; the remainder is to be paid in small instalments by the prospective owners of the houses. The labour union and the municipality can render great help by advancing whenever necessary, the workers' share of capital to be recovered in small sums as in the case of Government instalments. The solution of the housing question along this line would, in addition to providing sanitary houses and removing the congestion, encourage thrift and teach self-reliance to the workers. A housing society under the above scheme is being started for the workers of the Calico Mills, the workers' share of cost being advanced by the mills.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (iii) (a) Working conditions in some of the old mills are being improved. Conditions in most of the new mills are as good as in any of the Lancashire mills and in some cases even better.

(iv) Workers can afford to buy better food than what they usually eat, but they do not pay sufficient attention to the quality of their diet. Articles of food are chosen not for their food value, but for reasons of taste. This is not naturally conducive to good health.

(v) Physique is very poor. This is mainly due to want of education, religious and social superstitions and customs, and unhealthy surroundings.

24. (i) The Calico mills provide the following medical facilities: a dispensary and a hospital, under the management of a qualified medical practitioner assisted by another medical graduate. Both of them are appointed by the mills. The number of out-door patients treated during the last three years are given below:—

				Calico mills.	Jubilee mills.
1926	..	..	..	9,643	5,513
1927	..	..	..	11,388	6,622
1928	..	..	..	11,582	6,716

In the Calico mills and the Jubilee mills hospitals there is accommodation for 18 and 16 indoor patients respectively. Buildings specially built for hospitals will improve conditions. The hospital at the Calico mills will be removed from its temporary quarters to a new building which is under construction. The hospitals are equipped for medical, surgical, and maternity cases. Qualified nurses are employed. No charge is made for treatment either in the dispensary or in the hospital. The doctor visits the patients in their houses whenever necessary. Our efforts to get a lady doctor have not been successful so far.

The number of indoor patients treated during the last three years is as under:—

				Calico mills.	Jubilee mills.
1926	..	..	..	356	No hospital
1927	..	..	..	409	90
1928	..	..	..	432	257

(ii) and (iii) There is a Government civil hospital in the City as well as a few municipal dispensaries. The hours until recently were not convenient for the mill employees. If a private practice is not allowed to the doctors employed in the Government or municipal dispensaries, the patients are likely to derive greater benefit. There are a hospital and a dispensary run by the Labour Union. They are popular and are doing very useful work.

25. (i) The medical facilities provided by the mills are fully appreciated and utilized, as will be seen from the number of out-door patients and the demand for accommodation in the hospital.

(ii) In the beginning there was some prejudice against the use of the hospital by women, specially in maternity cases, but it has now completely disappeared and most of the deliveries in the workers' families take place in the hospital.

26. (a) (i) Latrines with the flush system are built in different parts of the mill premises, separately for women and men, the total number being 72 in the Calico mills and 48 in the Jubilee mills.



(ii) Drinking water is kept in several places either in covered tanks or in large earthen jars. A special attendant is appointed in each place to keep sufficient stock of water, to maintain cleanliness, and to dole it out if necessary. It is intended to place a refrigerator in the dining room of the Calico mills in order to ensure a supply of cold water to the workers.

(iii) Bathing and washing :—There is no drainage in the locality and hence the scheme has been held up.

A special inspector has been appointed by the mills to supervise the sanitary arrangements and to maintain cleanliness.

27. (iii) The certifying surgeon and the factory inspector visit the mills from time to time. They exercise proper supervision.

28. (ii) An effort is being made to control temperature according to Government regulations. Existing conditions are a great improvement on the past.

29. Diseases of the respiratory tracts are more prevalent among the workers in the spinning department. Skin diseases are more common among the workers in cotton mills.

31. Realizing the importance of compulsory rest before and after the delivery to the mother and the child, and with a view to provide proper medical attendance, diet, and sanitary surroundings at the time of delivery, a scheme was introduced in the mills under my management in 1920. Maternity benefit is given only to such of the workers who came for delivery in the mills hospital. It was found necessary to lay down this restriction in the interest of the female employees. The conditions in the private houses—specially in the workers' dwellings—are admittedly bad and hence in the sheer interest of the mother and the child delivery in the hospital was made a necessary condition for getting the benefit. As the benefits of the medical facilities are being increasingly appreciated, most of the deliveries take place in the mills hospital.

Every woman is paid Rs. 15 on her leaving the hospital after delivery to go home, and an equal amount on her resuming work in the mills. The total amount received by her is a little short of the wages she would have earned if she had been working the whole time. The number of cases in 1928 was 46 in the Calico mills and 31 in the Jubilee mills.

#### V.—Welfare.

32 and 33. For several years past the Calico mills have a welfare department to direct and co-ordinate the various welfare activities in the mills. It is under a medical officer assisted by a staff.

34. In addition to housing and medical facilities the following are amongst the welfare activities :—(a) Creche :—The creches are under the supervision of nurses assisted by ayahs. The staff is both experienced and trained for their work. Special sheds are set apart for this purpose. The creche in the Calico mills contains 72 cradles and that in the Jubilee 57 cradles and both are fitted with electric fans. Each child is washed and put into clean clothes every morning and free milk and food are also provided whenever necessary. The mothers are allowed to visit the creche during the working hours to nurse the babies. (b) There are three refreshment rooms in the Calico mills which are in the process of being moved to a large, commodious, ventilated, and furnished refreshment and dining hall. There are refreshment sheds in the Jubilee mills but they are not satisfactory. (c) Library :—There are a reading room and a library in the Calico mills. The daily average attendance is very poor. (d) Loans :—A special fund has been created to enable the workers to obtain loans for short periods. The rate of interest is lower than what the workers have to pay to the money-lenders, but has been intentionally kept high enough to prevent frequent applications for loans. In 1927, a sum of Rs. 38,605 was given as loans to such of the workers who wanted to rebuild their houses fallen during the floods. The loans were given at the rate of 6½ per cent. and are being recovered by small instalments. (e) Cricket and tennis :—Clubs for playing cricket and tennis have been started recently in the Calico mills. These have proved a success. (f) Widows and orphans of ex-workers who are destitute receive financial assistance from the mills.

35. The Calico mills had opened a school formerly for imparting free education to the children of the workers and to the half-timers. It was closed for want of building accommodation. There is a municipal school nearby. At present the workers' children, i.e., such of those as are allowed by the parents to go to schools, are sent to the municipal school near the mills with a man who has been specially appointed for the purpose.

The children are taught scouting for which a teacher has been appointed.

For secondary and college education, fees and free books are given to the children of the employees.

The number of workers' children taking advantage of this facility is negligible—six in the Calico mills and nine in the Jubilee mills.

The Jubilee mills have a Montessori school for workers' children between the ages of three and five. The school is in charge of a male teacher assisted by a school mistress. Free food and clothing are provided for the children whose number at present is about 30. It is under the supervision of the president of the Labour Union.

38. A Co-operative Housing Society for the workers of the Calico mills is being started. The building work will be begun shortly.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. With a view to minimise the number of accidents to the buildings it is desirable that the plans of mills should first be passed by the factory inspector. The municipality should also make proper regulations, which do not exist at present.

44. The number of accidents in the Calico mills during 1928 was 46, of which one was fatal. In the Jubilee mills the number of accidents in the same year was 15.

46. Every care is taken to lessen the number of accidents by giving oral instructions to the workers and by placing printed posters and other notices regarding the proper methods of working on the walls near the machines.

48. First-aid and medical relief to the persons who have accidents are provided in the dispensary and the hospital in the mill premises to which a reference has been made before.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. The Calico and the Jubilee mills have insured against accidents to the workers. All accidents are reported to the insurance company and due care is taken to see that the worker gets the maximum amount of compensation whenever it is due to him under the Act. The provision about insurance does not seem, however, to have been understood by the workers in Behar where most of the workers are still ignorant of their rights under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

The law at present regarding the contractor's liabilities in case of an accident to a man under him is vague. It should be amended so as to fix the responsibility directly on the contractor. Only in cases when he is unable to pay, the mills should be held responsible.

52. Insurance by employers should be made compulsory. The provisions of the Act should be extended to all classes of manual workers—agricultural, domestic, and others.

53. (i) and (ii) The scale of compensation and the methods of payment as they stand at present can be improved upon. The worker's claim for payment should begin from the eighth day of the accident instead of from the eleventh day, but it should begin from the first day if his incapacity exceeds seven days. The minimum amount payable should be Rs. 15 p. m. and the maximum Rs. 75 p. m. In case of death, the whole amount should not be paid in one lump sum to the heir as it is likely to be mis-spent. The present system does not ensure real protection and help to the dependants of the deceased. The amount due should be paid in 60 equal monthly instalments and a legal provision preventing the creditors from having any lien on that amount should be introduced. In addition to this, every child under 15 should get Rs. 60 per year until it reaches the age of 15 except in case of earlier death. In case of death of a woman, the husband should get only half the amount due, to be paid in 15 equal instalments if he has no living children from the woman.

#### IX.—Hours.

55. Hours of work are governed by the Factory Act. Usual working time is as follows :—7 a.m. to 12 noon ; 1 p.m. to 6 p.m.

There is an interval for rest from 12 noon to 1 p.m. The hours of attendance, rest, and closing are sometimes slightly changed owing to seasonal causes, but the hours of work and rest which are ten hours and one hour respectively, are never changed except to make up for the loss of time resulting from the stoppage of the engine.

In departments like winding, folding, and reeling where the amount of work is of a varying nature and the payment of wages on piecework basis, workers are allowed to go earlier or come late when there is not sufficient work.

56. The mills are working full time.

57. The workers have undoubtedly benefited by the 60 hours a week limit. Their efficiency has increased and the output per hour per man has gone up, but it has not gone high enough to compensate for the loss to the owners due to the lesser

number of hours of work. The output per day per man would have been higher if he were working for 12 hours instead of 10 hours as at present. It is not suggested that the legal provision for the limitation should be repealed, but it is necessary to bear in mind that the output per day per man can be more if he does not absent himself from his machine as much as he does at present. The practical significance of this statement is evident from the effects of competition from countries where there are no similar restrictions or where they are placed only recently.

58. The introduction of the daily limit has undoubtedly benefited the worker as he gets more leisure than before. It is unfortunate, however, that this leisure is not used profitably on account of the bad housing conditions, absence of amenities, and the habit of drinking. This statement should not be considered as an argument against giving them more leisure but is only as a statement of facts.

59. The present condition of the Indian textile industry is such that no reduction in the maximum number of working hours is possible. Any reduction would mean a luxury which the industry cannot afford. Even at present, when the usual working hours are 10 per day, it may be safely estimated that on the average a worker does not put in more than seven to eight hours' work. Unless the workers develop a greater sense of duty, they have neither a right to expect, nor is it possible to grant, them a reduction in the number of working hours. Moreover, one country cannot reduce its hours while another country competing in its home and foreign markets does not do so, unless it has the independence to adjust its tariffs and pay bounties as may be necessary to make up for what may be lost by reduction in the hours of working and by improving generally the conditions of workers.

60. (i) The present interval for rest is from 12 noon to 1 p.m. for the workers on day-shifts. According to the Factory Act, at least an hour's interval has to be given for every six hours' work. The present interval has no connection with the workers' time for meals. They take their food any time after about 9 a.m. and in any place—in many cases near the machines on which they work. The objects, with which the interval is given, viz., to remove fatigue and to enable the workers to take meals, will be better served if it is given twice instead of once a day. But under the existing conditions it is neither desirable nor possible to make the change.

61. The rules regarding holidays require no change.

#### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults, and Children.

82. Infants are not allowed in the factories.

83. In the interest of the welfare of their families and children, it is <sup>after a great</sup> ~~desirable~~ <sup>ly new</sup> that married women should be employed in the spinning and frame departments. If other countries consent to prohibit their working in these departments, a similar restriction should be placed in India.

Assaults on women and children should be made cognizable and punishment should be very stringent as they have to come compulsorily into contact with men of bad character during the course of work.

84. Very few children (half-timers) are employed in mills under my management as we discourage their employment. Those employed at present are for a special reason, i.e., because their relatives who are working in the mills want them to work in the same mills.

86. Under the present conditions, it is not possible to give training or facilities for apprenticeship.

87. "Blind Alley" employment does not exist in cotton mills.

88. Adults under the age of 20 should be prohibited from serving on night-shifts. At present, men working in day-shifts are as a rule unwilling to work in night-shifts and the people recruited for night-shifts are generally those who are inefficient, and cannot get employment in day-shifts. In the interest of health, it is necessary that a mill working both shifts should change the men, i.e., men working on night-shifts should be obliged to work on the day-shifts, say, every fortnight, and vice-versa. To prevent double working, it should be made necessary to start the night-shift half an hour earlier than the closing time of the day-shift in the adjoining mills. No workers should be employed on the night-shifts after the starting time.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. A statement classifying the workers according to their incomes is enclosed. (Please see App. No. IX).

97. The last wage cut was made in 1923.

100. Payment to contractors is based either on the amount of actual work done, e.g., the number of bales pressed, boilers cleaned, or a fixed amount for the work to be done during certain periods as for carrying the beams or stitching the belts, etc. The total amounts paid in 1928 were about Rs. 38,000 in the Calico mills and Rs. 12,000 in the Jubilee mills.

101. It seems that the first mill started in the city must have fixed the spinners' wages a little higher than those prevalent for the unskilled workers in the same area, and the weavers' wages must have been fixed a little higher than what they could earn on handlooms. These must have been adjusted from time to time according to the changes in the supply and demand for labour. During the epidemic in 1918 or 1919 there was a shortage of labour, and as profits were good, special bonus was paid for regular attendance. As the total wages including the bonus had gone up very high, there was a combined action on the part of the employers to reduce them. It was at this time that the workers combined for the first time to oppose the reduction. Since then the employees have to take combined actions in deciding questions regarding the spinners' wages. All questions of wages are now settled by negotiations with the Labour Union. If the Millowners' Association and the Labour Union are unable to come to an agreement there will probably be a strike and the question will be settled by the arbitrators after some time. Since 1920, there has been no change of a general nature. The demand for increase in the spinners' wages has been referred to an Umpire, the arbitrators having failed to reach an agreement.

102. The rate of wages for workers engaged on overtime or holidays is 25 per cent. more than the ordinary rate. The rate for persons engaged on night-shifts is 20 per cent. higher than the rate for the day work.

103. There is no standardization. The Millowners' Association once made an attempt to introduce it, but without success.

104. Most of the mill-labour is really agricultural labour, and hence more or less men are attracted to the factories according as the wages go higher or lower.

105. The principle of minimum wages is applicable only to such industries in which sweating is common and the workers' Unions are either non-existent or else not strong enough to enforce a minimum wage from the employers. It cannot be said of the Indian cotton industry that the wages paid are starvation wages in any sense of the word; on the other hand they are higher than what are paid in other occupations which are open to the type of workers who generally work in the mills. The trade unions are also strong enough to press their claims for higher wages. Under these conditions Government intervention in the matter of wages is thoroughly uncalled for.

At the present rate of earnings, there is no shortage of labour. Until 1913-14 there used to be a shortage due to wages being not higher than the agricultural earnings on the same proportion, as they are now. Given requisite conditions, I am responsible. Savour of fixing a minimum wage but it will not be possible for many

52. ~~mine.~~

Ac<sup>2</sup> 56. (i) Fining is resorted to only in exceptional conditions when repeated warnings have no effect on a worker. Efforts to completely stop fines as a punishment or as a deterrent and to resort to dismissing the workers who persist in disobeying orders or in working badly did not meet with success as the workers as well as the Labour Union prefer fine to discharge as a punishment. Deductions are made from the weavers' wages as compensation for the damages sustained through their carelessness in weaving cloth.

(ii) The only other deduction about 1 per cent. of the wages is the contribution to the Servants' Self-helping Fund which partly pays for the various welfare activities in the mills. The contribution is paid by all including the managing agents.

107. (i) and (ii)

	Periods for which wages are paid. Days.	Periods elapsing before payment Days.
(1) Weavers .. .. .	14	6
(2) Winders and Reelers .. .. .	15	8
(3) Ring Piecers .. .. .	16	10
(4) Men paid on monthly basis .. .. .	1 month	15

(iii) Wages claimed within a period of six months from the date on which they are due are paid out on proper identification. After that no payments are made, except in special cases. Wages which are forfeited are utilized for the benefit of the workers.

109. No scheme for bonus or profit-sharing based on separate profit of each Company will work well in the cotton industry. Moreover, the work of the machine-men or other workers is not the only factor in determining the profits of the year.

110. There are no fixed rules for giving leave to workers, but it is generally given whenever it is asked for, for reasons of health or social purposes, etc.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. The efficiency of the Indian worker has gone up in recent years, though it is not possible to say exactly how much.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. The Millowners' Association and the Labour Union are in a better position to supply this information. Mills under my management are not members of any Association.

118. (ii) The effect of the workers' organizations has been to improve the condition of their work. Owing to the existence of the Union the workers' status has improved. They get better treatment, their complaints are well attended to, and their comforts in the working places have increased.

The Labour Union tries to enforce discipline whenever it can do so and to the fullest extent possible.

122. (i) Relations between the employers and the employees are very cordial. Though the Union as a rule takes pro-labour views, it is generally sympathetic towards the employers and tries to be just. This is largely due to the present leaders of the Union and to Mahatma Ghandhi. The present partial attitude of the Union against the employers will not continue if the two parties come to a settlement on all important questions likely to lead to disputes and if the employers agree not to engage any non-union men. In that case all workers will be union members; the Labour Union will not be afraid of a decrease in membership and will therefore be in a better position to take an impartial view.

In some departments the wages are low, in others very high. It is possible for the workers to do more work without undue fatigue and to earn more. The present wage in some departments is not adequate, but the remedy lies in doing more work and earning more wages. This will not create or increase unemployment for more workers will continue to be absorbed in new mills in night-shifts and in the extensions of mills. Moreover a certain number of workers leaves the mills every year. If the Labour Union and the Millowners' Association come to an understanding whereby the former would not increase its members until the present number is fully employed and the latter binds itself not to employ non-union men, the wages bill will not go up but individual wages will go higher through increased efficiency.

124. (i) The relations with the workers and the Labour Union are good. Points of difference are settled by mutual discussions.

(ii) Conciliation or arbitration through government machinery is not likely to be beneficial.

(iv) The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Labour Union have appointed a Permanent Board of Arbitrators.

Certain conventions have been established in the western countries after a great deal of suffering on both sides. As the Trade Union movement is comparatively new to this country and if these sufferings are to be avoided, similar conventions between capital and labour must be established. It may be in the interest of both to adopt some of them as regulations. The machinery for adjusting differences between the Labour Union and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association has worked well which is due very largely to the goodwill and understanding prevailing between the two. The Labour Union is doing constructive work by running schools, hospitals, etc., and does not, except on rare occasions, tolerate indiscipline. During strikes or lock-outs, the Union did not in the past give strike-pay but provided some work for the men for which small payments were made. This action prevented the members from getting demoralized. One of the reasons why the Union is working so well in Ahmedabad is that the persons directing the Union activities work in honorary capacities and do not gain anything financially from the Union. Moreover, they do not exploit labour for their political and social ambitions or for personal gain.

(v) In the mills under my management, full opportunities are given to workmen for making representations in person or in writing. Complaints received by anonymous letters are also investigated. The complaints however contain so much misrepresentation of facts that in many cases it is difficult to get at the truth.

126. The attitude of Government is one of indifference. They try to intervene at a stage when either it is too late or when it does more harm than good.

Incitement to violence and intimidation should be made cognizable offences.

129. Under the present conditions the Legislature cannot do much.

134. Ratifications of the International Conventions have done good to the workers but not to the industry. This is to be expected when ratification in this country is pushed through as a matter of course without any reference to the actions of other countries.

139. Inspection of Factories is carried out in an efficient manner.

*Conclusion.*—On the one hand we have workers who are inefficient with a low standard of living, illiterate, and unwilling to earn more wages if it means more work. On the other hand, we have employers who do not take sufficient count of the existing conditions and have not begun to benefit by the experience of other countries secured at a great cost. Lastly there is the Government, some of whose acts of commission and omission have ruined the trade, industry, and agriculture of the country.

With such a combination of circumstances, it is difficult to secure the well-being of a very small class—that of the industrial workers—without an all-round improvement in all classes of people in the country.

## APPENDICES.

## THE AHMEDABAD JUBILEE SPINNING &amp; MFG. CO., LTD.

## APPENDICES No. I, II and III (abridged).

*Classification of Workers according to Age and Married Condition.*

Age.	Males.				Females.			
	Married.	Un-married.	Widowers.	Total.	Married.	Un-married.	Widows.	Total.
10 to 20 .. ..	66	65	3	134	42	4	5	51
20 to 30 .. ..	445	128	33	606	84	0	19	103
30 to 40 .. ..	182	29	22	233	26	0	16	42
40 to 50 .. ..	102	4	9	115	25	0	21	46
50 to 60 .. ..	24	0	0	24	3	0	15	18
60 and over .. ..	3	0	2	5	1	0	2	3
	822	226	69	1,117	181	4	78	263

## APPENDIX No. IV.

*Duration of Service.*

Years.	In Jubilee Mills.			In other Mills.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Up to 1 .. ..	162	44	206	44	4	48
1 to 3 .. ..	336	38	374	184	22	206
3 to 5 .. ..	204	50	254	99	14	113
5 to 10 .. ..	296	88	384	133	29	162
10 to 15 .. ..	82	22	104	51	7	58
15 to 20 .. ..	24	12	36	23	5	28
20 and over .. ..	15	7	22	16	3	19
	1,119	261	1,380	550	84	634

## APPENDIX No. V.

Number of persons staying together.	Number of Workers.	Per cent.
Up to 2 .. ..	521	38
3 to 5 .. ..	608	44
6 to 8 .. ..	196	14
9 to 11 .. ..	52	3·8
12 and over .. ..	3	0·2
	<u>1,380</u>	<u>100</u>

## APPENDIX No. VI.

Monthly in Rupees.	Rent.	Number of Workers.	Per cent.
Up to 2 .. ..	.. ..	65	5·5
2 to 4 .. ..	.. ..	250	21·2
4 to 6 .. ..	.. ..	626	53·2
6 to 8 .. ..	.. ..	196	16·6
8 to 10 .. ..	.. ..	27	2·2
10 and over .. ..	.. ..	16	1·3
		<u>1,180</u>	<u>100</u>

## APPENDIX No. VII.

*Classification of Workers according to Residence.*

	Males.	Per cent.	Females.	Per cent.
1. Permanent residents of Ahmedabad.	133	12	83	31.5
2. Outsiders .. ..	984	88	180	68.5
	1,117	100	263	100

## APPENDIX No. VIII.

*Statement showing the Extent to which the Workers go to their Villages.*

In a year.	Months.				
	0- $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ -1	1-2	2-3	3 and over.
Once .. .. .	85	18	8	1	2
Twice .. .. .	22	6	2	1	0
Thrice .. .. .	8	1	1	0	0
Four times .. ..	5	0	0	0	0
Five times .. ..	1	0	0	0	0

All the figures in the above appendices represent the information that has actually been received from the workmen. They have not been verified and hence must not be taken as quite reliable.

## APPENDIX No. IX.

*Monthly Earnings of Workers.*

Earnings in Rupees.	Number of Workers.
Up to 20 .. .. .	332
20-30 .. .. .	765
30-40 .. .. .	262
40-50 .. .. .	42
50-60 .. .. .	555
60-70 .. .. .	334
70-80 .. .. .	36
80-90 .. .. .	10
90-100 .. .. .	14
100-125 .. .. .	7
125-150 .. .. .	35
150-250 .. .. .	2

Workers in the winding and reeling departments have not been included as the amount of daily work is of a varying nature.

## CERTAIN WEAVERS IN AHMEDABAD.

We, the undersigned, weavers working in the local textile mills, many of us for more than 15 years, beg to lay before the Royal Commission some of our grievances and suggestions for consideration.

Firstly we would like to state that our object in tendering this memorandum is to bring to your notice certain hardships and evils that we experience in regard to our work, and to suggest a few remedies. Secondly, most of us are illiterate and therefore

we particularly expect, not only that our full rights should be assured to us, but, sympathetic co-operation afforded us in the matter of our amelioration, both from the mill agents and the Government.

Following are the points regarding our hardships and the suggested remedies :—

(1) On account of lower type of cotton, bad stores, bad yarn, badly sized, old machinery, insufficient air, light, and humidity, bad provision of steam, and humidifiers, etc., in weaving sheds, we naturally produce much damaged cloth, and our production must necessarily be low, which means less pay. We are heavily fined for faults, for which we are not responsible, the above matters not being within our control but in that of the proprietors. Under these circumstances there is little chance to improve our efficiency.

(2) The folding contractor generally finds out the damages for which the company pays him about 50 per cent. out of our fines. On account of this system some of our weavers, to escape the fine, please the folder by paying some hush-money, and thus get the fine reduced. This evil which has arisen out of indiscriminate fining should be radically remedied.

(3) The beam and cloth carriers are paid from the wages of weavers. This is quite improper.

(4) In some mills contributions are raised from the weavers to provide for water and smoking-fire (fire to fill the Hukka-chilam). In such mills arrangements for water and Hukka-fire should be immediately made.

(5) In some places there are no dining-sheds at all.

(6) Doctors should attend the mills for the whole time and their visits to the workers' homes should be free of charge.

(7) The companies should provide tea-shops and canteens without deriving any profit therefrom.

(8) At present the housing for labour is in an extremely bad state. Co-operative housing societies should be started and Government should provide free land and lend money without interest or nominal interest. This is clearly the duty of the Government. The chawls that exist to-day are in an insanitary condition and harmful to health. They are built by men who live on rents. The new co-operative societies' houses should be provided by municipality with water gutters, flush water latrines, and all other special facilities for cleanliness.

(9) The municipality should start night schools for labourers and also should keep the dispensaries open up to late hours at night.

(10) In the labour chawls, generally, the complaints such as thefts, adultery, gambling, abduction, etc., are too well-known, and many of these complaints go to courts. In such cases, many innocent people suffer on account of insufficient facilities for intelligent defence, and for these a permanent legal advisor should be appointed to give free legal facilities to these innocent and ignorant people.

(11) The Government should make proper provisions for old age pensions, sickness, and unemployment insurance. There is a great deal of unemployment as can be seen from the nature of the crowds seeking work at the mill gates.

(12) The mill-owners, the municipality, and the Government should make special efforts for the enlightenment of the workers, by cinema and magic lantern shows, on sanitation and general knowledge.

(13) The Government should legislate that a certain portion of the net profits of a company should be spent after the general welfare, including technical education of the labourers, and for welfare schemes.

(14) The mill-agents should charge their commission on net profit only. The aim of this suggestion is that the mill-agents will use the best raw materials and stores, supply the machinery with good parts and keep the working department in good state, and give every encouragement and facility to increase our efficiency so as to secure the largest output.

(15) Any advances made out of our deposit accounts of pay should not bear any kind of interest. This is money which we have earned.

(16) In the new mills, and even in old ones, the new machinery that is being installed is of very high speed in general. This high speed machinery, accompanied with the suggestions made in article 14, will increase production. But not only men will be thrown out of employment, but the nerves of the workers will not stand the high tension involved in working at top speed. A reduction of hours to 8 must be made compulsory by law, with no resultant decrease in wages in the transition period. Ultimately we believe that a reduction of hours with new machinery will mean more production than at present.



(17) The municipality has failed to make any arrangement for throwing away the dyeing and bleaching waste water from the mill compounds. This is very harmful to the health of the workers working in the mills and living in the chawls. Some special steps should be taken to remove this evil.

(18) Country and foreign liquor shops that are situated practically at all the gates of the city should be permanently closed by legislation and only those people should be supplied liquor who carry medical permission.

(19) Most of the labour in Ahmedabad is permanent.

(20) A great deal of seasonal malaria and hookworm and lung diseases prevail amongst the labouring population.

(21) We attach two family budgets which show that although a single man can live on a weaver's present earnings it is not possible for a man with a family to live in any sort of comfort or for him to be free from debt. There should be a system limiting the profits of the company and releasing the balance both for welfare work as well as for higher wages.

(22) Exhausted physically, living under dreadful insanitary conditions, ill-nourished, it is not possible to expect from us more than we do. Many of us are not capable of minding more than two looms, but some of us who are physically stronger would not mind this provided the spacing and the machinery, and the conditions in the machine rooms are adapted to the new methods, and on the condition that a substantial amount of the savings made are paid to us.

(23) The compensation for accidents now paid to us is not sufficient. The law should be revised in consultation with the unions.

(24) There should be a law for the payment of pensions for widows of workers and for orphans, who to-day can do nothing else but beg or else die of starvation.

(25) We are paid every twelve days, the spinners every fourteen days. Delay in paying us our due wages should be stopped by law.

*Family Budget No. 1 of Purusothamdas Lakhmidas, of Nadiala, weaver in the Ahmedabad Ginning and Manufacturing Mills. Worked for 20 years, age 37 to 38. Wage earned on the average per month, Rs. 42. House rent, pays to landlord per month for a room and a small verandah, Rs. 7. Average cost of food for the month (for two principal meals for the family and himself, including some breakfast for him specially before coming to work), Rs. 30.*

Regarding the other expenses he does not know, as his wife manages the ordinary other household duties.

Wife works for the neighbours and earns a couple of rupees per month, and gets odd pieces of clothes given to her.

A family of four, mother, the worker, his wife and a daughter of 8.

He is in debt of Rs. 50, which he has borrowed, half from certain relatives and half from a jobber, at an interest of 3 pies per rupee per month.

*Budget No. 2.—Meran, weaver, age 40, from Gorakhpur, has been working for 21 years. Wage earned on the average per month, Rs. 40. Pays for his meals in a mess, for two meals a day, Re. 14. House rent, pays for his share in a room where six single workers stay, Rs. 1. Pays for the morning breakfast, a cup of milk and a loaf while coming to work, per month, Rs. 4. On pan beedi, etc., spends per month, Re. 1. Spends on four dhoties, four shirts, one topi, a pair of shoes per year, Rs. 20.*

He is living here single, going home once in two years.

He had borrowed Rs. 250, owing to famine conditions in his country, to send to his family and has paid it back by borrowing Rs. 100 locally, and with the rest of his wage.

## THE INDIAN SEAMEN'S UNION.

*Recruitment—Origin of labour and contact with villages.*—It is a matter of history that the Indian sailors date their origin in the dim past of the middle ages during which there was a brisk trade between the Arabian and the Indian shores. In the 12th century, when the Zamorin had complete sway over the south-eastern shores of India, the enterprising Arabian sailors contributed greatly in making Calicut a great port. It appears that the present Malabari seamen, who form the bulk of the sailors (deck crew), is the direct outcome of the close contact of the Arabic sailors and native coastal population of Malabar, and it is believed that they began to migrate to Bombay ever since it became a port of some importance. Later, seafaring men from Surat, Daman and Diu and the other part of the Bombay Presidency known as

Konkan, gradually migrated to Bombay as it increased in importance as an international port. Subsequently about 85 years ago the Punjabis, the Pathans and the Kutchi took to the seafaring life as the facilities to obtain sea service increased and the rigours of the sailor's life lessened. These men generally are found very efficient in the engine room, as they have a sturdy physique.

The saloon workers, who mostly hail from Goa and Mangalore, first appear to have taken to seafaring service about 125 years ago. But it is only when the steamships came into existence and the passenger trade increased that their usefulness was recognized as efficient butlers, cooks and waiters.

The seamen of all ranks and categories in Bombay at present number about 70,000. Although they do visit their places of origin during the time of unemployment, a majority of them have become a permanent part of the working-classes in Bombay, and are not prone to give up their vocation unless under the stress of adverse circumstances. In this connection it may be pointed out that even though during recent years there has been continuous unemployment amongst a considerable section of the men, it is ascertained that seamen scarcely migrate back to their villages and prefer to tide over their difficulties by taking some temporary work on shore, there are several instances of men who have not ceased to be seamen, even though they could not get a ship for five or six years at a stretch.

*Recruitment of Seamen.*—The system of recruitment obtaining in Bombay leaves large room for improvement. The system till very recently was that seamen were selected by the ship authorities through the brokers, who had practically the largest say in the matter. This led to corruption and favouritism, as the brokers had to depend upon the Ghat Serangs and other intermediaries, who were very inadequately paid by them, but who fattened on the rewards practically extorted from the seamen. This state of affairs became so scandalous and intolerable that there was widespread discontent amongst the ranks of seamen and Government of India were prompted to appoint a committee to enquire into and report on the conditions of recruitment. A committee under the chairmanship of Mr. A. G. Clow, I.C.S., went into the whole question and made several valuable recommendations to Government.

We request the honourable members of the Commission to take note of those suggestions. Though seven years have elapsed, Government have not given effect to these recommendations, and the Report, like many other reports, has been shelved and almost consigned to oblivion.

This union felt so strongly on the evils of the broker system that its officers made several strong representations both to the local and central Governments, and, as a result of their persistent agitation, the Government of India have, in July last, appointed an officer as Assistant to the Shipping Master to look after the recruitment of the seamen. Though his appointment is an effective check on the adverse interference on the part of the broker in the selection of crews, still his powers and functions being limited in their character and scope, the advantages which have resulted hitherto are so meagre that they have not in any material way improved the conditions of recruitment. One of the chief defects of the reform introduced is that the officer has no power to stop direct recruitment by the ship authorities. From a superficial point of view it may be thought that the practice of direct recruitment without reference to any official authority would secure benefits to seamen, but on a closer examination of the question it would be found that, apart from the actual evils attending on a particular system, recruitment has a direct connection with the question of unemployment. The whole question of unemployment amongst seamen depends on the regulation of their engagements by their registered turns.

It is absolutely necessary, in order to minimise unemployment amongst seamen, that engagement of seamen should be controlled and regulated by an official agency. It is, therefore, urged that in order to suppress the evil practices which naturally obtain in the broker system of recruitment and to relieve unemployment as far as possible, a State Employment Bureau for seamen should be immediately established. The bureau should consist of an officer of the Government, with an adequate staff and two representatives of the organized and officially recognized body of seamen, and an equal number of representatives of the association of the shipping companies. The nature and the conditions of seamen's service are such, that an effective control by the State, assisted by the representatives of both the employers and the employed, is absolutely necessary. It is high time that intermediaries like the brokers, who exist solely for themselves and who are no better than parasites, were completely eliminated. It may be mentioned that our union feels very strongly on this point, and has repeatedly urged upon the Government to discontinue an archaic system of recruitment, which, whatever justification it may have had in the past, has certainly outlived its usefulness and is a drag on the amelioration of the conditions of seamen. Further, it is very important to restrict by legislation the recruitment of seamen to the local limits of the port of engagement. It would not be wise to encourage an unhealthy competition between the seamen of one port with those of

another, especially when the supply of seamen far exceeds the demand. Moreover, unfortunately the ratings of seamen in the different ports of India are not uniform and there is a great resentment amongst the ranks of seamen in Bombay at the attempts of shipping companies to import crews from Calcutta.

*Unemployment.*—We have already pointed out that the question of unemployment amongst the seamen has a direct relation to the method of recruitment and the terms of engagement. This is even partially true in the case of other industries, and the International Conventions have laid down the principle of giving shifts. Whatever may be the difficulties of applying the principle of shifts to other industries, the engagement of seamen affords ample scope to the adoption of these recommendations. Seamen themselves, after a strenuous voyage, desire a respite on the home shores to be once more in the midst of their families or relatives, and can very well afford a holiday, as they have some saving by that time. It is, therefore, urged that the guiding principle in the engagement of seamen should be that no agreement be allowed to spread over a period of more than twelve months. At the end of twelve months at least, seamen of inferior rating must be discharged and a fresh supply of men obtained. The supply should be regulated by the registered turns of the men. This alone will minimise the effects of unemployment.

*Housing.*—So far as seamen in Bombay are concerned there is no housing provided either by any of their employers or by Government. The seamen forming the deck and engine crews mostly live in boarding houses called "lathis," and those of the saloon in clubs called "koods." The accommodation each man gets in a lathi or a kood is so limited that it can hardly be considered comfortable. Each man has to use his box containing his belongings as his cot.

The housing accommodation in Bombay is so expensive that seamen who are not born and bred in Bombay very rarely live with their families. They generally keep their families in their native villages and pay them such visits as they can afford from time to time. This state of affairs brings out very prominently the question of adequate wages. Indian seamen are so poorly paid that they cannot afford to live with their families, and have to live under the most revolting conditions. It is hardly necessary to say that these conditions are not conducive to their moral or physical welfare.

Neither the shipowners nor the Government have so far provided any housing accommodation for Indian seamen in Bombay. By a Bombay Government Resolution in the Marine Department a committee for the establishment of an Indian sailors' home in Bombay was constituted in 1927. The committee, it is understood, is to submit its report, plans and estimates, and a statement of the finances so far secured, for the erection and maintenance of the home as a memorial to about 5,000 Indian seamen that died from enemy action during the last Great War. It is reliably learnt that the funds so far raised fall short of the estimates. The Government of India and the local Government, as well as the shipowners, who make huge profits from the sweated labour of the Indian sailors, ought to contribute liberally towards the erection, maintenance and development of the very first home to house the seamen in Bombay. Over a decade has elapsed since the termination of the war, and yet, it is painful to state, the home has not been erected.

Neither private landlords nor the Seamen's Union have been able to provide housing facilities for seamen so far.

*Staff Organisation.*—Regarding facilities for training of seamen or men for sea service as officers and engineers in the Mercantile Marine service, it may be stated that some two years ago Government of India have started a training school on the I.M.T.S. "Dufferin." But the fact that only lads from the age of 13 to 16, with requisite standard of school education, and possessing the means to defray monthly expenses, amounting to Rs. 65 or thereabouts, are admitted as cadets, operates as a barrier for admission of poor seamen's sons to the training. Not a single seaman's son has so far been admitted. So, unless the stringent rules are relaxed in the case of seamen's sons the "Dufferin" training will ever remain an exclusive monopoly of the higher and middle classes who are traditionally strangers to life on the sea.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY MEMORANDUM.

The Executive Council of this union finds it necessary to submit further grievances of the Indian seamen with a view to getting them ventilated and for the solution of their difficulties and hardships experienced by them.

While inviting the attention of the Honourable Members of the Royal Commission towards the development of this union it is necessary to state that in the month of October, 1926, all the three sections now constituting this union (i.e., deck, engine

and saloon) have been formed into one body. Since then the grievances of the Indian seamen have continuously been represented to the shipowners and the Government for the purpose of getting them redressed, but it is a matter of extreme sorrow that these efforts have proved fruitless so far.

*Rate of Wages.*—It need not be reiterated here that during the last "Great War" a number of Indian seamen lost their lives. In the year 1919, when the war was brought to an end, the market for foodstuff and all other articles had gone very high and the poor Indian seamen had great difficulty in maintaining themselves and their families in an adequate manner due to excessive price. The seamen were compelled to go on a strike, which lasted for about four days. The employers, recognising the legitimacy of the seamen's demands, raised the rate of their wages from 30 to 35 per cent. This increased rate continued till the year 1923.

At a session of the Clow Committee held at Delhi in the year 1922, the machinations of the brokers in relieving the seamen of some part of their wages for acting as intermediaries for their recruitment and engagement were discussed, and the committee had made very valuable recommendations for removal of the brokers and other parasitical persons. The brokers on coming to know of the said recommendations, approached the shipowners, except the P. & O., to use their influence in pleading their usefulness in recruitment of seamen, thus counteracting and delaying the consummation of the committee's recommendations. The brokers thereafter, on false pretences of procuring better treatment and recognition, obtained signatures of seamen to a petition praying among other things for the retention of the brokers, thus misleading them and misrepresenting their cause. As recruitment entirely rested with the brokers the increased rate of wages from 30 to 35 per cent. was reduced to 10 and 15 per cent., and the poor seamen were obliged to accept the rates, as at that time there was not in existence any body or union to represent their grievances and expose the mischief. The union therefore requests the Honourable Members of the Royal Commission to take notice of the valuable recommendations of the Clow Committee and ask the Government to take steps for an early consummation of them.

This union felt so bitterly for the evils of the broker system that several strong representations were made to both the local and central Governments, the result of which was that in the month of July last an officer was appointed as an assistant to the Government Shipping Master to look after the recruitment and engagement of seamen.

No doubt his appointment was an effective check for the evils of broker system in selection of seamen, but the advantages which have resulted are so meagre that they have not in any material way improved the condition of engagement and recruitment, as his powers are limited in that respect. One of the chief points is that the said officer cannot stop direct recruitment by the authorities of the different shipping firms. The question of unemployment directly depends upon the regulation and system of engagement.

*Unemployment.*—It is already said above that the question of unemployment has a direct connection with the regulation and system of engagement and recruitment, but besides that, there are certain ranks of seamen who renew their agreement after every voyage and thus they continue their service for three to four years, whereas the P. & O.S.N. Co. does not allow any seaman of deck or engine to continue his service for more than one year, and one has to get himself discharged after his voyage of one year, thus creating a chance for another seaman. It is, therefore, urged that no agreement should be allowed to continue for more than one year by the different shipping firms, just as the said P. & O.S.N. Co. does, and at the end of one year's voyage the seamen should be discharged and fresh engagements should be effected. Such engagements should be regulated by seamen's registered turns. This system alone can mitigate unemployment.

The P. & O.S.N. Co. does not observe the same rule of recruitment of saloon workers as that observed in the case of the deck and engine departments. Some of the saloon workers are continuously engaged in preference to those that are waiting for employment, thereby increasing the misery of the unemployed. The P. & O. Co. have now started a scheme of engaging saloon seamen by turns according to a register kept by them in utter disregard of the time any particular saloon seaman has remained unemployed. Recruitment of the saloon seamen are at the will and pleasure of the authorities, in whose hands the recruitment is placed. Direct representations of such grievances are entirely ignored. Unless the authorities follow a scheme of recruitment of employing saloon workers who are kept unemployed for a long time in preference to those of lesser periods the unemployment question cannot be solved, but on the contrary will develop into a serious trouble.

The P. & O.S.N. Co. have arrogated to themselves the right of recruiting seamen directly in contravention of the existing rules that are followed by the other

shipping companies of engaging seamen from those that are mustered by the shipping master. The union fails to understand why the shipping master should be indifferent in exercising powers vested in him in the case of the P. & O. Co.

It is further noted with extreme sorrow that in case of demand of seamen in Bombay, the shipping companies, incharge serangs and butlers get crews from Calcutta which interferes with the employment of seamen at Bombay. Recently about three complaints were lodged with the acting general secretary of this union by different serangs and butlers of deck, engine and saloon departments as to the importation of seamen from Calcutta by the incharge serangs and butlers of the S.S. "City of London," the S.S. "City of Simla," and the S.S. "City of Paris," and accordingly strong representations were made to the Government Shipping Master, Assistant Shipping Master, and the Marine Superintendent of City and Hall Lines on 28th October, 1929. Also the matter was brought to the notice of the Commissioner of Police and Inspector of C.I.D. (Labour Branch) by a letter dated the 5th November, 1929, but the said authorities have not taken any steps for putting an end to this state of affairs as yet.

Thirdly, it is often noticed that when a vessel anchors at the port of Calcutta on her return from her voyage, the full complement of Bombay seamen on board are sent back to Bombay and fresh engagements are effected in their places, whereas when a vessel from Calcutta anchors in Bombay the Calcutta seamen are not discharged and sent to Calcutta. They are made to extend their period of their agreement for the next voyage, and in case of shortage either Bombay seamen are engaged or crews from Calcutta are sent for.

Under the above circumstances this union feels strongly for the difficulties of the poor seamen of Bombay in obtaining employment. They come down to Bombay from their distant villages for employment and remain hanging for months or rather years together waiting to be employed in a starving condition. This is due to unsatisfactory and irregular methods of recruitment.

*Situation of Government Shipping Office.*—The Government Shipping Office was till 1926 situated near the docks, between Wadi Bunder and Carnac Bunder, but unfortunately the said shipping office has been removed to Old Customs House at a distance of over a mile from the docks. The space is so inadequate that there is no accommodation for seamen to sit while they are waiting at the office for engagement. The union, therefore, would recommend that the shipping office should be shifted again to a better and spacious site near the docks, which will relieve seamen from the aforesaid inconveniences.

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### THE BOMBAY SEAMEN'S UNION.

The Bombay Seamen's Union is concerned with the seamen working in the saloon, pantry and galley departments of the mercantile marine. It has on its roll about 6,500 members. Most of them work on the P. & O. Company's ships. The union of the saloon crew has been in existence under one name or another for the last 35 years; but due to the intrigues of the shipping brokers, who seem to fear very much that with a strong union their existence will become impossible, there is, periodically, a split in the union.

*The home of the seamen.*—The seamen recruited for the above-mentioned service hail from Goa and are domiciled in Bombay. In Bombay they live in "Cudds" (residential clubs). Each village has its club in Bombay where not only the seamen but all other labourers, such as tailors, cooks and subaltern clerks reside in confraternity. These clubs are governed by rules which provide for contingencies for sickness, death and unemployment. Though every member is entitled to live in the club, only those who are out of employment are the actual inmates. A member whether living in the club or not, has to pay the contribution, so that the burden of rent and living is much relieved. The clubs are generally clean habitations; but owing to unemployment, too large a number has to live in houses disproportionately small. In some of these clubs within an area of 50 square yards not less than twenty men live.

*Recruitment of the seamen.*—Generally speaking, the recruitment of the seamen is carried on through the agency of shipping brokers. This has proved to be a great curse in so far as the crimps of the shipping brokers availing of the situation where the supply exceeds twice the demand have been able to dole out the luxury of employment to the candidate who gives them the highest commission. It often happens that the poor seaman has to pay the crimp the full salary of the month which he receives in advance. The P. & O. Company alone recruits men without the agency

of the broker. The experiment has been very successful in so far as the members of this union are concerned. It is, however, to be desired that the advances to be made to the seamen should be by their own associations. This will immediately bring to the association a handsome revenue which at present goes to increase the profits of the shipping brokers, who do nothing whatsoever for the seamen. Out of these advances it is expected to create funds to provide for the emergencies of illness, loss of service, etc., of the seamen. The brokers are thus useless parasites who live upon the hard-earned money of the seamen.

*Relations with the employers.*—The branch of the union that has concern with the P. & O. Company has nothing to complain of. The members are given reasonable work, reasonable wages and reasonable treatment. Their only grievance is that after the war there are so many members working in the line that the men can only be recruited in their turn for one year of service after a similar period of unemployment. At present the Company recruits the men who had been discharged in the month of July, 1928, i.e., after 13 months of unemployment a seaman becomes eligible for service. The Company has not definitely recognized the necessity of distribution according to turns, but thanks to the Superintendent Purser, Mr. W. Gordon, the union has been allowed to call the members of the service after a period of one year.

As regards the other companies there is neither system of recruitment or discharge nor is there any provision made by the Company to give any bonuses or remuneration at the end of service when a man retires for want of energy. The union is, however, not concerned with these unfortunates whose ingress in the union is discouraged as the management thinks that under the existing conditions they can do very little for them. It is, however, expected that the commissioners will insist on the recruitment being made directly through one respective union of the respective class of seamen. If this is achieved the union will be in a position to distribute the service according to the equitable basis of rotation after a definite period of service.

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## BOMBAY TEXTILE LABOUR UNION.

### Introduction.

The textile industry in Bombay and other parts of India formed in 1926 a subject of investigation by the Indian (Textile) Tariff Board, which were asked, *inter alia*, to report whether the industry was in need of protection, demanded by the Bombay and Ahmedabad Millowners' Associations. During the course of that investigation the conditions of the textile workers received some attention at the hands of the Board; but owing to the emphasis of their terms of reference being more on the financial side of the industry than on labour conditions, the Board's consideration of the latter could not but be limited. However, the recommendations made by them to improve some of the labour conditions have their value and cannot be lost sight of in any future enquiry. Again, the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, presided over by the Honourable Sir Charles Fawcett, went deeper into some of the important questions, such as the Standardization of Wages, Standing Orders and "Seventeen Demands" of the workers and made recommendations, some of which if adopted and carried into effect, both in the letter and in the spirit by the Bombay millowners, are likely to change for the better some of the existing conditions. The Fawcett Committee were also bound down by their terms of reference and could not deal with many other equally important problems. The list of subjects prepared by the chairman of the Royal Commission, covers practically the whole field of labour conditions; and in dealing with it no apology from the Bombay Textile Labour Union is, it is hoped, necessary either for the somewhat exhaustive character of its memorandum or for its drawing upon, with the object of making the memorandum by itself as full as possible, the Tariff Board and Fawcett Committee reports and other important publications.

The memorandum follows very closely the arrangement in the schedule of subjects sent out to the union by the joint secretary to the commission. An attempt is made to confine the memorandum, as far as possible, to the subjects relating to the textile workers and to refrain from giving statistical information which can be obtained by reference to Government and semi-Government publications. A few tables have been given only for the purpose of emphasizing some of the points the memorandum tries to lay stress on. The union should have liked to deal in detail with some of the subjects which will be found to have been dealt with rather briefly and touch such others as, though relating to the textile industry, are not touched at all; but it could not do so, not because it considered them of comparatively minor importance,

but either because the time at its disposal was too short to do adequate justice to them or because it had not the necessary material at its disposal. The union has not endeavoured to go into the financial aspects of the many remedial measures which it has either supported or proposed in its memorandum. The task it has assigned to itself is to present the workers' grievances, and suggest, as far as possible, suitable remedies.

## PART I.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) Bombay was a comparatively small fishing village when the seeds of the textile industry were sown in her soil in 1854. Labour, therefore, had to be recruited from outside. In the earlier period of the growth of the industry, the workers came to Bombay according to the requirements of the industry, and from that point of view the extent of migration during that period could be said to be almost 100 per cent. It was in this period that a large number of Mussalmans came to Bombay from Upper India and took to the textile industry, mostly as weavers. Their number gradually increased and now stands at, it is calculated, roughly between 15,000 to 20,000. They are now settled down in Bombay and form her permanent population. In the case of the other workers, mostly Hindus, who came here from other parts of the Bombay Presidency, excluding Gujerat and Sind, in varying proportions, it can be said that a large number of them now form permanent population of this city, with periodical visits to their villages.

(ii) The obvious cause for the migration of the Mussalmans from Upper India seems to be that, in the textile industry of Bombay, they got a new field to continue their hereditary occupation. They were all born weavers working in the hand-loom industry. Either because of a setback which the hand-loom industry seemed to have received about the time the textile industry began to grow in Bombay and elsewhere, or because of its ceasing to continue to be sufficiently remunerative, the workers must have felt that, instead of exploring other avenues of employment in which they had never worked before, it would be profitable to migrate to Bombay and prefer the textile industry. So far as the workers migrated from other parts of this Presidency were concerned, the changing character of the village life seems to be the primary cause of their migration. In his book, "Land and Labour in a Deccan Village," Study No. 2, Dr. Harold H. Mann, late Director of Agriculture, Bombay Presidency, emphasizes this point thus:—

"The precariousness of the agricultural returns as a result of the very variable character of the rainfall in this part of the Deccan is the primary feature that must be noticed. In a sense that hardly applies anywhere else in India, the life of the people here is 'a gamble in rain.' If a good season does come, in spite of everything the people do fairly well, from their own standard. But good seasons only occur about two to four times in ten years, or nine times out of the last twenty-four, and an average year seems (if our investigations and calculations give anything like a true picture of the village life), to leave the village under-fed, more in debt than ever, and apparently less capable than ever of obtaining, with the present population and the present methods of cultivation, a real economic independence. This state of things is emphasized by the recent increase in prices."

"As a result of this economic stress, there has here been a general exit to Bombay and other large centres for work, without those who go in any way severing their connection with the village" (pages 158 and 159).

At another place in the same book, Dr. Mann observes:—"The people of this village have been in the habit of going to Bombay for work for the last twenty or twenty-five years, from the accounts given to us by the villagers. At the time of our enquiry nine families (out of the total number of 147) belonging to the village were away in Bombay, and about eleven others whose families were not away, had gone to Bombay or Poona.... From the families recorded as belonging to the village, nearly 200 people (out of the total of 736)—men, women and children—were away in Bombay before 1916. Many of these used to go for part of the year—four to eight months—while a few settled in Bombay more or less permanently, only paying an occasional visit to their old home" (pages 110 and 111).

It will thus be seen that the changing economic character of the village was largely responsible for the migration of the villagers to the industrial towns like Bombay. It should not, however, be supposed that this migration relieved the workers of their economic distress to a great extent. "The actual advantage," says Dr. Mann in the book quoted above, "to the village (by migration) in reducing the pressure on the land is great, but there appears to be considerable doubt as to whether it receives very much actual direct financial advantage" (page 159). Added to this economic aspect of the question, there were the allurements and inducements held out before the village men by the recruiters sent out to the villages by

the pioneers of the Bombay mill industry. The cities always present some glittering features of life which the villages do not possess ; and when they are presented to the ignorant masses in a highly coloured fashion without their dark side, it is only natural that they should lure the economically affected people.

(iii) The only change in recent years is, as far as can be observed, towards the direction of settling down in Bombay. The economic condition of the villages continues to be as before and the Bombay mill industry has considerably developed during the last two decades. It is, therefore, natural that the workers should show a tendency to stick on, as far as possible, to the industry in which they are engaged. As far as could be ascertained from the individual complaints received by the Union, it can be said that a very large majority of the complainants had been and have been engaged in the textile industry for a period extending from 5 to 25 years.

2. (i) It is admitted that the workmen go to their villages periodically either to see their relatives, or to look after their land or to recoup their health. In this sense it may be said that they have maintained their contact with the villages just as the middle and higher classes have maintained their contact with their towns or villages by paying periodical visits to them or the members of the European community have done by going home at stated intervals. But a consistent and persistent endeavour has been made by the employers to spread an impression in the public that the Bombay labour is migratory and in support of this statement they point out to the frequency of the workers' visits to the villages. The Union has in the past challenged this statement and does so even to-day. If by occasional visits the Bombay labour becomes migratory, practically the whole of the population in this city will have to be brought under that category. Such visits take place, in the case of some, once a year, in the case of others, once in 2 or 3 years and in the case of some Mussalman weavers from Upper India, once in 5 or even more years. This is, of course, an inference drawn from such contact as the Union has had with the workers since the beginning of 1926. On the other hand, "there is very little possibility of contact between workers and millowners" (Report of the Court of Enquiry, 1929, Bombay, page 38, paragraph 86) ; and yet, without any such contact, the latter have been, in season and out of season, repeating their parrot cry that Bombay labour is migratory. What is still more unfortunate is that even Government join in this cry and mislead the public. If the frequency of the workers' visits to the villages had been so great as is alleged to be, the mills should have experienced some shortage of labour. But a reference to the files of the Bombay "Labour Gazette" since 1921 shows that there is no such shortage ever experienced in the Bombay mills even during the monsoon time when the exodus of the workers is supposed to be great. The Union, therefore, believes that a vast majority of the textile labour in Bombay is more or less permanent and cannot be called migratory.

3. *Methods of recruitment.*—(i) There is only one method of recruitment of labour in the Bombay textile industry and that is through the head-jobbers and jobbers. There are no special qualifications which entitle these men to do the work of recruitment except perhaps the fact that they save the trouble of the millowners of doing their legitimate work. Their educational or technical qualifications are just as good or just as bad as those of the workers who work under them. The length of their employment in the mills may be considered a factor in their favour ; but there are many workers whose length of employment can be compared very favourably with theirs. In the early stage of the growth of the industry when adequate labour force was not available, this agency of the head-jobbers and jobbers might have been helpful to the millowners in getting their labour. In those days it might have been perhaps necessary to invest these men with some authority so as to enable them to keep their men sufficiently long in Bombay. The people so recruited used to work as far as possible, under those who recruited them and live together in the same or neighbouring locality and in this way the village ties used to be maintained in a large measure. Almost every one of these facilities or advantages derived from the system of recruitment through head-jobbers and jobbers has now practically disappeared ; and yet the system continues merrily to the detriment not only of the operatives but of the industry as a whole.

The chief duty of the head-jobbers and jobbers under this system was to go to the villages and recruit labour. This they are not required to do now. Scarcity of labour there is none ; if anything, there is superfluity of it. None has heard in recent years of the head-jobbers and jobbers having gone out of Bombay in normal times for the purpose of bringing labour. In times of strikes these men are seen running about from locality to locality in the city to find out labour to break the strikes ; and on some occasions some of them or their agents are reported to have gone, or sent false telegrams, to the villages asking men to come back or trying to get new recruits. And yet, the strikes have taken place in the past, continued much longer than expected even by the workers and many times fought successfully. It will thus



be seen that (1) in normal times the head-jobbers and jobbers are not required to recruit labour by going to the villages; (2) in times of strikes they play the role of strike breakers by dividing the ranks of the workers; and (3) their influence has completely disappeared in so far it used occasionally to do some good to the workers. It may also be stated that the old days of the head-jobbers and jobbers employing their villagers in the small mills and living together in the same locality have in a majority of cases, gone with the knowledge they have acquired of the industry and the wages, the workers go wherever they get suitable employment in the mill industry.

This system of recruitment through the head-jobbers and jobbers has introduced developed and perpetuated such evils in the industry that they have proved to be a menace of a very serious character. It has also contributed very materially to the growing discontent among the operatives. It is notorious that several head-jobbers, jobbers and the women overseers called the "wasthis," in the winding and reeling departments, receive bribes or *dasturi* from the operatives at the time of their employment and even during the continuance of their service. The rate of the *dasturi* varies generally from Re. 1 to Rs. 5 and sometimes the *dasturi* takes the form of providing wine or monetary assistance to the head-jobber and jobber. Mr. S. M. Rutnagur, in his book, "Bombay Industries: The Cotton Mills," published in 1927, says as follows on pages 319-322 :—

"As a matter of fact some of the labour leaders have recently been openly pointing not only to their own difficulties with the workpeople but to the waning influence of the mill jobbers and *wasthis* over the male and female workers who have learnt to protest against the blackmail and bribery levied by the former not only for securing a job but also for maintaining it. The earnings of the jobber and the *wasthis* (female supervisor) may be three or four times in excess of the pay of the individual male or female workers and yet the latter have to submit more or less to the extortions of the former for fear of dismissal or fines. Thus the new arrival from up-country has by no means an easy entry in the mill as a paid hand. He has of course to learn and act as a *bedli* or substitute or a mere helper to a friend or relation in the department. In the first place he will have to pay the jobber on admission and then the timekeeper or muster clerk who keeps him in suspense till he pays him for his "trouble" in entering his name on the *bedli* or substitute register. The probationer will thus be in debt before he can be sure of regular employment and soon realizes the difficulty and time required in getting the big wage in the mill compared with his meagre earnings in the village."

These admissions are of special significance in view of the fact that they come from a gentleman who, in his book at any rate, has not shown himself to be a sympathiser of labour; if anything, he has shown a bias in favour of the employers.

The Commission may realize how difficult it is to detect and prove such cases of bribery and corruption. So long as the worker is in the employment of the mills, he dares not, for fear of losing his job, come forward and say openly that he has been paying bribes to a jobber. After dismissal, he finds himself unable to secure witnesses to prove his case as those witnesses still continue to work in the mills. In spite of these difficulties, the Union got a few cases of bribery and brought them to the notice of the management concerned; but the latter declined to do anything in the matter. The following extract from the first annual report of the Union for the year 1926, speaks for itself :—

"During the period under report the Union received a few complaints about the receipt of *dasturi* from the Jam mills. After making thorough enquiries into the matter, the Union was convinced that the complaints were genuine and placed all the information received by it before the manager and the agents of that mill. In the presence of the manager and the weaving master, the winders admitted that they were paying *dasturi* to their *wasthis*. But the management of the Jam mills refused to take notice of the evidence placed before them and to set the matter right." (Page 16).

On the other hand, the agent told the Union quite bluntly that such practice of taking bribes prevailed in all the mills and that, if he were to take notice of it and adopt measures to stop it, he would soon require to close down his mill! In 1927, the agents of another mill used to receive a number of anonymous letters from their workers about the practice of the jobbers and head-jobbers taking bribes from the workers. Here is an extract from the Union's report for that year :—

"They (the agents) took the help of the Union, asked it to make investigation and promised to deal with the corrupt people in a way which might lead to the discontinuance of this bad practice. The Union made very detailed and minute enquiries, engaged a special investigator for this work and placed before the agents the facts as

found out. The agents were satisfied with the investigation and immediately discharged a *naihin* (head woman), one or two jobbers and gave severe warnings to others against whom the Union had found some evidence." (Page 20).

In 1928, the Union received three complaints of bribery and corruption; but it had to drop them as the complainants did not think it safe to proceed with them, as they had become very eager for work after six months' stoppage.

This system of recruitment gives rise to favouritism and harassment. The head-jobbers and jobbers being in sole charge of their departments, the distribution of piece work is entirely in their hands. To supply good and enough yarn to those who give illegal gratifications and to give them better machines to work upon, are a common feature in the working of the mills. The temporary vacancies in higher posts such as line or doffer jobbers are generally filled in by those who by illegal means swell the pockets of the head-jobbers and jobbers. Such grievances are always narrated in the mill and centre committee of the Union. As regards the harassment, the following passage from Mr. Rutnagur's book, referred to above, illustrates the point without any further comment:—

"The Lancashire managers and their Parsee assistants found the jobbers useful in extracting the work from the millhands who would put up meekly with the threats and abuses of the jobber who was familiar with their vagaries and skulking habits. They would also submit to the corporal punishment which the jobbers had to resort to with the more troublesome of the workpeople who did not mind being useful to him by massaging his body and limbs in a corner of the factory and giving him other relief when he was indisposed. Thus the jobber proved useful to the millowner not only in keeping the machinery in working order but in extracting work from the operatives and in maintaining the production up to the required standard." (Page 326). It may be noted here that the wages of the head-jobbers and jobbers are, in a majority of cases, calculated on the amount of production in their departments; and they have to, therefore, in their own self-interest, as they generally do, squeeze out as much work out of the operatives as they can, without any consideration to the quality of the material supplied to them. The Union has received innumerable complaints of bad raw material and harassment of the head-jobbers and jobbers for obtaining the required production.

Coupled with this system of recruitment, are the powers of the head-jobbers and jobbers which still further reduce the operatives almost to the condition of the slaves. The powers of dismissals, fines, grant of leave, engagement of *badhis* or substitutes, though *now* supposed to be exercisable by departmental heads, are in practice exercised by the head-jobbers and jobbers and are, in many cases, abused by them with the result that inefficiency in the industry has increased, stability of employment, so essential even for the smooth working of the factories, is absent and the accumulation of discontent is a normal feature. An efficient worker is conscious of his ability and does not always countenance the frowns of the head-jobbers and jobbers and is more often than not reluctant to give illegal gratification; while an inefficient worker cannot hope to get, and continue in, employment without keeping the head-jobbers and jobbers contented, which he can do only by means of satisfying their wants by illegal means. The former class of men are thus under a perpetual risk of receiving all sorts of punishments from the supply of inferior or inadequate raw material down to the dismissal while the latter class goes on merrily with the unhealthy support of its superiors, always adding to the general inefficiency of the industry. The experience of the Union is that among the workers there are often two camps—one pro-jobber and the other anti-jobber—fighting against each other and occasionally going to law courts and adding to the litigation.

It is pointed out above that in normal times the labour is plentiful and that the head-jobbers and jobbers are not required to do the work of recruitment which is supposed to be their main job. During abnormal times when a strike is threatened or has actually taken place, they are a source of mischief to the employers as well as to the workers. To the former they hold out false hopes that there would not be a strike and, if one had taken place, they mislead the owners by saying that it would end very soon. Among the latter they do the work of creating divisions and breaking up their solidarity. The following two cases are typical of the extent to which these people are capable of going in playing their mischievous game. In one of the mills where the Union had good membership, it declared a strike recently over the wrongful dismissal of a worker after going through all the stages of negotiations which lasted for full three months. This period of three months was utilized by a head-jobber and an assistant timekeeper in that mill with the help of a few of their men, not necessarily connected with the mill, in sowing the seeds of disunity among the ranks of the workers to such an extent that towards the end of that period the workers practically ceased to attend the Union's propaganda meetings. Between the 40 hours' period that passed between the time when the strike notice was given

to the mill and the time when the strike was actually declared, their propaganda with adequate financial backing became so oppressive to the workers that even those of the Union's committee members who had voted in favour of the strike, had to go to the mills in spite of the picketing by the Union officials. In another mill, the workers declared a strike on the summary dismissal of about half a dozen workers and discharging about 100 men on the ground that there was no work for them. The mill immediately declared a lock-out. During the few weeks that followed, the head-jobber of the mill worked his mischievous plans so well that he created a division in the ranks of the workers who were all on strike and most of whom were Union men and made them go back to the mills on reduced wages—the reduction being on an average above 10 per cent. After the mill restarted, the head-jobber took care not to re-engage those whom he considered to be prominent Union men in spite of the definite instructions of the agents that men should not be refused employment on the ground that they were Union men. He thus succeeded in shutting out most of the important Union men and filling the mill with his own "safe" men without any consideration to their efficiency or otherwise. One can easily realize the serious effects of such sinister propaganda of the head-jobbers and jobbers not only on the organization of the workers but on the industry as a whole.

In paragraph 63, pages 138–39, of their report, the Indian (Textile) Tariff Board have drawn the attention of the Government, the millowners and the public to the existing system of recruitment and its abuses and recommended that all labour should be engaged directly by the officer of the mill in charge of the department which required it or by a responsible officer. The Union also desires to draw the attention of the Commission to the oral evidence on this subject of recruitment of the representatives of the Bombay Millowners' Association which appears on pages 347–352 of Volume II of the Board's report and the Commission will come to know the warmth and vigour with which the representatives of the Association supported the existing system of recruitment. As against that oral evidence the Commission should, the Union further suggests, place paragraph 7 of the Millowners' Association's reply, dated 10th January, 1928, to the letter of the Collector of Bombay, dated 4th October, 1927, in which the latter had asked for a report of the action taken by the millowners in respect of the recommendations contained in paras. 59–71 of the report of the Indian Tariff Board, and then compare the statements contained in the two. This reply appears as Appendix Y to the statement submitted to the Strike Enquiry (Fawcett) Committee by the Bombay Millowners' Association, pages 65–74. Its paragraph 7 runs as follows :—

" 7. Para. 63 :—A special enquiry has been made by the Association since the publication of the Tariff Board report with a view to ascertaining the exact practice in regard to recruitment of labour and the results definitely prove that the practice of direct recruitment is making rapid strides throughout the Bombay mill industry and this movement is receiving every encouragement from the Association and from the management of individual mills. . . . The enquiry just completed has shown that so far as the daily replacement of absentees is concerned, operatives as a rule are not finally engaged by the jobber. They, may it is true, be brought to the mills by the jobbers, but even this practice is becoming more rare and it is now the more general rule for the jobber to obtain replacements for his absentees from the applicants for work who daily attend at the mills. Whatever the method adopted by the jobber to obtain the workpeople necessary for replacing absentees, the final selection and appointments are made by the heads of the departments concerned, and in many cases even the preliminary assembling of applicants for replacements for casual vacancies is conducted by the heads of departments and not by jobbers.

" There may in the future still be occasions when, owing to extraordinary shortage, jobbers will be still required to recruit labour, but these revivals of the powers of the jobbers are likely to be temporary and infrequent.

" The millowners have always strongly discountenanced the practice of extorting commission from workpeople by jobbers, and where charges of this nature are substantiated, the most severe disciplinary action is taken against the jobbers concerned."

In the opinion of the Union the above statement is inaccurate. In the first place, it is stated that the practice of direct recruitment is making rapid progress. When was this practice instituted? Were any written instructions issued by the Millowners' Association to the mills to stop the recruitment through the head-jobbers and jobbers and start direct recruitment? Were these instructions given before the Association held their special enquiry or after it? The wording in the statement gives one an impression that, if any instructions had been given at all, they had been given before the special enquiry. If this impression is correct, where was the necessity to hold a special enquiry for the purpose of "ascertaining the exact practice in regard to recruitment of labour" as those instructions implied that the Association knew what

the practice was and felt that it should change. If the instructions had been given after the special enquiry, the Association could not know its results as they said they did. In the second place, it is equally important to know whether the mills, in which "direct recruitment is making rapid strides," have any records to show that they have changed the system of recruitment and whether they have any register wherein the names of the operatives, seeking employment, with their past record are registered. Thirdly, it is interesting to know how many cases of extortion of commission by the jobbers had been dealt with by the mills and the Association and in how many cases "the most severe disciplinary action" had been taken against them. Fourthly, it is worth noticing that the Millowners' Association's statement does not at all refer to the powers of the head-jobbers and jobbers to which paragraph 63 of the Tariff Board report has drawn pointed attention. With the knowledge that the Union possesses about the existing practice of recruitment, it can assert that the practice is the same as it existed before the Tariff Board made their report. No change worthy of consideration has been effected and the workers' woes on this score have not been reduced by a jot or tittle. The Union has no hesitation in characterizing the Millowners' Association's statement as an eye-wash calculated to mislead the Government and the public.

(ii) The only way in which the system of recruitment can be mended is by ending it. There does not seem to be any half-way house between the present system and the public employment agencies. The Tariff Board had recommended recruitment through a departmental head of each mill. The Union in its representation to the Board had suggested that the mill agents should recruit their labour directly, that the head-jobbers and jobbers should no longer be invested with such powers as those of dismissals or fines and that they should be appointed on fixed wages irrespective of the production in their departments. While the Union stands by its other recommendations then made, it cannot but withdraw their former suggestion of recruitment in favour of the public employment agencies. The millowners were given full two years to carry out the recommendation of the Tariff Board and they wasted that precious time without doing anything. It is risky both from the point of view of the industry and the workers to allow them to make any further experiments. The present system must, therefore, be ended immediately.

(iii) The Union is strongly in favour of starting public employment agencies. The State is responsible for the well-being of every section of the population under its control and it is its duty to protect adequately the interests of the working class section which has been suffering from the harassment and tyranny of the employers and undergoing serious financial loss. It is, therefore, its duty to see that the grievances of this section of the population are redressed and its recruitment placed on a sound basis.

The Union realizes the difficulty of starting public employment agencies in towns and small cities where industrial population is comparatively small and where, therefore, the cost of starting and maintaining these agencies is likely to be heavy. The Union, therefore, suggests that the public employment agencies should be first started in large industrial cities such as Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Cawnpore, Nagpur, Kharagpur, and, with the experience that may be gained, similar agencies may be started at smaller industrial cities and towns.

After securing the evidence from all the industrial centres in India, it is for the Commission to think out a practical scheme and consider its possibility. The Union desires to emphasize that the Commission should not be deterred by the cost of the employment agencies because it considers that this cost is essential for the social and economic well-being of a very large section of the working class population. The Union takes its stand on the fact that the present system of recruitment is a thoroughly discredited and ruinous system and must be ended and that the industrially advanced country like England has by experience found that the public employment agencies are the only effective remedy to stop the abuses arising out of the bad systems of recruitment and have been successful. The disease being common in both the countries, there is no reason to suppose that the remedy which has proved to be efficacious in one country should not prove to be so even in India. The Union considers that the scheme of public employment agencies is perfectly possible and should be given effect to as soon as possible.

4. *Extent and Effects of Disturbance of Family Life.*—In the opinion of the Union, the family life of the operatives is disturbed a great deal owing to many causes. In the first place, not being sure of his employment, a worker does not generally bring with him his family to Bombay. In the second place, after he gets an employment, he does not get his wages for six weeks after commencing work. By this time he generally falls into some debts without repaying which he cannot possibly bring his family to Bombay. Thirdly, his wages are generally such as cannot afford him to maintain himself and his family and lead in Bombay even such a standard of life

as a textile worker generally leads. Fourthly, there being no security or permanency of employment, he cannot be sure whether he can stay sufficiently long in Bombay if he brings his family. Fifthly, his periodical illness adds to his indebtedness and further reduces the chances of staying with his family. It should be understood that the above remarks are of a general character which apply generally to the operatives in the preparatory departments whose wages are less than Rs. 30 per month and to the low paid weavers and other workers on the manufacturing side. No statistics on this as on many other points are available and the Union can express an opinion only on the knowledge and information secured by its contact with the workers through the committees and the meetings:

Such being the disturbance of the family life, it is conceivable that its effects can be unhealthy and, in some cases, even ruinous. The workers are exposed to the temptations of a city life and some may be falling victims to them. The Union has no information in its possession to express a definite opinion on this point.

7. *Unemployment*.—There are no statistics available in Bombay, and for that matter in the whole of India, to ascertain the extent of unemployment in the industrial population. Nor is there any agency, Government or otherwise, which is in a position to produce any statistics based on definite data. The *Bombay Labour Gazette*, which is the only agency which attempts to collect some statistics and publishes it periodically, has always to say, whenever the industry is in its normal state, that "in the textile industry, as a whole, the supply of labour was equal to the demand." But it has not, so far as the Union is aware, made any enquiry into the fluctuations of the demand and the extent of such fluctuations. The Union's remarks, therefore, on this subject are based mainly upon the experience and knowledge it has gained through its working and its contact with the workers.

(i) From its observation and experience, the Union is satisfied that there is considerable unemployment in the textile workers of Bombay. It is highly probable that a fraction of the unemployed may be constantly leaving for the villages after waiting for some time for jobs. So, the full extent of the unemployed people cannot be accurately ascertained, even if some attempts are made to do so. However, the average number of workers employed in the Bombay industry during the last 7 years may give some idea about the extent of unemployment. The following figures are taken from the reports of the Millowners' Association :—

Year.	Mills.	Spindles.	Looms.	Average No. of workers.
1922 .. .. .	82	3,117,284	65,521	149,224
1923 .. .. .	81	3,349,082	68,946	148,771
1924 .. .. .	82	3,427,621	71,133	148,414
1925 .. .. .	82	3,456,233	72,266	153,009
1926 .. .. .	83	3,472,642	73,701	149,069
1927 .. .. .	83	3,466,826	74,545	154,398
1928 .. .. .	82	3,451,176	74,825	129,275

In commenting upon the average number of workers employed in 1928, the Chief Factory Inspector of Bombay has pointed out on page 5 of his Annual Factory Report of the Presidency of Bombay for that year that the Bombay mills had not uniformly made allowances for the effects of the strike. He, therefore, obtained fresh information for the month of December which month was comparatively free from strikes and calculated that the number of operatives employed in the cotton mills in the Presidency was 2,39,488 as compared with 2,45,509 for the previous year. December figures for the cotton textile industry in Bombay were 1,38,677, as compared with an average of 1,45,005 in 1927. Another set of figures may also be given. In the two abstract statements, submitted to the Fawcett Committee, for (1) the spinning and preparatory and (2) the weaving and manufacturing departments for the month of July, 1927, containing the actual number of men, wage bill, and the average pay for that month, and the number of men, wage bill, and the average pay under their standardization scheme, if it had been in operation in that month, the Millowners' Association gave the actual total number of workers working in July, 1927, at 1,14,005. It is thus clear from the above data, inadequate though it may be, that there is not only serious unemployment in the Bombay textile industry but that it fluctuates violently.

(ii) *Retrenchment.*—The Commission may be aware that the Millowners' Association has prepared a Standardization Scheme whose main object is to regularize the number of operatives per unit of work and also to regularize the wages, but whose main features turned out to be to retrench the operatives in the spinning and preparatory departments and to make a cut in the wages of the weavers. This scheme and its attendant unemployment were fully discussed before the Fawcett Committee. Mr. S. D. Saklatwala, speaking on behalf of the Millowners' Association, said before the Fawcett Committee :—

"I might just point out that, as regards the extent of retrenchment (in the spinning section), in the statement that we have submitted we have shown that about 8,000 men will be reduced : 58,000 will be brought down to 50,000. But I might point out that that statement of course refers to July, 1927, since when retrenchment has already taken place." (Page 1617 of the printed proceedings, Vol. IV).\*

The statement in the last sentence of Mr. Saklatwala does not seem to have been borne out by the December (1928) figures quoted above, given by the Chief Factory Inspector in his report. In December the number of operatives had increased and the Standardization Scheme has not yet come into operation. It cannot also be said that in July, 1927, there was any shortage of labour as the *Labour Gazette* for August, 1927, had declared that in July the supply of labour was adequate to the demand. The Union is, therefore, inclined to take the view that while a small amount of retrenchment may have taken place in the past, it will come into full force as soon as the Standardization Scheme comes into operation. It was admitted in the Fawcett Committee that under the Scheme there would be a retrenchment in the spinning section to the extent of 13·8 per cent. and in the weaving section 3·5 per cent. These figures have got to be taken into consideration in dealing with the unemployment problem.

*Rationalization.*—The Fawcett Committee considered two more schemes—now known as the "efficiency schemes"—of Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Company, and of Messrs. James Finlay & Company. Under the latter's scheme "roughly about 30 per cent. of the workers in the spinning department" have been reduced (*vide* page 925 of the printed proceedings of the Fawcett Committee, Vol. II), while under the former, the following estimate of reduction was given by Mr. F. Stones, Superintendent of the E. D. Sassoon & Company, before the Fawcett Committee :—

"We claim to have carried out this policy, but in the process of doing so, it is to be admitted that fully 2,000 men will be displaced over the millowners' standard (scheme) in our group alone, and this standard reduced a further 2,000 from the old list. In the weaving, slightly less than 1,000 are displaced—in all, a total of 5,100 men out of a former muster of roughly 27,000 men have become unemployed during the last three years." (Page 1612 of the printed proceedings of the Fawcett Committee, Vol. IV.)

While in no way questioning the *bona fides* of Mr. Stones who, it is admitted, is one of the powerful brains behind the Millowners' Association, and who is a master of the technique of the mill industry, the union is inclined to feel that the figure of the displaced workers should be higher than 2,000. It draws the attention of the Commission to the discussion that took place in the Fawcett Committee on the 4th December, 1928 (Pages 891 to 898 of the printed proceedings, Vol. II), in which Mr. R. R. Bakhale, spokesman of the Joint Strike Committee, discussed with Mr. Cottam, Deputy Superintendent, Spinning section, E. D. Sassoon's group of mills, a statement prepared by the former on the basis of the information supplied by Mr. Stones as to the effect that might be entailed upon the workers on account of the introduction of the new efficiency system. That statement is reproduced on pages 929-934 of the printed proceedings, Vol. II, and appended to this memorandum (Appendix A). It relates to only one mill of the Sassoons and shows that 223 out of 566 men would be retrenched in that one mill. Mr. Cottam admitted in his evidence (page 898 of the printed proceedings, Vol. II) that it was clear that between 40 per cent. to 45 per cent. of the workers in that particular mill would be retrenched. If similar statements are prepared for the other mills where this system is introduced, the union takes the view that the retrenchment would be more than that calculated by Mr. Stones.

*Under-employment.*—In addition to this kind of unemployment which is now more or less of a general character, there is some temporary unemployment caused by what is known as the "playing off" system of the millowners which adds to the floating population of the city. Occasions frequently arise in the case of almost each and every mill when there is no demand for a particular kind of goods, either cloth or yarn, and the mills generally stop a portion of their looms and spindles

\* The day-to-day verbatim proceedings of the Fawcett Committee were printed by the Millowners' Association. Government have not published them.

for some time. This causes temporary unemployment which is repeated periodically. In the two silk mills of Bombay, the union understands that a large number of looms have been idle for two or three years in one, and for a few months in the other. This under-employment is particularly common in many mills in the reeling and winding departments.

Such is the position as it stands to-day. But with the introduction of the efficiency schemes in the two important groups of the Bombay mills—schemes which are only a part of what is now generally known as "rationalization," and with Sir Victor Sassoon having himself admitted (page 864 of the printed proceedings, Vol. II), that he was going part of the way towards the so called rationalization, there is every possibility of such schemes soon entering other mills in some form or other. This is inevitable. In fact this has been admitted at least partially before the Fawcett committee as will be seen from the following quotations:—

"Mr. Bakhale—you are going to increase the efficiency, increase the output and lower the cost of production by some method of organization in the industry. Suppose you succeed in increasing the efficiency, and in increasing the output and in reducing the cost of production. Having seen your results, don't you think that the other millowners will begin to think in the same direction and adopt the same methods?"

"Sir Victor Sassoon—I think unless they do that, under the stress of competition a large number of them will not be able to continue to exist." (Page 863 of the printed proceeding, Vol. II.)

At an earlier stage Mr. Stones said in reply to a question of the Hon. Sir Charles Fawcett: "The millowners have considered this (rational) scheme. . . They have gone into the scheme but they (the association) do not recommend this for adoption by all the mills until all the factors contributing to its success are there." (Page 859 of the printed proceedings, Vol. II.)

The moment these factors are there—and they must be there if the mills have to live under the stress of competition—the Millowners' Association will recommend the rational scheme to the other mills. It should further be remembered that such recommendation on the part of the association is not necessary. From the union's experience of the working of the mills in Bombay, it can be said that the other mills may soon direct their attention to retrench the men on the lines of the efficiency schemes of the Sassoons or the Finlays, and they can do it without the permission of the association. The point the union desires to emphasise is that with the introduction of the efficiency schemes by two of the important groups of mills and with the rapidly increasing Indian and foreign competition with Bombay, her mills have no alternative, under the existing capitalist system, but to adopt some remedy under which the workers are bound to be retrenched and unemployment considerably increased. This potential danger cannot be lost sight of in dealing with the problem of unemployment.

(iii) *Possible Methods of alleviating and remedying Distress.*—In considering the possible methods of alleviating and remedying the distress caused by unemployment the union thinks that this question should be looked at from two points of view: one, to bring the unemployment level as down as possible; and two, to provide for those who may yet remain unemployed. The union is aware that unemployment may not wholly disappear unless that problem and many other problems are tackled from all sides; but it feels that unemployment can be reduced under certain conditions. With competition as the basis and profits the object of the industry which is entirely in private hands, it cannot be expected that the workers will get a fair and square deal from the employers. In times of prosperity the bumper profits go to swell the pockets of the employers and the workers get very little, if any at all, without a struggle. In times of depression the workers are the first to suffer on the specious plea that the industry cannot afford to pay. The object of the industry should, therefore, be not profits but public service, and it cannot be achieved unless the industry is removed from private hands and put under public control. As has been already stated, such a change cannot remove unemployment all of a sudden or altogether, but surely it can be reduced by keeping a vigilant eye on all the factors that go to create unemployment. Even under the existing system of the industry, it is not difficult to reduce unemployment if the industry is properly organized under a strong central organization, and internal competition between mills and mills eliminated, or at least, reduced to the minimum. Specialization is one of the methods now adopted in Germany and even Lancashire, and may also help to reduce the ranks of the unemployed.

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*—In spite of all the measures suggested above, it is conceivable that unemployment on a limited scale may remain; and it is the duty of the State to provide for the maintenance of those who remain unemployed through no fault of theirs. "Work or maintenance" should be the guiding principle. It is the considered opinion of the union that every industrial worker who is willing to work but who does not get employment, should be provided with maintenance.

by the State by some suitable method. To the worker, the loss of employment is a serious thing. The remarks of the Fawcett Committee on this point bear repetition here.\*

The union has thus a very weighty support of the Fawcett Committee in its opinion that even for *general* unemployment caused by trade depression or by other causes over which the worker has no control, some suitable provision should be made for the maintenance of the unemployed. If, side by side with such provision, public employment agencies are started, they will endeavour to find employment for some of the unemployed and thereby the register of the unemployed and the maintenance charges will tend to remain on a low level.

As has been pointed out by the Fawcett Committee itself, the provision against unemployment is necessary, perhaps more so, when the efficiency or rationalization schemes are introduced in the industry. The textile industry being one of the most competitive industries in the world, such schemes are bound to come sooner or later, rather sooner than later, and with them a large scale retrenchment. Reference has been made above to the resolution on rationalization passed by the World Economic Conference held at Geneva, in May, 1927, and produced in this memorandum as Appendix B§. This resolution lays down certain principles and precautions for the introduction of rational schemes and for them to become successful. From its knowledge of the methods of the Bombay millowners in working their mills and with their loose central organization at the top, the union is doubtful whether those principles and precautions would be carried out before introducing rational schemes; but under stress of competition, they will have no alternative but to introduce those schemes, thereby reducing a large number of operatives. Whatever that may be, it is, in the opinion of the union, highly essential that some steps should be taken to institute a scheme under which the workers will begin to get some maintenance allowance. In fact the Fawcett Committee have themselves said (page 159, para. 291) that "there is some obligation on the millowners to try and take some steps towards mitigating hardship due to loss of employment caused by the introduction of the "efficiency" scheme." The committee then proceed in paragraph 292 (pages 159-161) to describe their scheme of "Out-of-work Donation Fund" on a voluntary basis, which, they say, they recommend as a tentative measure "for the consideration of the millowners and the trade union leaders" and "with a view to avoid delay in the settlement of this question (of introduction of efficiency schemes) pending the report of the forthcoming Royal Commission on Labour and any action thereon by the State." It is thus clear that the Fawcett Committee have definitely accepted the principle of providing the workers with some maintenance during their unemployment caused either by trade depression or similar circumstances or by the introduction of the efficiency or rational schemes.

While appreciating the acceptance by the Fawcett Committee of the principle of unemployment benefits and their scheme of out-of-work donation fund, the union is strongly of the opinion that the scheme to be adopted for unemployment benefits should be based on a more sound and permanent basis and administered by the State. A statutory unemployment insurance scheme is what is desirable and necessary. It should be applied to all the important industries and the important industrial towns so as to avoid competition and inequality or unfairness in the financial burden. Owing to the present low level of wages of the majority of the textile operatives, it is doubtful whether the workers will be in a position to pay their share of the contribution if the scheme is based on a contributory basis. The union is of the opinion that financial burden of the scheme should be borne by the State and the employers until the wage level is sufficiently increased.

(v) *International Unemployment Conventions.*—The only convention and recommendation which is of a general character and applicable to all kinds of workers and in which the textile workers are interested, are those passed at the Washington International Labour Conference in 1919. In 1921, the Government of India ratified the draft convention and decided to examine the recommendation in order to determine to what extent it was desirable to give effect thereto. Speaking on this resolution the Hon. Sir Thomas Holland, the spokesman of the Government of India, referred to the despatch of the Secretary of State for India on unemployment with which the Government of India seemed to agree. It is stated that "we are strongly of opinion, and all local Governments who have stated their views are in agreement with us, that no system of unemployment insurance is practicable in India at present," (Legislative Assembly Debates, 19th February, 1921, page 263)—a statement which shows the mind of Government on this vital question. The union is not aware of the steps, if any, the Government of India have so far

\* *vide* Fawcett Report, paras. 202-3.

§ Not printed.



taken in giving effect to Articles 1, 2, and 5 of the convention and whether they have supplied any unemployment figures to the International Labour Office. A statement, however, in the green book of the I.L.O., Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 13, on Unemployment, submitted to the last session of the International Labour Conference, that "no statistics are available to show the extent of unemployment among Indian cotton workers" (page 96), shows that the convention has more or less become a dead letter. In the case of the recommendation, the union does not know whether the promised examination of the recommendation has taken place and, if so, what its results are. Nearly nine years have passed since the recommendation came before the Indian legislature, and it can safely be said that so far as the textile workers are concerned, they have not received any advantage from it. The wheels of Government machinery in matters which vitally affect the interests of the poor, move so slowly that the workers along with others have begun to lose their faith in the *bona fides* of Government and are being drawn to the more glittering and attractive, though unrealisable, ideals and methods.

The general opinion of the union is that the conventions and recommendations of the International Labour Conference, being the greatest common measure of agreement between the governments, the employers and the workers, should be promptly given effect to, if the authorities do not want the workers' discontent to grow and their agitation shifted to non-constitutional lines.

8. *Labour "turnover".*—(i) There are no statistics or reliable information collected by any agency which may give an idea as to the average duration of employment in the textile industry. The union understands that the Bombay labour office endeavoured to collect some information on this subject; but unless the union knows the method on which their enquiry was conducted, it is not in a position to express an opinion on the results of that enquiry. The union's views are based upon the complaints received during the last four years and upon the knowledge it has gained by its coming in contact with the operatives; and it is in a position to say that there is not much "turnover" in the textile industry. Workers generally like to stick to the mills in which they are first employed. Wrongful dismissals which are common and other unjust punishments inflicted upon the workers by the head-jobbers and jobbers compel workers to leave one mill and join another; but on the whole their employment in the industry generally continues with short occasional breaks. In the case of the Mussalman workers, the average period of employment may be taken at between 20 and 30 years and in the case of others 15 to 25 years. The employment may not be in the same mill but in more than one mill; but that hardly affects the estimate or reduces the utility or value of work in the same industry.

(ii) Casual employment is caused generally by the permanent men going to their villages once a year or once in two or more years, owing to sickness of the workers and their families and by the fatigue caused by continually working ten hours a day, 26 days a month, and 12 months a year. The Bombay climate adds to the fatigue and sickness of the workers. The union is inclined to feel that casual employment in Bombay may be on a larger scale than at some up-country textile centres where climatic conditions are better; but it is unable to say definitely the extent of casual employment. Casual work is generally given to the workers who are textile operatives but who are unemployed.

(iii) The employers have in the past waxed considerable eloquence over the absenteeism in their industry and painted a very dark picture of the operatives, their habits and their irregularity. One of the pet arguments advanced against an increase in wages was and is even today that with the rise in wages, the absenteeism is increased and that the higher paid worker absents himself more than the low paid worker. The bottom of this argument was completely knocked out by the results of the enquiry of the labour office into the wages and absenteeism of cotton mill operatives in the 19 so-called representative mills in Bombay City in 1926. These results are published in tables 2 (for males), 3 (for females), and 4 (for males and females), pages 12-21, of Part I of the provisional confidential report supplied to the Fawcett Committee, and the representatives of the millowners' association and the joint strike committee. It is seen therefrom that average percentage of absenteeism for men is 7.13, for women 11.86, and for men and women together 8.26. Barring a few unimportant departments where the number of operatives is comparatively small, the highest average percentage of absenteeism in the case of male operatives is to be found in the ring spinning department and is 10.48 and the lowest is 4.35 among the weavers. In the case of female operatives, the highest percentage of absenteeism is 18.18 in the reeling, and the lowest, barring unimportant departments, is 6.41 in the ring spinning. The winding department which is exclusively of female labour, has 15.47 per cent. absenteeism. The average percentages of absenteeism for both male and female labour, in some of the important departments are 6.16 in the carding, 9.42 in the ring spinning, 15.29 in the winding.

17·80 in the reeling, 7·25 in the sizing, and 4·35 among the weavers. These figures conclusively prove that the weavers who are probably the highest paid workers, have practically the lowest proportion of absenteeism and the women, possibly the lowest paid operatives, have the highest proportion of absenteeism. In the spinning which is a lower paid section, absenteeism is rather higher than in the weaving section. Considering the totality of circumstances in respect of conditions of work, both in the factories and at home, the climate and the housing, the union does not think that average absenteeism is such as can cause alarm to the employers, or be considered as adding to the inefficiency of the industry. The union is no doubt anxious that the existing percentage should go down ; but it does not seem possible unless the conditions of work are changed and a system of leave with pay instituted. The clerical section of the population, working in Government and private concerns, has its casual sick and privilege leave while in the case of the workers there is no such thing. Every kind of their absence is considered as absenteeism and the result is that its percentage looks high. If similar percentage figures are calculated for the clerical and higher class of workers, the result may be somewhat similar to what is found in the case of the textile workers.

The causes for absenteeism seem to be the environments in which the workers work and live. Their sickness, or that in their families, causes a good deal of absenteeism. During illness they cannot go to work, and after illness, if it was serious, they feel the necessity of going out of Bombay for some time to recoup their health. Secondly, the fatigue caused by day to day work in the Bombay climate necessarily compels an operative, at least in the earlier stages of his employment, to take a rest for a day or two even though he may not be actually ill and that he generally does so immediately after he gets his wages so as to enable him to break the monotony of his routine work by some sight-seeing or going to a theatre. There is some seasonal absenteeism as well, but it should be comparatively small ; at any rate it is not such as to cause any dislocation in the industry or a shortage of labour. Some men go to their villages in the autumn to do some agricultural work. They return as soon as their work is over.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

10. *Managing Agency System.*—In order to understand fully the staff organization and other subjects connected therewith, which are mentioned in the questionnaire, it is, in the opinion of the union, necessary to understand the organization of the Bombay cotton industry. As is now well known, the industry is organized on the basis of what is known as the managing agency system. The union does not propose to go into the details of that system as it was fully discussed before the Textile Tariff Board in 1926. The union had then given a description of the managing agency system which appears on pages 479-480, Vol. III, of the Board's report. The Board had to say something on that system in paragraph 41 (pages 85-90) of their report to which the union desires to draw the attention of the Commission. It must be remembered, however, that the Board looked at the system from the point of view of ascertaining the degree or the extent of the depression in the industry for which that system was responsible ; they did not consider it in any other light. The union also desires to draw the attention of the Commission to pages 49-52 of Mr. Rutnagur's "Bombay Industries : The Cotton Mills," containing the description of the managing agency system and its evil effects on the industry. Mr. Rutnagur holds the following view on the system :—

"It cannot, however, be said that the industry is yet free from the evils of the Agency system. Instances of malpractices which have been cited above would still be found in certain of the Bombay mills whose agents think more of their own gain than the rights of the share-holders and the welfare of the work-people. The powers of the agents have been misused even in recent times, and costly and up-to-date machinery has brought early ruin to investors on account of the collapse that was bound to follow in the wake of greed and corruption." (Page 52).

It is the considered opinion of the union that the managing agency system is now obsolete, has outlived its existence and ought to be changed if the Bombay industry is to hold its own in the outside competition with which it is threatened.

11. The selection of the managing staff is entirely in the hands of the managing agents. Favouritism plays its part in these selections and the tendency is to bring in men who are the relatives or friends of the agents without much regard to their ability or knowledge. The union is not aware of any high posts such as those of the managers, superintendents, or even departmental heads being filled in by inviting applications through advertisements. In so far as the Lancashire men in the industry are concerned, it can be said that they are technical men and know their job. The union wishes it were true in the case of all other mill officials as well.

12. (i) The recruitment of supervising staff, such as departmental heads, is done by the mill management and that of the subordinate staff, such as head-jobbers and jobbers, is made by the managers or the departmental heads. There may be only a few instances, in the history of the Bombay mill industry, of the head-jobbers being raised to the position of the departmental heads. It may be due to the inadequate and imperfect technical knowledge of the head-jobbers. Jobbers are sometimes made head-jobbers; but even here instances are not lacking of the head-jobbers being brought in from outside over the heads of the jobbers who, on account of their length of service, might have been as competent or efficient as the new recruits. There may be instances of the workmen being raised to the position of head-jobbers and jobbers. But on the whole the union feels that there is no method as such in the matter of recruitment; much depends upon the management and the managers.

(ii) As regards the training facilities in the mills for the superior or subordinate staff, the union is afraid there are practically none. The same could be said to be true in the case of the ordinary workmen. There is the V. J. Technical School which has regular and weekly courses for the training of the supervising staff and the union understands that some of the apprentices in the mills take advantage of such classes. The Bombay Social Service League has been conducting a technical school which has been taken advantage of by about thirty workers on an average. The League is in a better position, than the union is, to speak on the success or otherwise of this school and on the causes, if any, that may be impeding its progress. It seems to the union that with a ten hours working day in the mills and the existing working conditions there is little physical or mental energy left for further and continuous training. It is also a matter of enquiry as to the number of workers who, after finishing the course of this school, have been promoted to higher positions. The union feels that there is little encouragement to the League's laudable efforts in the direction of increasing the efficiency of the operatives. The union is also not aware of any systematic efforts on a large scale being made by the employers to promote workers from lower grades to higher grades, or from the positions of low wages to those of higher wages. If there is any such policy, it would be interesting to know, as a result of that policy, how many fly gatherers and lap carriers, for example, are made grinders and strippers in the carding departments, or the doffer boys or *terwalas* are made siders in the ring frame department, or a plain loom weaver is made a fancy or jacquard weaver. It may be that these higher positions may have been secured by the workers; but that may have been due to the good offices of the jobbers or to their long experience in the mills. But that is not the point; the point is that, so far as the Union is aware, there is no systematic, deliberate and sustained effort made by the millowners in this direction.

13. (i) The relations between the staff or the management and the rank and file are anything but cordial or pleasant; one might almost say, they are bitter. In spite of any professions to the contrary, the working class is still looked upon and treated as a commodity, and not as human beings having the same human feelings as those of the employers. The touch of human sympathy with the workers and their legitimate aspirations is sadly lacking. There is generally a tendency to browbeat the workers, assault them, and treat them as people below contempt. In carrying on negotiations with the smaller officers of the mills, including some managers, regarding the workers' grievances, the union has found that it is their tendency to disbelieve the workers' versions and to accept as truth what their head-jobbers and jobbers would say. The officers' refusal to remove even the minor complaints of the operatives creates discontent among the operatives which, when allowed to accumulate, develops into bitterness. The treatment meted out to them from day to day is of a character which leaves no room for establishing healthy relations. Foul and insulting language is used, which only adds fuel to the fire. It may be said, however, in the case of a few of the agents, who pay periodical visits to the mills, and some managers, that they have in recent years changed their attitude for the better towards the workers and talk to them in a conciliatory tone. But their number is, in the first place, too small and secondly, as they too generally rely on the versions of their subordinate officials, the workers' grievances many times remain unredressed and the bitterness continues, in spite of the change in the attitude of their masters. Moreover, there is no standing machinery under which the mill officials and the workers can come together to consider the latter's grievances or common questions or at least for the purpose of a friendly chat. The union desires to draw the attention of the Commission to the discussion that took place in the Fawcett Committee over Mr. Bakhale's proposal to set up joint committees in the mills in order to enable both sides to come together periodically and deal with and redress genuine complaints, the accumulation of which generally leads to friction, irritation, and bitterness. The discussion appears on pages 1561-64, Vol. IV, of the printed proceedings of the Fawcett Committee and it will be seen therefrom that the representatives of the Millowners' Association opposed Mr. Bakhale's suggestion in a manner which proved conclusively that they failed to take a long view and succumbed to the abnormal

conditions then existing. The Fawcett Committee referred in paragraph 283 of their report to this suggestion, but refrained from expressing an opinion. Even the Court of Enquiry of this year, presided over by the Hon. Mr. Justice H. G. Pearson, were compelled to admit in the report (paragraph 89, page 38) that "some of the other difficulties in the way of a settlement (of the general strike) are the absence of contact between the millowners and the workers and the absence of any machinery such as an arbitration board to settle disputes as they arise."

(ii) The only value, if it can be so called, of employing jobbers lies in their being used by the management as intermediaries between the mills and the workers for the purposes of communication. The union has found by experience that this work too is done by them in a very objectionable way which frequently only helps the workers' bitterness to increase. The language of persuasion which might have been used by the management in inducing the workers to accept any new conditions of service or any change in production, is very often converted into cold language and a threat without an element of human sympathy or touch, and it is found that the management's difficulties, instead of decreasing, actually increase. What part the jobber plays in other respects in the mills is dealt with in the first chapter and need not be repeated here.

(iii) There are at present no works committees in the Bombay textile industry. The union understands that in some of the mills of the Tata and Currimbhoy groups, attempts were made in the past to organize joint committees when the Bombay Social Service League was doing welfare work in those groups; but those committees had short existence. Several causes might have been responsible for the failure of those committees; but the most important seems to be the lack of organization of the textile workers. Mr. R. M. Daruwala, Manager of the Tata Mills, who was connected with the working of the works committee in his mills, stated, in his paper on "Works Committee and Settlement of Disputes," read before the Industrial Welfare Conference held in 1922 under the auspices of the Bombay Social Service League, that "all this (failure of the committee) is due to their (workers) having no organization, no common platform where they can congregate, deliberate, and discuss; having no one who can inspire confidence in himself and explain, in their own tongue, both sides of the question and teach them to reason between right and wrong," and that "the common motive of mutual advantage is lost sight of"—perhaps by both sides. He also opined that "the disabilities noticeable in the conduct of business (of the committee) generally are likely to remain for ever unless efforts are made to reorganize the committees from their present constitution, so as to make them more popular and invest the decision of the committee with an authority and status worthy of the respect of the workmen." Since the failure of those committees, no attempt to revive them seems to have been made except the one of Mr. Bakhale during the discussions before the Fawcett Committee, to which reference has already been made. This union has its mill committees for every mill where there is union membership, on which the workers' representatives are elected by the workers in proportion of representative for every fifty members. Their functions are of an advisory character and they discuss matters such as union collections and individual grievances. The millowners have not got similar committees on their side and the two sides have never met, except on one occasion, in a joint meeting.

(iv) There is no doubt that, in the interest of harmonious relations between the employers and employees, it is desirable to have a joint machinery representative of the two sides and that a beginning should be made in the direction of evolving a plan to secure such machinery suitable to the existing conditions in Bombay. There has never been a time in the history of the local mill industry when the relations between the millowners and the workers had been so stained and so bitter as they are to-day, and when the workers' suspicion and distrust of their employers had been so deep-rooted as now. If the situation is allowed to drift any more, a deadlock is not an impossibility and the fate of the industry can be said to be doomed for ever. What the basis, the structure, and the functions of such machinery should be, is a question which requires serious thought and mature consideration. One thing, however, is clear to the union and that is that whatever the machinery may be, it must have the statutory sanction behind it; i.e., it must be based on a statute and not on voluntary consent of the parties. The millowners' credit with the workers is so low to-day that their every action is, for some time to come, likely to be looked upon with suspicion. Moreover, past experience shows that they do not want to have such machinery and talk to the workers on equal terms. The machinery established by statute may remove to some extent the suspicion and a start can be given under congenial atmosphere. There are at present two plans in the field of industrial relations between the employers and the employees, viz., the Whitley plan in England and the Works Councils plan in Germany. Both of them deserve careful consideration and it may be found that, under the existing conditions of Bombay, the combination of the two, containing good and suitable points from both, may prove to be of advantage.

The Whitley Scheme of Joint Councils is based upon voluntary basis, starts with a National Joint Industrial Council and ends with a Works Committee in individual factories of the same trade or industry, and postulates, for the successful working of these councils, the existence of strong organizations of both the employers and workers. In their first of the five reports, the Whitley Committee recommended, *inter alia*, the establishment in industries where organizations representative of both sides are in existence, "of an organization representative of employers and workpeople to have as its object the regular consideration of matters affecting the progress and well-being of the trade from the point of view of all those engaged in it, so far as this is consistent with the general interest of the community." The Committee suggested, as a means to this end, the formation of Joint Industrial Councils in the several industries but hastened to point out that :—

"It is not enough to secure co-operation at the centre between the national organizations : it is equally necessary to enlist the activity and support of employers and employed in the districts and in individual establishments. The National Industrial Council should not be regarded as complete in itself : what is needed is a triple organization in the workshops, the districts, and nationally." and that :—

"We think the aim should be the complete and coherent organization of the trade on both sides and Works Committees will be of value in so far as they contribute to such a result. We are of opinion that the complete success of the works committees necessarily depends largely upon the degree and efficiency of organization in the trade and upon the extent to which the committees can be linked up, through organizations that we have in mind, with the remainder of the scheme which we are proposing, viz., the District and National Councils."

and further that :—

"It is strongly felt that the setting up of works committees without the co-operation of the Trade Unions and the Employers' Associations in the trade or branch of trade concerned would stand in the way of the improved industrial relations which in these reports we are endeavouring to further."

These extracts make it abundantly clear that the Whitley Scheme to be successful must be adopted in its entirety, that it not only postulates the existence of strong trade unions, but it requires the co-operation of the unions and the employers' organizations as an essential condition. The adoption of any one or more isolated items to the exclusion of the others is not only to court failure but to discredit the whole scheme which, in the opinion of the union, is otherwise sound. It also seems to the union that the Whitley Scheme cannot be started from the bottom, i.e., by the organization of the works committees and then gradually by organising the District and National Councils, because of some of the most important functions under the scheme, such as questions of wages and hours, being assigned to the National councils. The works committee by itself may not achieve anything and interest therein may not be maintained unless it has a clearly defined field of work and unless action follows decisions which may be reached. It is also recognized that the Whitley Scheme has widened the basis of collective bargaining and has instituted permanent and systematic means for the review of wages and working conditions ; but it cannot be forgotten that this result is possible only if there are National Councils whose functions, *inter alia*, are :—

"(a) The better utilization of the practical knowledge and experience of the workpeople.

(b) Means for securing to the workpeople a greater share in, and responsibility for, the determination and observance of the conditions under which their work is carried on.

(c) The settlement of the general principles governing the conditions of employment, including the methods of fixing, paying, and readjusting wages, having regard to the need for securing to the workpeople a share in the increased prosperity of the industry.

(d) The establishment of regular methods of negotiation for issues arising between employers and workpeople, with a view both to the prevention of differences and to their better adjustment when they appear.

(e) Means of ensuring to the workpeople the greatest possible security of earnings and employment, without undue restriction upon change of occupation or employer.

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\* These and other extracts in this paragraph are taken from the "Survey of Industrial Relations"—a report of a Committee on Industry and Trade with Sir Arthur Balfour as Chairman, appointed by the first Labour Government, in England in 1924. The report was published in 1926.

(f) Methods of fixing and adjusting earnings, piece-work prices, etc., and of dealing with the many difficulties which arise with regard to the method and amount of payment apart from the fixing of general standard rates which are already covered by paragraph (c).

(g) Technical education and training.

(h) Industrial research and the full utilization of its results.

(i) Provision of facilities for the full consideration and utilization of inventions and improvements designed by workpeople, and for the adequate safeguarding of the rights of the designers of such improvements.

(j) Improvements of processes, machinery, and organization and appropriate questions relating to management and the examination of industrial experiments, with special reference to co-operation in carrying new ideas into effect and full consideration of the workpeople's point of view in relation to them.

(k) Proposed legislation affecting the industry." (Survey of Industrial Relations, page 294-95).

In spite of the adoption of the Whitley Scheme in its entirety and with most of the conditions being fulfilled, 45 per cent. of the National Councils ceased to function in Great Britain in 1925. A memorandum from the Ministry of Labour on the Whitley Scheme, which was submitted to the Balfour Committee, and is included in the "Survey of Industrial Relations," contains the following remarks on this point on page 299 :—

"Various causes have operated to produce this result (viz., the National Councils ceasing to function), the most important of which have been ineffective organization, the difficulties of wages adjustments and the divergence of sectional and district interests. With regard to the latter, the adoption of a scheme based on a triple organization of a National Council, District Councils, and Works Committees necessarily involved problems as to the relationship between the national, district, and local organizations. In some industries, in which the organization was comparatively new and unstable, the adjustment of the various interests proved to be impracticable. In such cases the central authority probably attempted to exercise too great a control over local conditions. In the case of certain Councils which are still functioning, a similar breakdown has been avoided by the relegation of wage questions to local negotiations or other machinery.

"In other cases the breakdown was due to the unduly wide area of industry which Councils attempted to cover, the result being that there was a lack of common interest among the constituent bodies."

*Bombay Conditions Examined.*—When such are the difficulties the Whitley Scheme has had to meet with in Great Britain, one can easily imagine the magnitude of the task in introducing the scheme in India. In the first place, whether the National Joint Council for the textile industry can be organized in India or not, is highly problematical. The industry is not centralized in any particular province as it is in Lancashire; it is both at large industrial towns such as Bombay, Nagpur, Cawnpore, Ahmedabad, and Madras, and at small cotton growing centres such as Sholapur, Jalgoan, and Pulgaon; and the recent tendency is towards either shifting or building up the industry in the cotton growing districts which are not close to one another. The union is not sure whether even the textile employers have a strong central organization which will be in a position to elect its representatives on the National Council. In the case of the workers, the organizations, however inadequate they may be, exist only at some large centres and the rest are without any organization; and, therefore, the difficulties in electing representatives on the National Council are great. In the second place, owing to the vastness of area over which the industry is spread, it will be found very difficult to sustain the interest of the members of the National Council in its work. Thirdly, the wages and the cost of living at different textile centres vary so much that the task of the National Council in arriving at decisions on those questions cannot be easy. Fourthly, the problem of the Indian States where the textile industry is making rapid progress and where the factory legislation is not so advanced as it is in British India, cannot be ignored in considering the organization of the National Council. These remarks are offered, not by way of criticism of the Whitley Scheme with which the union has considerable sympathy, but with the object of drawing the attention of the Commission to the difficulties that exist.

The formation of the District Councils may be comparatively easy, and of the works committees easier still, provided, of course, there are workers' organizations in the districts or factories where they are to be formed. But these committees would not be allowed to do much until they have at the top the National Council. In fact the Ministry of Labour in England, in their memorandum to the Balfour Committee stated that "no action was taken by the Ministry to set up works committees at individual works without the concurrence of the Joint Industrial

Council concerned which carried with it the concurrence of the constituent Employers' Associations and Trade Unions." Even supposing, however, that the works committees could be organized in Bombay, they would not be a success without the backing of the trade unions and without giving them power, in the absence of the National Council, to deal with wages, hours of work and other similar questions affecting the Bombay industry. What may seem possible is to consider Bombay as a unit by itself and organize the works committees and a district committee at the top and invest them with powers possessed by the triple organizations under the Whitley scheme. This must also, in the opinion of the union, be done under a statute and not on a voluntary basis. The only danger underlying this proposal is that, in the absence of strong trade union organization, the employers may take upon themselves the responsibility, which is not theirs, of securing workers' representatives on the works committees and thereby weaken even the existing strength of the trade unions. In Germany, for example, after the passing of the Works Councils Act, there was a long drawn out fight between the unions and the councils which ultimately resulted in the success of the unions. It is necessary to avoid such a fight in India.

*Trade Boards.*—The question of Trade Boards is treated in a subsequent paragraph. It is touched here only in so far as the Whitley scheme is concerned. The Whitley Committee found out even England that all the trades and industries were not mature for the adoption of their scheme owing to the imperfect or inadequate organization of the employers and employed. For such industries and trades, the Whitley Committee recommended that the Trade Boards "in addition to their original purpose of securing the establishment of a minimum standard of wages in certain organized industries . . . . should be regarded as a means of supplying a regular machinery in those industries for negotiation and decision on certain groups of questions dealt with in other circumstances by collective bargaining between employers' organizations and trade unions." The committee also advised that the functions of the Trade Boards should be enlarged so as "to deal not only with minimum rates of wages but with hours of labour and questions relating to wages and hours," and "to initiate and conduct enquiries on all matters affecting the industry." The union recommends this suggestion of the Whitley Committee for the consideration of the Commission.

*German Works Councils.*—Another plan, diametrically opposed to the Whitley Committee, is what is known as the organization of the Works of the firm in individual factories in Germany. Owing to their past history extending over several years and their complex machinery, it is difficult to describe even the features in this memorandum. The union, however, takes the liberty of drawing the attention of the Commission to a recent publication—"The Works Councils: German Experiment in Industrial Democracy," by C. W. Guillebaud (Cambridge University Press, 1928)—which describes the origin and the present machinery of the Works Councils Act, the relation between works councils and the trade union movement, the effects of the works councils on industrial relations and the works councils and industrial self-government. For the purposes of this memorandum it is enough to jot down the following few points from that book:—

- (1) The German works councils are not joint bodies holding their meetings in association with the employer. They are composed of employees only and the employer has no right to attend those meetings unless he is invited or has called a meeting in order to discuss a particular matter with the council.
- (2) The works councils are constituted under a legislative Act. The membership ranges from three to 30 according to the number of the employed.
- (3) The election of the works council is managed by an election committee of three appointed by the retiring council. The election is by the direct votes of the workers and by secret ballot.
- (4) The office of the works councillor is honorary, all necessary expenses incurred being paid by the employer. For any working time lost during the exercise of his official duties, the councillor is paid the full remuneration (including the allowance for overtime, if any).
- (5) Meetings of the council are private but may be attended by one representative of each of the trade unions to which its members belong.
- (6) The works council as a whole is required (i) to co-operate (in an advisory capacity) with the employer in promoting efficiency of production; (ii) to co-operate in the introduction of new labour methods; (iii) to promote peace within the establishment, and, in case of a dispute with the employer, to appeal to the Conciliation Board if a settlement cannot be reached by negotiation; (iv) to supervise the execution of awards affecting the employees as a whole; (v) to come to an agreement with an employer in regard to works rules applicable to all employees and, in case of disagreement, to appeal to the Conciliation Board whose decision is final in respect

of all rules other than those relating to working hours ; (vi) to defend the workers' right of association ; (vii) to reconcile grievances received from the sectional councils of wage-earning and salaried employees ; (viii) to take steps to prevent accidents and injury to health and to co-operate with the factory inspectors ; (ix) to participate in the administration of works welfare schemes.

(7) In order to facilitate the execution by the works council of its official duties, the council as a unit is given new and far reaching powers. The council is entitled (a) to elect one or two of its members to sit on the control boards of all joint stock companies or private undertakings which have a control board, with full voting rights ; (b) to demand access to information on all proceedings of the business affecting the contract of service or the activities of the employees, including the wages books and any other information required for checking the execution of existing collective agreements ; (c) to require an employer to make a quarterly report regarding the position and progress of the enterprise and the industry generally and, in particular, with the output of the undertaking and the anticipated demand for labour ; (d) to be informed by the employer, as long as possible in advance, of his intention to engage or dismiss a large number of employees ; in the event of projected dismissals on a large scale, the employer must discuss with the council any means that can be taken to avoid hardship ; (e) to require the presentation of an establishment balance sheet and profit and loss account.

(8) Finally, special protection is given to works councillors against victimization. With certain specified exceptions a works councillor may not be dismissed without the concurrence of the council of which he is a member, but where the council refuses its consent, the employer is entitled to appeal to the Labour Court whose decision is final and binding on both sides. If the court decides in favour of the employee, the employer is required unconditionally to cancel the notice of dismissal. The employer must continue to keep the employee concerned in his employment until the Labour Court has given its decision.

*Local on against Dismissals.*—The question of dismissals has been playing such a vital part in the life of the mill workers and so vitally affects their interests that the union practically has the liberty to quote a few passages from Mr. Guillebaud's book which refer to great objections against dismissals in the German Works Councils Act.\*

More elaborate provisions have been made in the Works Councils Act against dismissals of the works councillors and are dealt with on pages 169-176 of Mr. Guillebaud's book. The union insists that in any machinery that may be devised for joint meetings, similar provisions against dismissals should be made.

*German Councils and Trade Unions.*—After the passage of the Works Councils Act, the radical element in the German labour movement made serious endeavours to capture the machinery of the works councils and thereby cripple the powers of the trade unions. The Socialist trade unions, however, held in 1920 a National Congress of the Works Councils and arrived at the following conclusion :—

"The works councils must base themselves on the trade unions because they can only accomplish their tasks if they are certain of the support of the trade unions . . . . . The works councils are to be organized within the trade unions. A separate organization of the works councils, whether local or central, is undesirable ; apart from its effect in hindering the activity of the trade unions, it would nullify the effective representation of the interests of the workers by the works councils." (Page 44).

The Socialist unions ultimately carried into effect the above decisions and now the works councils form part of their organization. It has been found out that the successful functioning of the works councils is dependent primarily on the backing they receive from the unions. "Except in the very large concerns, the employer is rarely inclined to pay much attention to the representation of the works council unless he knows that it has a powerful union at its back. On countless occasions it has been the presence of trade union officials at meetings of the council, or their advice and assistance in the background, which has prevented the employer from taking advantage of the ignorance and lack of experience of the members of the council. It is not too much to say that, despite all its statutory powers, the works council as an institution is impotent unless it is based upon the organized strength and financial resources of the unions." (Page 51). This explains why the Works Councils Act itself has made clear in Sections 8, 20, 31, 37, 47, 66 (3), and 78 (1, 2, 3) that "the intention of the framers of the Act was that the works councils should act as subsidiary and subordinate organs of the trade unions, with distinct if complementary functions." (Page 41). It is equally important to bear in mind that

\* Vide Guillebaud, pages 161, 162, 163, 165 and 167.



"the works councils are expressly excluded by the Act from any right to co-operate in the determination of wage rates, wherever such rates are the subject of negotiation between trade unions and the employer or association of employers, i.e., wherever there is a collective agreement." (Page 149). Bombay to-day is in a position similar to that of Germany nine years ago. The legitimate trade union movement is being attacked on all sides and being weakened; and unless provisions similar to those in the German Act are made in any joint machinery that may be set up, the remedy might prove to be worse than the disease.

To sum up, the union's position in respect of the joint machinery is this:—  
 (a) The union is inclined to favour the setting up of a joint machinery between the representatives of the employers and employed with the object of creating and maintaining harmonious relations between the two. (b) Such a joint machinery should be based on a statute. (c) Without the backing and active support of the trade unions the joint machinery will not work; in fact the unions must form a component part of that machinery. (d) Provisions against any attempt that may be made to deprive the trade unions of their legitimate part in the machinery and to make it independent of them, should be incorporated. (e) The powers of the joint machinery should be adequate and such as will maintain the workers' interest in the work. Action should follow decisions that may be taken. (f) Provisions against dismissals should be incorporated in the joint machinery.

To make the machinery work smoothly, the attitude of the employers, particularly the subordinate officers, must be changed almost out of recognition. There must be a complete change of heart.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) The Millowners' Association submitted to the Textile Tariff Board a statement on the housing provided by the millowners and it appears on page 151, Vol. II, of the Board's report. It will be seen therefrom that only 17 out of 80 mills in Bombay have provided housing for only a few of their workmen. These 17 mills engage over 52,000 workers, and there are only about 4,500 one-room and 110 two-room tenements. The percentage of housing provided to the total number of workers is thus not more than 8.61. The union is not sure that even this small accommodation is occupied exclusively by the textile workers for whom it is primarily meant. There is no reason to believe that, after the Millowners' Association's statement was prepared in 1926, any change for the better has taken place in respect of the housing accommodation by the millowners.

(ii) Towards the end of 1919 or the beginning of 1920, the Government of Bombay announced an ambitious programme of building 50,000 tenements for the working class in order to reduce the then existing congestion. This is neither the place nor the occasion to go into the ruinous working of the development department to which the housing scheme along with other schemes were assigned for execution. Suffice it to say, like the other schemes committed to its care, the programme of the housing scheme was never fully carried out and, instead of building 50,000 tenements, the City got only 16,244 tenements, mostly one-roomed, at enormous costs. And out of these 16,244 tenements only between 6,000 to 7,000 have been recently occupied, and the rest are still vacant. There is no basis to suppose that these 7,000 tenements have been occupied by the textile workers only—a good many may have been occupied by other class of workers engaged in other industries. The only other public agency which provides housing on a large scale is the Bombay Improvement Trust. The union understands that it has so far built about 9,000 tenements some of which may have been occupied by the textile workers.

(iii) From the above figures it can be calculated that, between the millowners, the Government and the Improvement Trust, the housing provision is made only for about 12 per cent. of the textile workers. The union considers it as a fairly liberal calculation. The rest of the accommodation the private landlord provides.

(iv) The union is not aware of any case of a textile worker having a hut of his own in Bombay.

18. *Nature of Accommodation.*—From the knowledge of the housing conditions in Bombay, the union can safely say that in providing accommodation to the workers, neither their needs nor demands nor the health point of view has been taken into consideration by any of the agencies which provide accommodation. With the private landlord, the dominant idea in providing accommodation is, of course, profit and he utilizes every inch of the available space in order to get rent, and, therefore, a permanent source of income. In the case of only a very few employers some consideration seems to have been given to the habits of the people by providing pegs and some other requirements in Indian style. It is difficult to say anything about the development chawls, because to say it implies some consideration on the part

of the writer which the chawls hardly deserve. The Government announced a programme of 50,000 tenements, and 16,000 and odd rooms came to be built by putting some building materials together. This is all that can be said without transgressing the limits of decency and propriety. To express an opinion on the housing conditions in Bombay, the union cannot do better than quote what it wrote in 1926 in its statement to the Textile Tariff Board. The union also desires to draw the attention of the Commission to Prof. A. R. Burnett-Hurst's book on "Labour and Housing in Bombay," which gives graphic descriptions of the housing condition in this premier city of India.

The memorandum quotes the following published works :—Cotton Textile Tariff Board Report, 1927, Vol. III, pages 447-450. Shaw Report, pages 6 and 7. Purcell Hallsworth Report, pages 8 and 9.

(iii) The union does not think that any of the agencies which have provided industrial housing has made any provision for electric or gas lighting. The Bombay Electric Supply and Tramway Company has, it is learnt, fitted their chawls with electricity and a similar provision should be made in other chawls as well. The workers generally use kerosine lamps of the crude type. Conservancy arrangements and water supply is common to all the residents on one floor, and in times of scarcity of water the upper floors do not get sufficient water. There is now a tendency to replace the basket privies by flushing system, but the latter is not kept clean and insanitary conditions generally prevail. There may still be some chawls where basket privies still continue to exist and the insanitary atmosphere prevailing in and around those chawls can be better imagined than described.

20. From such information as the union possesses, it can be said that the rent generally charged for private and employers' chawls varies between Rs. 5 and 10. There may be a few old chawls where the rent may be less than Rs. 5. Reference has already been made in an earlier paragraph to the rents of the Development Department chawls. The union understands that since that paragraph was written the rents of the Development Department chawls have been lowered. Even then they are higher than those for private and employers' chawls. At one time the rents of these chawls were as high as Rs. 15 and more and by several instalments they have now been brought down to the present level. It may be well if the Commission will endeavour to secure from the Director of Information a statement containing the original rents charged when the Department Development chawls were built and the stages by which they were reduced and the amounts of such reductions. The original rent level of these chawls is greatly responsible for the fact that they have not yet been fully occupied. On the whole, the union's opinion is that with the present wage level and the cost of living in Bombay, the rents charged are high, and must be reduced in the interest of the workers.

21. *Special Housing Problems—Sub-letting.*—The union has no information about the extent, if any, to which the workers sub-let their rooms. It is many times stated that there is a practice of sub-letting among the workers, and the union is not surprised at the statement if it is true. The low wage level coupled with the cost of living and the heavy indebtedness, some workers may be feeling the necessity of getting some relief by sub-letting their tenements. There is also a tendency to keep boarders with the object of securing some further relief. The object underlying both these tendencies is not to make money at the cost of the worker's health but to endeavour to live within their means by trying to get some addition to the wages.

*Occupation of Employers' Houses by Non-textile Tenants and Evictions.*—It is already stated in an earlier paragraph that the union is not sure whether the employers' tenements have all been occupied by the textile workers. It is highly probable that there may be some non-textile tenants in those tenements. Had it not been so, the evictions during strikes should have been on a very large scale. The union is not inclined to believe that during prolonged strikes when it is difficult to receive rents, the employers are so charitable or sympathetic, in the case of labour, as to allow the workers to live on in their chawls without any guarantee to receive rents. In the last strike in the Wadia group of mills, the union understands that ejection notices had been given to the workers. This is one of the weapons in the hands of the employers to break the solidarity of the employees in strikes.

*Necessity of Housing under Public Control.*—It is the considered opinion of the union that the textile workers will not be able to attain the highest degree of efficiency until the existing housing conditions are altered out of recognition and overcrowding completely removed. To keep his body and mind in perfect and healthy condition every worker should have decent housing accommodation fitted up with the necessary requirements. The first requisite in the direction of achieving this object is a scheme for the rapid demolition of the slum area. Unless slums are destroyed, the prospects

of the better class of houses that may be provided being occupied may not be encouraging. The second requisite is that simultaneous efforts should be made to remodel the existing better types of chawls to suit the standard that may be fixed. The third requisite is that a programme of industrial housing spread over a stated period should be immediately prepared and the necessary steps, financial and otherwise, taken to carry it out. The fourth and the most important requisite is that industrial housing should be under public control, such as the Municipality or Government. Neither the employers nor the private landlords should have anything to do with it. The union also suggests that in any new area where factories may be allowed to be built, a town planning Act should be immediately brought into operation.

#### IV.—Health.

23. The general health conditions of the workers are very miserable, and they cannot be anything else when the housing conditions, wages, hours of work, diet, facilities for recreation and sports and other amenities of life continue to be what they have been all these years. The Bombay climate also adds its quota to increase the misery arising out of these conditions. In spite of all the improvements made in the general sanitation of the City, epidemics come in at frequent intervals and take a heavy toll from the poorer sections of the population. Malaria is a standing menace to the working class population in Bombay. The union desires to draw the attention of the Commission to a report, published last year, of Major Covell, who was specially appointed by the Bombay Government to enquire into the malarial conditions in this City. He pointed out therein that the most intense malaria at the present time exists in the vicinity of the mills. This and other diseases and the surrounding working and housing conditions produce the most disastrous effect upon the general health of the workers.

(i) The mortality figures may be obtained from the census reports and the annual reports of the Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay. It may only be pointed out here that the percentage of the death rate to the total mortality by age period in 1927 was 24·8 under 1 year, 15·5 under 1 to 5 years, 12·4 under 20 to 30 years and 11·2 under 30 to 40 years. The death rates per 1,000 of the population is 1·2 in the case of ague and remittent fever, 0·6 for small-pox, 1·3 for tuberculosis, and 7·6 for diseases of the respiratory system. If the death rate is considered by localities, it is seen that it is much higher in those which are mostly inhabited by the working class population than in those inhabited by the rich and middle classes. The Standing Committee of Bombay Municipal Corporation, in reviewing the Municipal Commissioner's Administration Report for 1927-28, have stated that the death rate (like the birth rate) is invariably high among the poorer classes and that deaths among the females are more than those among the men by at least 50 per cent. The sections of the City that are hard hit by mortality are those which are the most thickly populated.

(ii) The birth rate may be obtained from the census reports and the administration report of the Municipal Commissioner. The following tables in respect of infant mortality are taken from the latter report:—

*Infant Mortality Rate per 1,000 Birth.*

1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.
555·60	672·12	405·16	413·91	423·17	359·05	393·79	319·12

*Deaths of Infants by Age Periods in 1927.*

Age Period.	Deaths.	Percentage of deaths to total deaths under 1 year of age.
Under 1 week .. .. .	1,590	23·1
1 to 4 weeks .. .. .	962	14·1
1 to 6 months .. .. .	1,949	28·4
6 to 12 months .. .. .	2,356	34·4
Total .. .. .	6,857	100·0

*Infant Mortality by the Number of Rooms occupied in 1927.*

	One room and under.	Two rooms.	Three rooms.	Four rooms.	Total, including deaths in hospitals, etc.
Deaths ..	5,688	352	87	34	6,857
Percentage ..	83·0	5·1	1·3	0·5	100·0

*Infant Mortality per 1,000 Births, registered by Number of Rooms occupied.*

Year.	One room and under.	Two rooms.	Three rooms.	Four rooms.
1921 .. ..	828·5	321·9	191·4	133·3
1922 .. ..	470·9	435·7	421·6	300·3
1923 .. ..	524·4	394·5	255·4	246·5
1924 .. ..	557	313·3	271·2	125
1925 .. ..	503	242	236	157
1926 .. ..	577	254	215	163
1927 .. ..	490	203	222	195

These figures are so eloquent that the union does not propose to make any comment thereon and thereby mar their effect.

(iii) (a) It is not possible for the union to say much about the working conditions in factories as the union officials have not visited many mills. Speaking generally it can be said that from the point of view of the machinery, the working conditions in some mills are fair while in others they are not satisfactory. The union knows that the employers take more care of their machinery than of their workers. Complaints from the workers about the quality of the material supplied are many and come frequently. The workers also complain about the speeding up of the machinery, which not infrequently means excessive work, due to more than usual breakages in yarn and similar disturbances in the weaving of cloth. During cold weather, more steam is circulated in the sheds which causes uneasiness to the workers; and in hot weather, cases of the workers having fainted occurred in the past. It also complained that in such mills as are old and not built on new and up-to-date model, there is no access for fresh air to come in. In respect of the amenities provided for the workers, it must be said that there are practically none. There are no dining sheds where the operatives can go and take their food. Workers taking their food near the machines or in some dirty corners in a compound, is a usual feature that a visitor to a mill comes across. No smoke rooms or covered places where workers can go and have a smoke are provided. If they want to smoke they must go near the privies or some other open spaces if the mill compound is large. There is also no provision made for the workers to take rest during recess hours. Provisions as regards latrines, drinking water, etc., are dealt with in a subsequent paragraph.

(iii) (b) The references to the housing conditions in earlier paragraphs will, it is hoped, give the Commission an idea about the home life of the operatives, and it does not seem to be necessary to add anything here.

(iv) The "Working Class Budgets—Bombay," published by the Labour Office in 1923, gives some account of the kind of food the workers generally take and the expenditure they spend over it. Nearly 50 per cent. of the family budgets collected by the Labour Office for their enquiry were the budgets of the textile workers and the conclusions reached by them can be said to apply fairly accurately to these workers. The following extract is taken from that book:—

"The consumption in all budgets varies between .91 lb. (412·77 grams) per adult male of cereals per diem in the lowest class, and 1·53 lb. (693·99 grams) in the highest class. The (weighted) average is 1·29 lb. (585·13 grams). The corresponding figures for the budgets, exclusive of scavengers, are 1·06 lb. (480·81 grams) for the lowest class, 1·55 lb. (703·06 grams) for the highest class, and 1·37 lb. (621·42 grams) the weighted average for all the classes.

"It is interesting to compare these results with the scales laid down in the Bombay Famine Relief Code, 1912, and those for jail diets in Bombay. The family budgets contain more varied diets than do the jail diets and 'other food' in the table, excludes

sweetmeats, fish, condiments and spices, vegetables, fruit refreshments and other food for which no estimates of quantity are available. The minimum and maximum amounts of cereals in the Famine Code are approximately .86 lb. (390.09 grams) and 1.29 lb. (585.13 grams) and in the Bombay jail diets, 1.38 lb. (625.95 grams) and 1.50 lb. (680.39 grams). Lt.-Col. D. McCay (then Capt. McCay), I.M.S., in his "Investigations on Bengal Jail Diets," is of opinion that 1.38 lb. (625.95 grams) of cereals per diem is the most suitable amount required per man which will ensure the maximum absorption of protein, etc., from the diet.

"The general conclusion is that industrial workers consume the maximum of cereals allowed by the Famine Code but less than the diet prescribed in the Bombay Jail Manual." (Pages 20-21.)

The report further says that expenditure on milk and ghee is negligible in the lowest income classes and that expenditure on grains occupy a major portion of the total expenditure. With such equipment in respect of food, the textile operative starts on his work to serve his master.

(v) Their physique of the textile workers is extremely poor. They have no stamina which will stand them in good stead against malaria and other diseases and epidemics. Mr. Tom Shaw in his report says :—

"To a European eye, the first sight of the textile workers of Bombay or Madras is extremely depressing. Owing to the Indian dress, a great deal of the body, of course, is to be seen. In Bombay, as a rule, the workers seem to be underfed, their bodies seem to be emaciated and their legs are like spindles." (Page 20.)

The union desires to draw the attention of the commission to section 21 (pages 47-50)—"Physique of Mill Workers"—of "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills," by T. Maloney, the present secretary of the Bombay Millowners' Association, and to table No. 51 (pages 127-128) of the same book, containing the average weights of the workers. The following extracts are taken from the said section :—

(1) "The low average weight as compared with other classes of labour is very noticeable. The average of 99 lb. for all mill operatives is below the minimum weight for police recruits of the same average height." (Page 48.)

(2) "The weight records of 63 mill hands in Bombay showed that after an average of eight months' continuous work in the mills there was an average decrease of .36 lb. in weight in the second half of service as compared with the first." (Page 49.)

(3) "The very general practice of Bombay mill hands of returning to their up-country homes has a beneficial effect upon their general health as reflected by weight ; and counteracts to a very large extent the effects of working and living conditions in Bombay." (Page 50.)

(vi) In Bombay City the ratio of females to males is, the union understands, 525 to 1,000. This is indeed highly unsatisfactory. The proportion of females to males would, the union believes, still be lower if the ratio is calculated on the industrial population only. The effects of such disproportion cannot but be unhealthy. The workers are easily exposed to all kinds of temptations of city life.

(vii) The relation between housing and mortality can be easily understood by referring to the table of infant mortality according to the rooms occupied, which is given in paragraph 61.

24. (i) to (iii) In several of the Bombay mills medical facilities are reported to have been provided ; but the union understands they are, in a majority of cases, in the nature of first-aid appliances and not in the nature of dispensaries. The medical men who are engaged are, barring a few exceptions, part-timers and have generally their own private practice in the mill area. How far these so-called dispensaries are properly equipped can be ascertained by the expenditure each mill incurs on the purchase of medicines ; and it would be worth while to secure this information. The union is also informed that some mills charge the operatives at some flat rate for the medical facilities provided, irrespective of whether or not the operatives so charged take advantage of those facilities. There are five large hospitals in Bombay with over 800 beds and outpatient departments and other small hospitals aided by Government and Municipality, of which some workers take advantage from time to time. The Bombay Municipality is conducting three dispensaries where, it is understood, free medical aid is given to the poor. Private agencies such as the Social Service League, Y.W.C.A., the Blind Relief Association endeavour to give free medical facilities to the workers. The League is very successfully conducting a charitable dispensary for women and children and it is taken advantage of on a very large scale.

(iv) According to the Administration Report of the Municipal Commissioner for 1927-28, there are only ten nurses who are qualified midwives. They do some work of visiting the chawls and helping the women and children in their illness. This provision is merely a drop in the ocean and must be increased in proportion to the female labour population in this city.

25. The workers do not, generally, for many reasons, take advantage of the medical facilities provided by the millowners to the extent to which they should. In the first place, the medical facilities are reported to be too inadequate and unsatisfactory. There are a set number of stock mixtures kept ready, the workers further say, and they are given one or more of the mixtures, whatever the nature of the disease may be. Secondly, it is complained that the patients' examination by the mill doctors is not always thorough. What is generally done is, it is further stated, that the doctors generally depend for their diagnosis upon the versions of the patients and at times only touch their pulse or lever. Thirdly, many of the mill doctors being only part timers, are not available to the workers even during working periods. This naturally reduces the utility of the medical facilities provided. Lastly, from the nature of the complaints received from the work people, the union guesses that the touch of human sympathy is lacking in dealing with the mill patients. It is not realized that the illness of an operative reacts on the mill efficiency and it is in the interest of the mills that the worker is treated sympathetically and with all the care that is necessary. All these causes have prejudiced the workers' minds against the medical facilities provided by the mills and are as far as possible very reluctant to take their advantage. A well-paid worker generally prefers to go to a private practitioner where he is better examined and treated. A low-paid worker has no alternative but either to take advantage of the mill facilities or suffer in silence.

26. (i) In the mills, latrines are provided in accordance with the provisions made in the rules under the Indian Factories Act. It has already been pointed out that in some mills the basket privies still continue to exist and the sanitary conditions are abominable. Where flushing system exists, the sanitary conditions are not generally good perhaps occasionally due to shortage of water. At times the flushes do not work properly, which helps to create insanitary conditions. One may compare the privies provided for the superior staff with the privies for the operatives and one will immediately detect the difference in the sanitary conditions. This memorandum has, in earlier paragraphs, dealt with the kind of latrines provided in the chawls. Not only are they most insanitary but their number is quite inadequate with the requirements of the people who stay there. There must be some statutory provision compelling the owners of the chawls to provide a definite number of latrines according to the number of people residing and to keep them in complete sanitary conditions. It should also be provided that the latrines should be separated from the rows of tenements and should be at some distance from them.

(ii) The problem of drinking water in Bombay mills is not so much the provision of its adequate supply as the provision of its *cool* supply. The mills have no doubt provided water, but the taps are generally in open spaces and water becomes hot immediately. The thirst of the people cannot be quenched by drinking hot water; on the contrary, it is increased. What is necessary is that drinking water should be provided in well protected rooms and suitable precautions taken to keep it very cool. In the chawls, water taps from which drinking water is taken for storage are very close to the latrines. Such a provision is highly objectionable from the sanitary point of view and must be stopped. For the purposes of storing drinking water, each tenement, or the tenement where cooking is done, should be provided with a water tap.

(iii) So far as the union is aware, bathing and washing arrangements are not provided for in a majority of mills. The workers go to the mills at 7 a.m., and come back at 6 p.m. It is not always possible that all of them can take their bath before going to the mill owing largely to the inadequacy of the provision in the chawls. The Bombay climate being what it is, it is necessary for the workers who have to work in the sheds for full ten hours under atmospheric conditions which are not always cool, to have a bath every day. A bath is highly refreshing and may add to the energy and perhaps efficiency of the workers. It is thus in the interest of the employers and as well as of the workers to have suitable bathing facilities provided in the mills. In the chawls there are generally two common taps provided for each floor and they are used for baths, washing clothes and utensils and storing drinking water. The space where these taps are given, is generally open from all sides although it is protected from above. There is no privacy and even women have to take their bath in the presence of many others. The union feels that the chawls should be provided with suitable and adequate bath rooms.

27. According to the latest report of the chief factory inspector, there are only four full time inspectors, including one lady, and three assistant inspectors in addition to the chief inspector. Considering the increasing number of factories and the area of the Presidency, the union is of the opinion that the present staff is inadequate and should be increased. The number of women inspectors also should be increased.

28. The union has not so far studied the question of temperature and humidification in the cotton mills and is not, therefore, in a position to express an opinion on the improvements necessary from the point of view of the workers. It only draws the

attention of the commission to Mr. Maloney's report on "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills," the recommendations he has made and to the remarks of the chief factory inspector in his 1928 report (pages 7-8) about the sanitation and ventilation.

29. (i) So far as the textile industry is concerned no systematic effort seems to have been made either by the employers or Government to find out the extent of industrial diseases and to adopt remedies. Looking to the nature of the work that some of the workers have to do, it can be said that the industrial diseases must be prevailing and attempts should be made to combat them.

(ii) Owing to the bad housing and working conditions and their low stamina, the workers become easy victims to diseases like malaria, small-pox or hook-worm and epidemics like cholera. The Municipality is making efforts to check these diseases but more efforts are necessary.

30. *Sickness Insurance*.—The Union proposes to deal only with the draft convention on sickness insurance for workers in industry, commerce and domestic servants and the recommendation passed by the tenth session of the International Labour Conference; it is not in a position to say anything on the draft convention which deals with agricultural workers. While recognizing that the draft convention dealing with industrial and domestic workers, contains a few items which may be rather difficult of being carried out to the full in the beginning, the union is clearly of the opinion that it should be given effect to to the utmost possible extent. The union realizes that the adoption of the draft convention means the fulfilment of its minimum conditions. But having allowed the workers to suffer all these years and exposed them to the risks of industrialization it is no argument to say that it is difficult to fulfil even the minimum demands of the draft convention. Serious and prolonged disease requires a most drastic remedy and the draft convention which is the greatest common measure of agreement between the governments, employers and workers assembled in an international gathering, provides that remedy and no Government which is solicitous of the welfare of the masses, can possibly reject it without grave risk to the workers and thereby to the development of the industries. Instead of harping upon the difficulties of carrying out the terms of the draft convention, Government would have been better advised to use their powers and resources to face those difficulties and adopt a suitable machinery for sickness insurance. Mr. N. M. Joshi offered them a compromise when he moved his amendment\* to the resolution\* of the Hon. Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra rejecting the draft convention on sickness insurance. It would have been graceful and proved the sincerity of the Government of India to do something by the working classes in this country, if they had seen their way to accept Mr. Joshi's amendment. But they not only opposed it but even challenged its admissibility. The President of the Assembly, however, overruled the objection and allowed the motion. But Government remained adamant and defeated Mr. Joshi's amendment. It should also be borne in mind that they brought in their resolution on the last day of the Assembly Session, when some non-official members had already left Delhi and Government had an easy time. Surely this is not a fair way of dealing with the working classes. The Hon. Sir Bhupendra Nath brought forth laboured arguments and difficulties which were effectively dealt with by Messrs. Joshi and Chaman Lall and need not be repeated here. It is indeed surprising that Government did not see their way to accept even the recommendation on sickness insurance which simply defined the general principles on which sickness insurance scheme should be organized and administered. The acceptance of that recommendation would have at least meant that Government accepted the principle of sickness insurance. Their rejection only showed them up and proved that they were not willing to do anything. Their promise of consulting the Local Governments who are often more conservative than the Central Government, and sometimes hostile to the legitimate demands of the workers, is a piece of dilatory tactics. The union is of the opinion that in spite of the difficulties that may exist, every endeavour should be made to give effect to the draft convention and the recommendation as fully as possible; and in case that may not be possible, the union agrees to the modified proposal of Mr. Joshi.

The union desires it to be understood that in stating its views on other systems, it sticks to the principles laid down in the Geneva Convention and Recommendation. If it is found on careful investigation that there are practical difficulties in giving effect to the convention as modified by Mr. Joshi, and the recommendation, then only, the union suggests that other methods of sickness insurance which may fall short of the convention and the recommendation, should be considered. As the Commission is fully aware, there are two recognized ways of insuring the system of sickness insurance, one voluntary and the other compulsory. Before expressing an opinion in favour of one of the two systems, it is necessary to define the scope of sickness insurance. In the general introduction to the "Compulsory Sickness Insurance,"

\* Assembly debates, 27th March, 1928.

containing comparative analysis of national laws and statistics, published by the International Labour Office in 1927 (Studies and Reports, Series M., No 6) contains the following observations on the scope of sickness insurance system —

“ Insurance should no longer confine its efforts to meeting the needs which arise from the weakness of the human constitution ; it must pursue the evil to its origin and no longer accept sickness as a risk which cannot be averted. Insurance benefits must look to the source of disease and not merely to its consequences. Their final object is not assistance but the creation of new productive capacity.

“ Compensation for economic loss is henceforth only one of the functions of an insurance system designed to economise human energy. The principle object is to reduce as far as possible the damage resulting from avoidable disease and to provide healthy living conditions for the workers. Insurance would combat disease in its cause. If, however, an illness cannot be prevented, then the business of insurance is to compensate and restore to health. It can never indeed give up its original function of providing the sick with the means of subsistence to replace the earnings which cease with sickness ; nevertheless, in order to eliminate the cause of such loss of earnings, it is the endeavour of insurance to cure the sick person and restore him to active life as soon as possible.” (Page 14.)

“ Restoration rather than compensation is, however, the principle function of insurance. In its origin insurance aimed at providing the sick with benefits in kind to replace the wages which they were unable to earn. Little by little this idea has yielded to a wider and more genuinely social conception which makes the restoration of the patient the first consideration. Benefits in kind intended to restore the health of the patient begin to overtake the cash benefits.” (Page 16.)

“ Sickness insurance is taking on a family character : it protects the worker's family and no longer the insured person alone.” (Page 17.)

“ Sickness insurance has become the guardian of the health of the worker's family. In virtue of this task, which it has taken up widely of late years, sickness insurance has become the principle instrument of a health policy for the masses of the population.” (Page 18.)

“ Sickness insurance is endeavouring to fulfil ever more completely its task of protecting the health of the working-class family and maintaining the worker's capacity to produce by widening the circle of insured persons, perfecting the system of benefits which perform the three-fold function of relief, cure and prevention, concentrating the means of action, and systematically organizing autonomous institutions under the control of the parties concerned.

“ Thus, compulsory sickness insurance, as creator of security, health, well-being and productive capacity, and as instrument of education, is an element both important and necessary in the proper economic and social organization of communities.” (Page 26.)

This scope of sickness insurance has been accepted as desirable and necessary after considerable experience of over a century, and there is no reason why India should not accept it. To begin from the beginning and then make changes after gaining experience is a proposition which the union, in this case at any rate, does not accept. One should profit by others' experience and get wiser.

*Voluntary and Compulsory Insurance.*—Having thus accepted, as the union does accept, this broad scope of sickness insurance, it is necessary to see, from the experience of other countries, whether voluntary system of sickness insurance has achieved results commensurate with this scope. The “ Voluntary Sickness Insurance ” (I.L.O., Studies and Reports, Series M., No. 7), has the following observations to make on this point :—

“ The scope of voluntary insurance remains too narrow ; a large section of the wage-earners and the poorer population generally have failed to join provident institutions. This failure is especially marked in the case of persons whose earnings are low, and who, by reason of their precarious livelihood, are more subject to disease, and whose need of insurance against the risk is therefore more pressing. Moreover, membership of mutual benefit societies is not constant, but diminishes appreciably whenever an economic crisis occurs which causes unemployment and reduces wages.

“ In spite of the financial aid of the State, the resources of voluntary insurance funds are generally very limited. A general meeting does not willingly consent to the raising of the contribution. The inevitable result is that benefits are inadequate and the insured have to bear the greater part of the income loss and medical expenses.” (Page 46.)

“ With a view to avoiding bad risks, voluntary insurance institutions systematically exclude persons who do not satisfy the conditions of health required. In practice, voluntary insurance is not open to persons who most need medical protection, and this is a serious disadvantage of the voluntary system.” (Pages 29-30.)



"To what should this small membership of the (voluntary) funds be attributed? To the natural improvidence of man and the preference for individual thrift among the more well-to-do workers, but also, and above all, to the insufficiency and precariousness of the resources of the low wage workers, who often suffer from unemployment. It is a fact that at the present time a large number of workers, chiefly among those who have family responsibilities, do not earn enough to pay insurance contributions, although it is among them that disease and infant mortality are most serious. This situation is undoubtedly the weightiest objection that can be raised to voluntary insurance.

"To sum up, it must be stated that voluntary insurance, in spite of the tenacious and remarkable efforts that have been made and in spite of its continuous development, is making only slow progress and, except in two countries, has failed to cover more than a small proportion of the total population or the working population, and that in particular its benefits do not apply to many poorly paid persons, precisely those who have the most need of mutual aid." (Pages 34-35.)

With this experience of other countries before it, the union does not think it advisable to support the voluntary basis of sickness insurance. It unhesitatingly supports the compulsory basis which perhaps may be started, in the beginning, on a restricted scale. The State, as guardian of public health and national prosperity, should consider, as many States in Europe do consider, it both a right and a duty to impose compulsion in this matter. Insurance is a social duty the performance of which the State may, in the general interest, enforce.

*Contributory or Non-contributory Basis.*—In European and other industrially advanced countries the question whether insurance should be contributory or non-contributory has almost ceased to be discussed, at least so far as sickness insurance is concerned. Contributory basis has generally been accepted as the right basis of sickness insurance. The persons insured, the employer and the State are the parties to the scheme and they contribute to the insurance fund in certain proportion which varies according to national conditions. It is recognized that the "contribution is the feature which distinguishes insurance from relief, creates a right to benefits and justifies the participation of insured person in the management of insured institutions." (Compulsory Sickness Insurance, pages 20-21.) The fact, however, is that "the basis for the sharing of cost is the result of a complex of conditions which varies from country to country, and even in the same country at different periods: the level of wages in relation to the cost of living (i.e., the ability of insured persons to contribute), the prosperity of production (i.e., the ability of undertakings to bear social charges), the state of public finances (i.e., the possibility of obtaining from the taxpayer money to subsidise insurance), the power of trade unions of employers and workers, the composition, tendencies and attitude on social questions of Governments and parliamentary majorities. The solution adopted in each country is a compromise between the various conceptions and opposing interests and forces in which the present considerations of expediency play a more important part than theories" (*ibid.*, page 22). It has also been recognised that "in whatever way workers' participation (in the insurance scheme) is justified it must always be subordinate to the examination of a preliminary question relating to the theory of wages. If it is proved that wages normally contain a surplus intended for provident purposes, the sickness insurance fund has obviously the right to claim its share, but in no other case" (*ibid.*, page 407). In the opinion of the union the question of instituting sickness insurance in India should be considered from the point of view of the sound principle just enunciated. It will be shown in a subsequent chapter that the wages that a majority of the Bombay workers get leave no surplus, and in many cases they leave the workers in indebtedness. Surely then the workers, or at any rate those who come under this category, must be exempted from their contributions. The union, therefore, feels that for some time to come the basis of compulsory sickness insurance should be non-contributory and not contributory. This suggestion is made, not with the object of allowing the workers to shirk their share of contributions and increasing the burden on the employers and the State but with the sole idea of not putting on the workers financial responsibility which they cannot truly undertake and which may drive them into further indebtedness. The union is not alone in making this suggestion; it has the backing of a few countries where low-paid workers are exempted from any contributions. In Great Britain, for example, "the Act classifies as insured persons with low wages those who are 18 or more years of age and who earn less than 4s. a day and whose remuneration does not include board and lodging. The total contribution is fixed as for other insured persons, but it is paid by the employer alone if the wages are less than 3s. In Estonia and Latvia the contribution for persons whose money wage is less than two-thirds of the average wage of an unskilled worker must be paid by the employer. In Japan, for persons who earn less than 55 sen a day the contribution is payable by the employer alone. A similar provision is in force in the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom for persons whose remuneration in cash is less than the basic wage in the lowest wage class (or 2 dinars a day).

In Norway no contribution is paid by persons in the lowest wage class." (Compulsory Sickness Insurance, pages 426-27.) In the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland the employers pay the whole contribution for persons in the lower group of wages. The point the union wants to emphasize is that the basis of contributions is being steadily shifted from the contract of employment to the economic capacity of the workers and the union is suggesting the non-contributory basis as being more conformable to Indian conditions.

If, however, it is insisted that the compulsory insurance system should be based on a contributory basis the union suggests that the low-paid workers' wages should be increased to the extent of their contribution to the insurance fund, or in the alternative, their share of the contribution should be paid by the employers. In the case of the other workers whose wages are above the minimum that may be fixed for this purpose a graded system of insurance rates should be introduced. In Great Britain, again, the practice according to law is that "if the wages are over 8s. but less than 4s., the normal rate of 4½d. for men and 4d. for women is changed to 3½d. and 3d. respectively, the employers' share being in both cases 5½d. (i.e., eleven-eightieths or 61 per cent. for men and eleven-seventieths, or 65 per cent. for women, of the total contribution)." There can possibly be no doubt that for some years at least the State in India will have to contribute a very decent share to the insurance funds.

*Benefits.*—As has already been pointed out, the modern tendency in sickness insurance is to provide greater medical facilities, both preventive and curative, in addition to the benefits in cash for the maintenance of the insured person and his family. The principle business of sickness insurance is to put at the service of every insured person a proper provision of medical aid as sickness insurance, better than any other instruments of social welfare, is fitted to assist, by organizing medical treatment, in improving the health of the population. In a number of countries it is also the business of sickness insurance to cover the funeral expenses of the insured and his dependants. The insured person should have at his disposal medical attendance, drugs and other medicines, hospitals, and the assistance of specialists, surgeons, physicians. This can be achieved only by the co-ordination, on a territorial basis, of all the medical facilities and assistance that may be available. The insured person should have an additional or alternative benefit in cash, according to the needs, for himself and his family. The union does not believe that it is called upon to go into the details of these and other cognate matters. Once the fundamentals are decided upon the details can be worked out comparatively easily, and those responsible for this work have the benefit of the I.L.O. and other publications on this subject.

*How to Meet Difficulties.*—The union fully realizes the difficulties that stand in the way of introducing sickness insurance system, and of all the difficulties, the financial difficulty is the greatest. But it, along with others, must be faced and solved. In the matter of financial difficulty, India is not the only country that has got it. Every other country must have got it in the initial stages, and it has by investigations and experience solved it. India must do the same if she wants to rescue her population from the horrible position it is in to-day. It is not the work of a trade union like this to show how to get over the financial difficulty. Its business is to prove the necessity of adopting schemes for the amelioration of the workers' condition. It is the Government who must tackle the problem of finance. If they have the will they can solve it. By cutting down the present huge military expenditure, by judicious economy of the present expenditure particularly in respect of the Services and by suitable adjustment of the present system of taxation, Government may be able to finance the scheme not only of sickness insurance but of social insurance as well. In the case of the low-paid workers the union only desires to draw the attention of the Commission to a law in Portugal the provisions of which are to the following effect:—

"(i) Persons of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 75 who do not possess an annual income or wage higher than 900 escudos are actually insured; they pay contributions and are entitled to benefits in case of sickness. (Section 3.)

(ii) Landlords, military, civil and administrative officials, merchants, shopkeepers, manufacturers and persons who live upon dividends, if they enjoy an annual income higher than 900 escudos, constitute the group "born" insured; they pay contributions, but have no right to benefit in case of sickness. (Section 4.)

Persons belonging to the first group alone can be regarded as genuinely insured, so that the Portuguese scheme is an example of the insurance of workers on small means, whether dependent or independent." (Compulsory Sickness Insurance, page 127.)

The workers are slowly getting accustomed to western medicine and there is no difficulty on that score. Moreover, in the organization and co-ordination of

medical treatment and facilities, the two Indian systems—*Ayurvedic* and *Unani*—should find adequate place so that the objections, if any, of the orthodox section of the workers can be met. In the application of the scheme on a limited scale to start with, the question of paucity of medical men does not, in the opinion of the union, arise. There is a fair number of medical men in cities and towns whose practice is not always remunerative, and their services can be utilized for the insurance work. The union has already stated that Bombay labour is not migratory, and from its point of view it presents no difficulty on the score of its migratory habits which do not exist.

31. (i) There are no schemes as such for maternity benefits in most of the Bombay mills. The Bombay Labour Office may be in a position to supply the Commission with information regarding the practice existing in a few mills under which some payment is made to a few women at the time of confinement. The union's information is that in about thirteen mills there is a provision for paying one to two months' wages during confinement, and, in a few mills, granting leave for six weeks. Whether this leave is on full pay, which is an addition to the benefits that are paid, is a point on which the union has no information, but it is inclined to think that the leave is without pay. Apart from that, such a provision exists in only a handful of mills and advantage is taken of it on a limited scale. The Commission may perhaps be in a position to get information about the total amount spent by these mills on maternity benefits during the last five years, and the total number of women employed by them. The union's feeling is that the women workers do not get adequate advantage of the provisions that may exist, that the provisions themselves are confined to only a few mills, and that they are not adequate.

(ii) Some four years ago Mr. N. M. Joshi introduced in the Legislative Assembly a Maternity Benefit Bill, the scope of which was confined to the factories and mines governed by the Indian Factories and Mines Acts and to large-scaled plantations. The Bill only enunciated the general principles of maternity benefits and left the details to be worked out under the Rules. The Bill was opposed by Government and capitalist element in the Assembly, and the result was that it was defeated by only four votes. In the Bombay Legislative Council Mr. R. S. Asavali introduced last year a Maternity Bill, and it was passed, with considerable modifications, into law in March of this year. Under this Act a woman expecting confinement gets leave of absence for a month prior to delivery, is prohibited from work for four weeks after delivery, and gets eight annas a day for a maximum period of seven weeks and is protected from dismissal during that period.

(iii) The union is firmly of the opinion that an all-India maternity legislation embodying the recognized principles of such legislation is what is essential. Provincial legislation is objectionable on the ground that the province having such legislation entails some financial burden on its employers thereby increasing their costs and the latter are put in a disadvantageous position in respect of the employers in other provinces where no such legislation exists. Further, the employer alone should not be asked to bear the financial burden; it is the State, which is the guardian of public health and child welfare which must contribute substantially to the maternity benefits scheme. As in the sickness insurance scheme, so in this scheme as well, the cash benefits only do not satisfy the requirements; benefits in kind or medical facilities are the most important consideration. It is recognized that "rest is indispensable to expectant mothers, and pregnancy can only follow its normal course and be attended with satisfactory results if proper pre-natal care is ensured, and this obviously implies abstention from work before confinement. A normal confinement will be facilitated by proper medical attention and care during pregnancy; while it is essential that mothers should be assisted by a doctor or midwife during and immediately after confinement. The mother after her confinement obviously needs rest and care, and is consequently unfit for work for some time after that event, while the new-born infant also requires the care and the presence of its mother, who should be able to feed and nurse it. The conditions under which newly-born infants are fed, and an opportunity for their mothers to submit them to periodical medical examination are essential features of any system of child welfare. Both in the interests of the mother and of the child all these requirements must be fulfilled." (Compulsory Sickness Insurance, page 341-42.) In most of the modern states with a properly organized system of compulsory sickness insurance, the benefits, which include in many countries nursing bonus as well, connected with motherhood, are granted under that system. The union prefers this method to the one leaving the payment of the benefits to the employer.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. *Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time.*—The Labour Office collected some material in 1926 on the utilisation of workers' spare time, and their report was published in the *Labour Gazette* in 1927. It showed that the problem had received

very little consideration at the hands of the employers in the textile industry. What a few of the employers have been doing, or rather were doing for a few years when the industry was yielding bumper profits is, or rather was, in the nature of providing some facilities in respect of small medical aid, minor educational facilities, a few co-operative societies, etc. The larger problem of the development of the workers' physical, intellectual, material and moral qualities has never been tackled. Information about the actual welfare work being done by the employers may be obtained from the Millowners' Association and the Labour Office. It would be interesting to know the expenditure they are spending on welfare work and the amount from it which is spent on salaries of the staff, rent, etc., so that one may get an idea of the actual amount spent on welfare work as such and the benefits accrued to the worker. There are only a few non-official public bodies, such as the Social Service League, the Y.M.C.A., and the Y.W.C.A., which are carrying on some useful activities; but owing to financial stringency their work is considerably handicapped. The union does not think that there are any welfare officers in the Bombay mills.

34. (i) There are, generally speaking, no refreshment rooms conducted by the mills for their workers. An adjoining shopkeeper takes his tea and some refreshments inside the mills and sells them to the workers. There is no supervision or control over the quality of the refreshments supplied. Shelters there are practically none. The workers pass their recess period either by going to their homes or by lying down near their machines or in some dirty corner of the mill premises. Some mills have got creches.

35. The results achieved by the employers welfare work are, in the opinion of the union, almost negligible by looking to the total number of workers and the magnitude of the task. The workers, too, have begun to look upon the employers' work in this direction with suspicion. They feel that the welfare work is designed to tighten the grip of the employers upon their employees. This feeling is not peculiar to India or Bombay alone; it existed in the minds of the European workers as well, as will be seen from the following quotation from the Voluntary Sickness Insurance:—

"What is worse, they (the employers' schemes of welfare works) excited the distrust of the masses and the opposition of the Socialist parties, which were rapidly growing up. The worker and his trade union saw in the employers' generosity a means of restricting the worker's freedom of movement and binding him by the ties of material interest, apparent rather than real however, to the undertaking which employs him. The Socialist parties objected to the employers' schemes on the ground that their one-sided management excluded the workmen, that they offered none of the educative opportunities which are necessary in a democratic State, that it weakened the will of the working class to emancipate itself, and that, after all, the benefits offered were fragmentary and of little value." (Page 22.) The employers on their side also seem to think that the workers, by resorting to strikes, do not appreciate the value of welfare work. There is also a feeling which occasionally finds expression in private talks that welfare work may be considered as a substitute for trade union work and that workers should not agitate and cause embarrassment to their employers. While in no way depreciating the value of genuine welfare work, the union feels that it is being done under an atmosphere of suspicion and distrust on either side, and that may perhaps be the reason why the British T.U.C. Delegation characterised the welfare work as a "delusion and a snare."

36. So far as the union is aware, the employers have not made any provision for the education of adult workers for their children. Half-timers there are practically none in Bombay.

37. There are a few mills which give some gratuity to some workers who have put in long service or which give provident fund where the system of provident fund exists. But these systems are objectionable on the ground that they are more or less based on the goodwill of the employers and controlled by them. Secondly, it is not always that each and every worker who has put in a prescribed period of service invariably gets gratuity. The tendency to select such men for gratuity as were in the good books of the superior staff or the head-jobbers, is inevitable when the grant of gratuity has not got the sanction of any rules behind it. In the case of the provident fund system, the workers do not get its full advantage as they are liable to be dismissed any moment and when they are so dismissed, they forfeit the employers' share of the fund. They do not, therefore, join the fund, where it exists in large numbers. With the insecurity of employment and low wages, the workers have no possibility of saving much for their old age. There is a clear necessity for the provision of old age pensions and for premature retirement. If there is to be any provident fund scheme, it should be statutory and on a more satisfactory basis. The practice of paying gratuity, where it is to exist, should also be statutory and

compulsory. The financial side of the old age pensions scheme the union has not considered for want of time, and it is, it thinks, mainly the work of Government to find ways and means.

38. The union has not studied the question of co-operation or taken part in the co-operative movement as its attention was almost always concentrated on more pressing problems of the day. It has considerable faith in the movement which is expected to do much good to the workers. It suggests that the industrial workers' co-operative credit societies should be subsidized by Government in the same way in which the agriculturists' societies are subsidized. The union considers that a statutory welfare fund should be started not only for miners but also for other industrial workers as well.

#### VI.—Education.

40. (i) In the F and G wards of the city, which are mostly located by the working class families, the Bombay municipality has made primary education free and compulsory for children between 7 and 11. The latest report of the schools committee shows that the number of children of compulsory age before the introduction of compulsion, and on 31st March, 1926, 1927 and 1928 was 17,200, 17,613, 18,698 and 17,554 respectively; and the number of children attending schools for the same periods and dates was respectively 5,663, 12,001, 13,371 and 13,005. The percentage of literacy in those wards thus was 32 before the introduction of compulsion, 68, 71 and 74 on 31st March, 1926, 1927 and 1928 respectively. The progress thus far made may be said to be fair and encouraging. But the trouble is that as there is no provision for further education when the boys begin to go to the factories, they again lapse into illiteracy, and whatever knowledge they may have acquired in four years of compulsion, practically disappears in subsequent years.

(ii) The number of children employed in factories is very small and the union is not aware of any provision being made for their education. As the minimum age of entering the factories is now 12, it will be well if the age of compulsion is also raised from 11 to 12.

(iii) The report of the schools committee does not say a word about the provision of the education of adults, which only shows that there is no provision made by the municipality. There may be a few night schools where some adult workers may be going for receiving education; but their number is very small. The union tried to open an adult class at Kurla, but it did not last long. It was found that after working in the mills for ten hours a day the worker has not got the physical and mental energy to learn. While appreciating the efforts of introducing compulsory education for children, the union is of the opinion that the crying need of the hour is the provision for adult education. The fruits of the present compulsion can be seen only after some years; but the industry and the welfare of labour cannot afford to wait any longer. A well-knit scheme of adult education must be introduced immediately not only in Bombay but in other parts of the Presidency wherefrom the textile labour is drawn.

*Illiteracy a Menace.*—Illiteracy is a most dangerous menace to progress. It is impeding the national growth in every direction. The work of organization of labour is considerably handicapped by the illiteracy of the workers. They do not realise wherein their true and permanent interests lie. They, therefore, fall a victim either to extreme conservatism and exploitation of the millowners or to the extreme programme of the labour movement. The middle path which is always a sure, though difficult path to follow, the workers decline to follow after bitter experiences and disappointments. The result is either the sullenness bordering on aversion to organization on the part of the workers or the serious industrial unrest, strikes and lockouts. Both these tendencies are ruinous to the industrial progress and permanent well-being of the community. It is necessary from every point of view that illiteracy must be wiped out from India without any further loss of time and a bold and elaborate programme must be chalked out and carried into effect. No price is too high for the removal of illiteracy. Free and compulsory primary education must be introduced in every part of the Presidency so that the fresh recruits to the textile industry will be literate men. To select only Bombay for compulsion may not solve the problem.

42. The union does not think that the small efforts that are now being made in the direction of compulsory education have made any appreciable effect on the standard of living of the workers. The standard has practically been what it was years ago. For it to change for the better, there are factors, other than education, equally important, which must also undergo a healthy change.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

The union has recently addressed a letter on the subject of the amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act and it would be well if that letter which covers some of the points raised in the questionnaire is reproduced below. On the other

points in the questionnaire, the union thinks the commission will be able to get the necessary information from other sources. The letter of the general secretary runs as follows :—

" I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter No. 137, dated 22nd January, 1929, asking me to communicate to you the views of the Bombay Textile Labour Union on the above subject. Your letter together with the accompaniments was placed before the managing committee of the union who considered all the points raised by the letter of the Government of India in para. No. 18, and some other important points in connection with the Workmen's Compensation Act and I am authorized to express the following views on its behalf.

" Before dealing with the specific points raised in para. 18 of the Government of India's letter, my union would like to draw your attention to one or two serious defects which have crept into the Workmen's Compensation Act as it stands to-day and which affect the interests of the workers very adversely. And now that the Government of India propose to amend the Act, my union would like to urge that it would be fair and just to remove those defects in the Act in the interest of the workers.

" *Compensation under Common Law.*—Ordinarily under the common law the employer is liable to pay damages for injuries inflicted on another through his own negligence ; but the claim of the employee for damages for any bodily injury which he might have suffered during the course of his employment can only stand under the common law if it can be proved that the personal injury complained of arose from the employer's personal negligence or because he knowingly employed an incompetent servant. The defendant can also shirk the responsibility of paying any damages for injury either if he can prove a counter charge of contributory negligence against the injured employee or on the strength of a doctrine which deprives an employee of the right to recover damages for personal injury if he, knowing the risk he is running, agrees expressly or by implication to run the risk.

" But even if the injured employee successfully surmounts these defences, there remains, however, the even more serious obstacle of the doctrine of common employment which excludes liability for damages when the injury is caused by reason of the negligence of a fellow workman in the employment of the same master for the purpose of the same business, irrespective of the consideration that the injured workman was bound to obey the orders of the fellow servant whose negligence was responsible for the injury. It will not, therefore be an exaggeration to say that the doctrine of common employment grants the employer an immunity from paying any penalty—though, having failed to make proper provision for the safety of the workmen, he is guilty of indirect negligence—by shifting the responsibility of the accident, for which, for all practical purposes and from the commonsense point of view, the employer alone is morally responsible, to one from whom damages cannot be recovered. The cases, therefore, where an injured workman can hope to be benefited by common law action for the latter's negligence are naturally very rare.

" *Employers' Liability Act.*—It, therefore, appears to my union as reasonable that where personal injury is caused by reason of the negligence of the employer or his agent or any person in the service of the employer, the workman shall have the same right of compensation and remedies as if the workman had not been a workman in the service of the employer or engaged in his work. My union thinks it absolutely necessary and essential that some provisions on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act which were inserted in the draft bill of the Workmen's Compensation Act by the Government of India but which were subsequently deleted by the select committee, ought now to find a place in the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Employer's Liability Act imposes on the masters liability for accidents causing injury or death brought about by defects in the works, plant or machinery due to the masters' negligence and for similar accidents caused by the negligence of the fellow servants entrusted by the employer with the duties of superintendence. The Act, while not depriving the employer of the defence of contributory negligence, only aims at doing justice to the employees by allowing them the liberty to take action against the employer under the common law when the injury can be conclusively proved to be the result of the negligence of the employer or his servant, after taking away his privilege of taking shelter under the doctrine of common employment. If the Workmen's Compensation Act is to be perfect, just, and impartial to the employees, it ought necessarily to cover the following two essential points. The first is that it ought to abolish the doctrine of common employment ; and secondly, it ought to prohibit contracts by workmen renouncing their statutory right. And any number of amendments of the Act relating to the workmen's compensation will fail to make it satisfactory and free from defects so long as it makes no provision for claiming compensation on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act. For the provision of an Act based on the principle which allows the employees, whose necessities compel them to seek employment in certain dangerous occupations, in the course of which accidents not always possible to be guarded against, are of

frequent occurrence, a right to claim compensation to a moderate and limited amount in respect of the loss of wages, cannot serve the purpose of the Employers' Liability Act which is based on the principle that justly and appropriately imposes on the masters a liability for accidents due to their negligence or to the negligence of their servant, as the basic and fundamental principles of the two Acts are quite different in character. Whereas the principle underlying the Workmen's Compensation Act is that the employer is liable for those accidents which are incidental to the industries he runs, irrespective of any consideration of negligence or fault either of the employers or the employees; the Employers' Liability Act has for its basic principle that the employer is liable for damages when he or his servant is negligent. My union, therefore, thinks that no valid or reasonable objection can be raised against the inclusion of the Employers' Liability Act, as all that it aims to perform is to remove the shortcomings of the common law which works to the great disadvantage of the workers. The demand of workmen that they should have the liberty to take action under the Employers' Liability Act which entitles them to a larger amount of compensation than what can be allowed under the Workmen's Compensation Act is, in the opinion of my union, just and reasonable. For, every reasonable man must concede that the amount of compensation in cases of injuries due to employers' negligence must be considerably larger than the amount in those cases of injuries which are incidental to the industry itself.

"The one-sided provision of the Workmen's Compensation Act as it stands to-day which deprives the workmen of any compensation if he be guilty of serious and wilful misconduct, establishes the necessity of the Employers' Liability Act beyond the pale of doubt. If it is found that the injury was due to the negligence of the employer or his agents or servants, then equity and justice would require that the workman should be entitled to have the right of getting more compensation than what he is ordinarily entitled to get under the Compensation Act, which affords compensation independent of the negligence of the employer. If an employee is deprived of his claim for compensation if he is guilty of wilful misconduct or under the influence of drink, it stands to reason that a sober employee ought to have full liberty to sue his employer for damages if he has to suffer an injury because of the negligence or drunkenness of his employer or other fellow servant with whom he may be working. The necessity of enacting the provisions on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act is further proved from the fact that even the Government of India had thought it desirable to include them in the draft of the Workmen's Compensation Bill which was first introduced in the Legislative Assembly in 1922. My union is of opinion, therefore, that the Government of India should either include the Employers' Liability Act in the Workmen's Compensation Act or a separate bill be introduced in the assembly.

"*Accidents due to alleged Workers' Negligence.*—In the opinion of my union, another serious defect in the Workmen's Compensation Act as it stands to-day is that the workman has to lose his claim for compensation that might help his helpless wife, children and other dependents in case the injury results in his death, if the accident is proved to be due to his wilful misconduct. The workman has no right to claim compensation for an injury which might arise out of and in the course of employment if he goes to work under the influence of drink, or if the accident is due to the fact that the worker has wilfully disobeyed any rule or if it is due to the fact that he has removed a safety guard, under the existing provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The provisions of the Act which deprive the worker of his claim to compensation if it is proved that the accident was due to his wilful and serious misconduct may appear to be reasonable and just. On careful consideration of the question, however, it becomes clear that these provisions are in direct contravention with the spirit and the principle underlying the Workmen's Compensation Act which may be defined as that that the industry which creates risks for workmen should bear the civil liability for the accident for which it alone is responsible. The Act recognises as its basic principle that it is just and right to confer compensation on workers for accidents which are incidental to the industries upon the mere proof of the accident and its resulting loss to the employee, irrespective of its causes and quite independently of the question whether or not there had been negligence on the part of the employee or the employer. If, however, in case of an accident due to wilful misconduct of the employee he loses all his claim to compensation, considerations of equity demand that the employee rightly and justly deserves more compensation in those cases of injuries which may be proved to be due to the negligence of the employer than the amount of compensation in those cases where the injuries may be due to the negligence of neither party. And in so far as the Act remains unmodified in this respect, it cannot but be regarded as a defective piece of legislation. The assumption on which such provision can have any justification might after careful analysis and scrutiny be found to be most erroneous and inconsistent with human nature and insulking to human instincts. It is inconceivable that any workman, unless he is a lunatic, will

try to do something that will cause his death or disablement. To assume and start with such assumptions is to do gross injustice and offer insult to human nature. And any piece of legislation based on such erroneous assumption and misrepresentation of human nature is bound to be necessarily unjust and defective. For all practical purposes, these provisions in the Act serve only to supply the employer with a loophole and to furnish him with an opportunity to find an excuse, if he can conveniently do so, for refusing to pay any compensation for the accident. My union cannot conceive any other useful purpose which these provisions might serve. The absurdity and unreasonableness of these provisions will be still more evident in those cases of accidents where an injury results in the immediate death of the workman. For it will be extremely difficult for the dependants to dislodge the employer if he chooses to take shelter behind these provisions of the Act by attributing the accident to the wilful misconduct of the worker, in the absence of any evidence to refute the charges levelled against him which the dead man alone could have been able to produce. My union, therefore, suggests that the Government of India should so modify the Act that the defence of serious and wilful misconduct should not be open to the employer where the injury results in death or serious permanent disablement.

*"Extension of the Act.*—The present Workmen's Compensation Act lays down the general principle that persons who are employed in industries which are both organized and hazardous are alone entitled to receive compensation. The same motives and considerations which inspired the Government to enact a piece of legislation of the nature of the Workmen's Compensation Act in 1923, ought now to convince them of the necessity of departing from the narrow limits of the Act which have failed to make provision for the benefit of all wage earners by restricting the benefits to be derived under the Act only to workers in the hazardous and organized industries. Neither the fact that the industry is not hazardous and the accidents are not very frequent nor the fact that the industry is not organized, can justify us from excluding any class of employees from the benefits of the Act, as the resulting hardships of an accident which the workman and his dependents have to suffer can in no way be minimised by the fact that the industry not being hazardous, the injury was a rare accident or that the industry is not in an organized condition. My union is of opinion that it is unjust and unreasonable to distinguish different branches of the industrial population and to set limits to the scope of the Act by including employees engaged in hazardous and organized industries after having agreed upon the basic principle of the Act. My union is of opinion that the scope of the Act ought to be extended to all classes of workers, it ought to embrace all industries and occupations and the principle of the Act ought to be applied in other directions so that the whole of the working classes and the wage earning population may be included in the scope of the Act. The facts of the injury by accident ought to be a sufficient justification for compensation. The general principle which ought to be rigidly followed as far as possible should be that where there is an injury there ought to be a relief. My union is, therefore, of opinion that the scope of the Act should be extended on the basis of the English law, excluding only that class of employees who are non-manual workers and whose income exceeds Rs. 400 a month.

*"An Alternative.*—If, however, the Government is not prepared, at the present stage to apply the Act universally by removing the unjust, unreasonable and unnatural limitations of the scope of the Act, my Union would like to suggest an alternative that the scope of the Act should at least be extended by removing the limit of the hazardous nature of the work, so that the workmen employed in many well organized industries such as tea, coffee and other plantations may be entitled to the benefit under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

*"Hazardous Industries.*—My Union also desires to invite the attention of the Government of India to the fact that workmen employed in many industries which are both organized and hazardous are not included in the present Compensation Act. A list of workmen to whom, my Union is of opinion, the Act should be made applicable, is given in an appendix.

*"Case of Seamen.*—As regards the seamen, my Union thinks that the definition of the "Registered Ship" in sub-section J of Section 2 of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 is unjustly restrictive as it deprives a number of seamen engaged on ships which are not registered under any one of the Acts stated in that sub-section but are registered under the British Merchants' Shipping Act. It is, however, true that such seamen can claim compensation under the English law even though their direct employers happen to be in British India and the ships are plying in British Indian waters; but they have to go to the English Courts for getting compensation. My Union also thinks it absolutely necessary and reasonable that the restriction about the tonnage be removed and the Act should be made applicable to all ships running by power.

The benefit of the Act should also be extended to the workshops of the Royal Indian Marine who are excluded under Section 2 (1) (N) of the Act. The exemption



might be confined to those who are actually engaged in H.M. Naval, Military or Air services. But it appears unintelligible, however, why those who are working in the Dock Yard Workshops of the R.I.M. or who are incidentally connected with such services should be excluded from the benefit of the Act.

**"Compulsory Insurance.**—My union is of opinion that some provision for protecting workmen against possible loss by reason of the inability of their employer to pay any compensation that may be due, is necessary and is further inclined to suggest that the most effective step in this direction would be to introduce some scheme of compulsory insurance.

**"Commissioner's Discretion.**—The present system of payments should continue as it has, in the opinion of my union, worked quite satisfactorily; and the Commissioner should have full discretion to sanction recurring payments instead of lump sums in special circumstances.

**"Scales of compensation.**—The question of the amount of compensation is the most important part of the Act and can be broadly divided into two parts:—(1) Benefits accruing to dependents in fatal cases. (2) Compensation payable to an injured workman during his incapacity.

"The amount of compensation allowed by the Workmen's Compensation Act in either of the above circumstances is, in the opinion of my union, absolutely meagre and inadequate and, in fairness to workmen, it ought to be substantially increased. My union thinks that the pressing need at the present time is that adequate provision ought to be made to secure that the children of a fatally injured worker should have a reasonable chance of developing into healthy members of the society. With this end in view it would be absolutely necessary that the minimum limit of Rs. 3,000 should be fixed in case of an accident which results in death.

**"Fatal Accidents.**—The amount of compensation payable to the employee by the employer in case of an accident which results in a fatal injury, is at present calculated on the basis of the workmen's earnings. My union, however, is of opinion that it is not advisable to maintain this principle as it is extremely unjust and unsatisfactory to calculate the compensation on the basis of the average earnings of the workmen. It is a vicious principle that a better paid workman should be in a better position to make provision for his dependents than a low paid workman. The Workmen's Compensation Act ought to make no distinction among the workers in connection with their claim to compensation.

**"Alternative Proposals.**—If, however, the Government is not prepared to depart from the system which is followed at present, my union would like to suggest the following alterations in the scale of compensation to meet half way the ends of justice. The scales of compensation ought to be substantially increased. Where the injury results in partial disablement, the amount of compensation should be raised to three-fourths from one-half. In cases where the injury results in permanent total disablement, the amount of compensation to be paid to the workman should be equal to the wages for a period of five years instead of 42 months' wages which are due to him under the provisions of the present Act, with a maximum of Rs. 6,000 instead of Rs. 3,500. The amount of compensation to be paid in cases of fatal accidents should be five years' wages instead of 30 months and with a maximum of Rs. 5,000 instead of Rs. 2,500. All these scales should apply to the minors as well as to the other workers.

**"Waiting Period.**—My union is of opinion that there should be no waiting period as it is directly opposed to the underlying basic principle of the Workmen's Compensation Act. In enacting any piece of legislation the principle which ought to guide us and from which we ought not to deviate if the legislation is meant to be just, reasonable and perfect, is that, having agreed upon the basic and fundamental principle of the legislation, we should be careful to see that no clause in the Act is directly contrary to or inconsistent with the principle and the spirit of the Act. We concede that it may be necessary to put safeguards against the probable misuse and the abuse of the privileges which are conferred by the Act and see that no scope for, or any opportunity to, an undue advantage is left open to the workers. But in no case should the limitation or modification be of such a nature that it might directly contravene its basic principle and its spirit. When the question of the waiting period is studied, its propriety analyzed, its claim for justification scrutinized from this point of view, it will become abundantly clear that it directly contradicts the fundamental principle of the Workmen's Compensation Act which recognises the right of the workmen to receive compensation for injury which is incidental to the industry. If an injury entitles the workman to compensation, it is absurd and arbitrary to put down a condition that will deprive him of his right to receive it during the waiting period. To take a concrete illustration of permanent disablement, one can understand the reason for limiting the period during which a workman is entitled to compensation. But any limitation in the Act which does not allow any compensation for some days following injury is hardly reasonable or intelligible. Neither logic can justify it, nor reason can approve of it. The acceptance of the principle of the waiting period is prejudicial to the basic principle underlying the Workmen's

Compensation Act. It seems that prudential considerations of not encouraging or providing the workers with an opportunity for malingering, and of taking away all possible temptation to pretend to be incapacitated for work by the injury while they may be quite fit for work, might have prompted the Government to include the waiting period in the Act in the past. My union feels that these prudential considerations have clouded the main issue and have led the Government to do injustice to the workers. My union thinks that it would be thoroughly reasonable if some other provisions are inserted by which the worker would be required to satisfy medical authorities as to his physical unfitness for work during the period.

"Another argument which requires some consideration and refutation in this connection is that practically every Compensation Act makes provision for the waiting period, that is the period for which the disability must last before compensation is due to the injured workman. But this argument alone, without the support of other weighty arguments cannot justify the inclusion of the waiting period in the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act. For my union makes bold to submit that the justification of any provision should not be based merely on the parallel of other international Acts. Even the then Industries Member, the Honorable Sir Charles Innes, said during the debate in the Assembly that the Bill was not intended to be a slavish imitation of Acts of other countries. If we are to profit by experience of other countries and by comparative study, we can only hope to benefit not by slavish imitation but by selective process of assimilation of the good points and rejection of the bad ones.

"It is also urged that the amount of compensation for temporary disablement due to a workman who is disabled for a period less than ten days will seldom exceed Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 and it will not, therefore, be worth while for the workman to ask for it. But this argument instead of supporting the waiting period favours the contention of my union that there should be no waiting period at all. It is just because the amount of compensation which a workman can claim during the waiting period is trivial, that my Union thinks that the waiting period is superfluous, and while its deleting will not lay a great burden on the employer, it will be doing justice to the worker to whom the loss of even the trivial amount of Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 means hardship for a couple of days.

"If, however, the arguments stated above fail to convince the Government of India of the necessity of doing away with the waiting period, my union would like to suggest that it should be reduced to three days as it hopes that there will be no two opinions with regard to the fact that the waiting period of ten days is too long and results in great hardships to the workers. It may also be pointed out that the waiting period in India is longer than that prescribed by almost all other countries.

"*Dependents.*—In the opinion of my union the present list of the dependents is almost exhaustive. But widowed daughters and daughters-in-law who are practically actual dependents on the deceased workman should be included in the list of dependents. And owing to peculiar conditions of the Indian workers, no proof of dependence should be regarded as necessary in order to enable a relative to claim compensation. My union for the present cannot agree to the principle that the amount of compensation should vary with the number of dependents and to the extent to which they are actually dependent on the deceased as it would create administrative difficulties, increase litigation, and likely to defeat the object of the Act.

"*Contractors' Responsibility.*—My union is of opinion that the Act should be so amended as to place the liability for compensation on a person directly employing the workmen though it might sometimes happen that the employer of labour might have no control over the working conditions. It would therefore be necessary to make provision in the Act that in case the contractor or the sub-employer is ordered to pay compensation, he shall have the right to be indemnified and vice versa. But my union, however, is of opinion that the workman should have liberty to sue any one of them for compensation.

"*Penalty for Failure to Submit Returns.*—My union also thinks that it is desirable and absolutely necessary to provide for some penalty in the Act for failure to comply with the provisions of section 16. Although it agrees with the view of the Government of India that the fact that several reminders asking for returns had been issued without the proper response from the employer is sufficient to establish beyond doubt an intentional default on the part of the employer, it thinks that it is advisable to introduce a penal clause in the Act making it possible to impose fine on the employers who fail to submit returns. It is also the opinion of my union that the scope of section 16 should be extended with a view to secure all the details of all the accidents irrespective of the consideration whether the employer was liable to pay compensation for the accident or not. In the returns the employer should be required to record the reasons for not paying the compensation in those cases where the employee was not entitled for compensation for the injury.

"*Dependents' Right to Approach Commissioner.*—My union entirely agrees with the view of the Government of India that section 22 of the Act should be amended in such a way that the dependent may have the right to approach the Commissioner

without first approaching the employer for compensation. It is also of opinion that the Commissioner should be empowered to initiate proceedings to secure the payment of compensation in cases, where owing to ignorance, no claim has been made. In order that the dependents may not lose their rights to receive compensation through ignorance of their rights, it is also absolutely necessary that the employers should be compelled to register the names and the addresses of the nearest relatives of each of their employees.

"My union is of opinion that the Commissioner should be empowered to call employers depositing inadequate compensation for fatal accidents to make good the claims of compensation.

"*Period of Appeal.*—My union thinks it necessary that for expediting the disposal of the appeals, the period of limitation should also be reduced to 20 days for an appeal, to be preferred by an employer against the decision of the Commissioner. Section 5 of the Limitation Act should not be made applicable to the appeals by the employer and the High Court should be requested to expedite the disposal of appeals.

"My union has also to make a few more following suggestions in connection with this Act.

(a) In case of fatal accidents which take place in work places it becomes very difficult for dependents to get evidence to prove the same. And it is, therefore, natural to presume that the accident took place in the course of and out of employment unless the contrary is proved by the employer. The rule of English Law as stated in sub-section 2 of section 1 of the Insurance Act throws the burden of proof on the employers. A similar provision should be made in the Act.

(b) Section 10 of the Act which requires that the notice of the accident must be given, works to the great disadvantage of the dependents and entail much hardship on them. A provision on the lines of section 14 (1) of the English Act, therefore, should be introduced in the Indian Act.

(c) By reason of the provision of section 21 the workmen who are entitled to get compensation under the Act are denied the benefit on the ground that the accident takes place in a place outside British India. Thus, for example, where a servant of the G.I.P. Railway who suffers an injury in a train passing through the territory of H.H. the Nizam, may not be entitled to compensation. It is, therefore, necessary to remove this anomaly and to extend the benefit of the Act to all workmen employed by employers in India irrespective of the place of accident."

#### APPENDIX.

1. "Undertakings or parts of undertakings engaged in the production or manufacture of explosives, inflammable, poisonous, unhealthy.

2. All undertakings for loading or unloading.

3. Construction, repair, and maintenance of P.W.D., railway, ports, roads, canals, embankments, dykes, harbours, aqueducts, drains, bridges, tunnels and similar works.

4. All undertakings for transport on land, sea, river, lake, and navigation canals.

5. All factories and workshops using power, irrespective of the number of men employed.

6. Undertakings for the erection, maintenance, demolition of all classes of buildings, for the loading, transport, and unloading of materials for such erection and maintenance arising out of such demolition.

7. Works necessary for preventing land slips.

8. Undertakings for the production and distribution of gas and electric energy, telephone undertakings, and works necessary for the placing, repair, and removal of pipes and other conduits for gas, electricity, and water or of lightning conductors.

9. Lime, tiles and brick kilns.

10. Undertakings for cutting or trimming of trees in forests and transport of the same to the ordinary places of deposit or the banks of rivers, seas or ports, neighbourhood or roads.

11. Employees in transportation services inclusive of tramways, steam road rollers and motor buses.

12. Seamen employed on board of all kinds of vessels except sailing vessels of less than 100 tonnage.

13. Toddy drawers and fruit fallers for trees for the purpose of trade or business.

14. Employees in warehouses and godowns.

15. Employees in the manufacture of gas, produce, and fire works.

16. Well sinkers.

17. Factory workers concerned for both under clauses a and b of sub-clause 3 of section 2 of the Factories Act.

18. Employees in dockyards.

19. Postal runners, mail guards, overseers, village postmen, and others whose duties require constant travelling, injuries or diseases contracted in salt works."

## APPENDIX A.

Exhibit No. 3.

Reduction in the number of workers in a mill under the Efficiency Scheme.

## MILL No. I.

*A Consolidated Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers.*

Department.	No. of Men retrenched.	Percentage of Gains or Losses to	
		The Mill.	The Workers.
1. Blow Room .. .. .	9 out of 46	55	45
2. Card Room .. .. .	14 " " 40	42.5	57.5
3. Drawing Frame .. .. .	14 " " 42	28.5	71.5
4. Ring Frame .. .. .	160 " " 386	64	36
5. Roving .. .. .	26 " " 52	51.6	48.4

Saving to Millowners :—		Total. 223 out of 566	Average Percentage. 48.3	Average Percentage. 51.7 to 343 men.
		Loss to 223 men :—		
	Rs. a. p.			Rs. a. p.
Blow .. .. .	72 0 0	Blow .. .. .		130 8 0
Card .. .. .	84 0 0	Card .. .. .		128 0 0
Ring .. .. .	1,511 0 0	Ring .. .. .		764 0 0
Roving .. .. .	429 0 0	Roving .. .. .		403 0 0
Drawing—56 pies on 343 .. .. .	2,096 0 0 on 343 men.			1,426 0 0
Drawing—70 pies on 223 .. .. .	1,426 0 0 on retrenched men.	Drawing—70 pies per hank for 14 men.		
	<u>3,522 0 0</u>			

## MILL No. 1.

*A Comparative Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers under the New System.*

## BLOW ROOM.

System.	No. of Men.	No. of Men Retrenched	Pay per Worker.	Gain or Loss per Worker.	Total Wages.	Gain or Loss to Mill.	Gain or Loss to Workers.	Total Gain or Loss.	Percentage Gain or Loss	
									To Mill.	To Workers.
			Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
<i>Old System.</i>										
One man one Machine ..	46	—	14 8 0	—	667 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
<i>New System.</i>										
One man one machine ..	28	—	14 8 0	—	408 8 0	—	—	—	—	—
One man two machines ..	9	—	21 0 0	6 8 0	189 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
	37	9	—	—	595 0 0	+72 0 0	+58 0 0	+130 8 0	+55	+45

## MILL No. I.

## A Comparative Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers under the New System.

## CARD ROOM.

System.	No. of Men.	No. of Men re-trenched	Pay per Worker.	Gain or Loss per Worker.	Total Wages.	Gain or Loss to Mill.	Gain or Loss to Workers.	Total Gain or Loss.	Percentage of Gain or Loss	
									To Mill.	To Workers.
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.a.p.	Rs. a. p.
<i>Old System.</i>										
Strippers .. .. .	12	—	15 0 0	—	180 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
Grinders .. .. .	7	—	15 0 0	—	105 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
Fly Gatherers .. .. .	4	—	13 8 0	—	54 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
Lap Carriers .. .. .	5	—	13 8 0	—	67 8 0	—	—	—	—	—
Can Minders .. .. .	12	—	12 8 0	—	150 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
	40	—	—	—	556 8 0	—	—	—	—	—
<i>New System.</i>										
Front Jobbers .. .. .	4	8	26 0 0	+11 0 0	104 0 0	+76 0 0	+44 0 0	—	—	—
Back Jobbers .. .. .	4	3	26 0 0	+11 0 0	104 0 0	+1 0 0	+44 0 0	—	—	—
Lap Carriers .. .. .	6	3	16 0 0	+2 8 0	96 0 0	+25 0 0	+15 0 0	—	—	—
Can Minders .. .. .	12	—	14 0 0	+1 8 0	168 0 0	+18 0 0	+18 0 0	—	—	—
	26	14	—	—	472 0 0	+84 8 0	+121 0 0	+205 0 0	+42.5	+57.5

## MILL No. I.

*A Comparative Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers under the New System.*

## DRAWING FRAMES (14 Machines).

System.	No. of Men.	No. of Men re-trenched	Pay per Worker.	Gain or Loss per Worker.	Total Wages.	Gain or Loss to Mill.	Gain or Loss to Workers.	Total Gain.	Percentage of Gain or Loss	
									To Mill.	To Workers.
<i>Old System.</i> One man, one head or three men for each machine.	42	—	14 pies per hank or 42 pies per machine.	—	558 pies.	—	—	—	—	—
<i>New System.</i> Two men, three heads or two men for each machine.	28	14	19 pies per hank or 38 pies per machine.	+ 5 pies	532 pies.	+ 56 pies.	+ 140 pies.	+ 196 pies.	+28.5	+71.5

## MILL No. I.

*A Comparative Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers under the New System.*

## RING FRAMES.

System.	No. of Men.	No. of Men re-trenched	Pay per Worker.	Gain or Loss per Worker.	Total Wages.	Gain or Loss to Mill.	Gain or Loss to Workers.	Total Gain or Loss.	Percentage of Gain or Loss	
									To Mill.	To Workers.
<i>Old System.</i>										
Side boys (one man one frame)	216	—	Rs. a. p. 15 8 0	Rs. a. p. —	Rs. a. p. 3,348 0 0	Rs. a. p. —	Rs. a. p. —	Rs. a. p. —	—	—
Tarwalas .. .. .	62	—	15 8 0	—	961 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
Doffer boys .. .. .	108	—	11 8 0	—	1,242 0 0	—	—	—	—	—
	386				5,551 0 0					
<i>New System.</i>										
Side boys (one man two frames)	108	108	22 0 0	+6 8 0	2,376 0 0	+972 0 0	+702 0 0	—	—	—
Tarwalas .. .. .	42	20	17 0 0	+1 8 0	714 0 0	+247 0 0	+63 0 0	—	—	—
Doffer boys .. .. .	78	32	12 8 0	+1 0 0	950 0 0	+292 0 0	+76 0 0	—	—	—
	228	160	—	—	4,040 0 0	+1,511 0 0	+841 0 0	+2,352 0 0	+64	+36



## MILL No. I.

*A Comparative Statement of Gains or Losses to the Mill and the Workers under the New System.*

REVISED.

System.	No. of Men.	No. of Men Retrenched	Pay per Worker.	Gain or Loss per Worker.	Total Wages.	Gain or Loss to Mill.	Gain or Loss to Workers.	Total Gain or Loss.	Percentage of Gain or Loss	
									To Mill.	To Workers.
<i>Old System.</i>										
One man and one machine ..	82	—	Rs. a p. 32 0 0	Rs. a p. —	Rs. a p. 1,164 0 0	Rs. a p. —	Rs. a p. —	Rs. a p. —	—	—
<i>New System.</i>										
One man and two machines ..	26	26	Rs. a p. 47 8 0	Rs. a p. +15 8 0	Rs. a p. 1,235 0 0	Rs. a p. +429 0 0	Rs. a p. +403 0 0	Rs. a p. +832 0 0	+51.6	+48.4

## PART II.

## IX.—Hours.

55. *Hours Worked per Week and per Day.*—In the textile industry in Bombay, the mills are worked 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week. This limitation in the working period has been secured by the operatives as a result of the general strike of 1920, and came into operation before the India Factories Act was amended in 1922. The limitation is thus in the nature of a contract between the Bombay mill-owners and workers, which was wrung out from the former by a resort to direct action and is not secured under the provisions of the Factories Act so far as the maximum daily working hours are concerned. In respect of the weekly period, the contract and the provisions in the Act tally.

There are a few exceptions, based on practice, to the maximum daily and weekly period of work in the Bombay mills. The female workers generally work between eight to nine hours a day. They go to the mills an hour or so later and return an hour or so earlier than the male workers do. Some of the latter, such as : “ (1) fitters and other employees in the mechanics’ shops (in the mills), (2) some operatives in the warping, sizing, and warehouse departments, and (3) some departmental fitters, carpenters and line levellers ” (Fawcett Committee’s Report, paragraph 144, page 66), generally work between 8 to 9½ hours a day. This practice has been in existence from the period earlier than that which brought down the general working hours from 12 to 10 in 1920. The exact daily working period in the case of these operatives varies from mill to mill, but the fact remains that most of them work less than ten hours. Before the 1928 general strike, some millowners tried to increase the working period of these men to 10, and a few succeeded in their attempt. The Swan and Finlay Mills, in 1924, and the Gold Mohur Mills, in 1925, changed the hours of the mechanics from 8½ to 10, but gave increases in pay for the extra hours ; “ similarly the E. D. Sassoon group gave proportionate increase when they did the same in March, 1928, though they no doubt notified that those increases would be done away with from the 1st May, 1928 ” (Fawcett Committee Report, paragraph 148, page 68). The Kohinoor Mills increased the hours of their mechanics from 8½ to 9½ in February, 1928, without any corresponding increase in pay. The discontent caused by this change in the working conditions in a number of mills added to the general discontent amongst the workers and formed one of the causes of the 1928 general strike. A demand was formulated for the reduction of this increased period and was included in the now famous “ Seventeen Demands ” of the Joint Strike Committee. The Fawcett Committee have discussed this demand in paragraphs 144–152 (pages 65–70) of their report and their finding is that the “ demand for extra pay ” is “ fair and reasonable so far as it concerns employees in the mechanics’ shops but not as regards the other operatives mentioned above ” (paragraph 151, page 70). The point the Union wants to make is that the 10 hours’ daily working period has been arrived at by an agreement between the millowners and the workers as a result of the 1920 general strike and that there are exceptions to this period in the case of women workers and some male operatives.

56. The mills work generally six days a week, from Monday to Saturday, and are closed on Sunday. If there is a holiday on any day other than a Sunday, and if it is permissible under Section 22 of the Factories Act, the mills work on a Sunday in lieu of the day on which they are closed.

57. *Effect of Daily and Weekly Hours’ Restriction.*—(i) While the workers have reason to congratulate themselves on the daily and weekly working hours being brought down to 10 and 60 respectively, it cannot be said that the restriction on the hours has appreciably improved their health or the standard of life or their general condition. It is no doubt true that the restriction is an improvement upon the past practice ; but the Union does not think that the fatigue and exhaustion caused by being inside the factories for 10 hours a day or 60 hours a week, are less than the fatigue and exhaustion caused by 12 or 72 hours working to such an extent that the improvement should be marked and sustained. It can be said, however, that sweating that existed before is considerably reduced. But that is a position which can hardly satisfy anybody when it is realized what sweating means and how the workers were exploited in the past.

(ii) In their replies to the questionnaire of the Textile Tariff Board, the Millowners’ Association stated that, “ by reducing the working hours from 12 to 10 per day, the production of spinning mills has gone down by about 16 per cent. and weaving mills by about 10–12 per cent.,” and that, again, “ the reduction in hours from 12 to 10 has resulted on the average in 13 per cent. less production over all departments ” (Tariff Board Report, Vol. II, pages 138 and 140). Apparently, not being satisfied with these statements, the Board in the oral examination of the representatives of the Association put some searching questions on this point, which, together with

their replies, appear on page 221, Vol. II, of the Board's Report. The chairman of the Board pointed out that though the hours were changed in January, 1920, the production of pounds of yarn produced per spindle actually showed an increase on that of the previous year 1919." This was explained by Mr. Geddis by saying that there were two strikes in 1919, but Mr. H. P. Mody supplemented this information by admitting that there was a strike in the first week of January, 1920, as well that lasted for two months. The implication is clear, viz., both years were strike years with only a difference in duration. Sir Ness Wadia then came to the rescue of the association and opined that yearly figures could not be taken as correct, with strikes and holidays, and offered the averages of his mill for 1919 and 1926, as if his mill was a most representative one and as if no change had occurred in the quality of yarn in those two years. The chairman not being satisfied with this explanation remarked that they could not deduce from those figures (of Sir Ness Wadia) anything like a 16½ per cent. reduction. In the weaving the drop in production was stated to be 10-12 per cent., but the following question and answer are worth noting:—

"As regards weaving the result appears to be that the reduction in working hours has resulted in a slight increase in the efficiency of the individual weaver? That is what we find, yes. That is quite correct, Sir.

"Has it been your experience that there has been no increase in the efficiency of the individual spinner, for instance, less breakages, etc., than there used to be? It all depends upon the cotton you use. The spinner does not want breakages. If you give him good cotton he will prefer to sit down himself and let the spinning do itself.

"My point is that if his hours of labour are reduced he might be more alert in mending the breakages when they do occur. Mr. C. N. Wadia: The efficiency of the spinning machinery is over 90 per cent. either for 12 or 10 hours, because there is no room for any great improvement. On the other hand, when the weavers work 12 hours, their efficiency is only about 70 per cent. or a little over it. By working 10 hours and their pay being entirely dependent on the work they turn out, they gradually manage to improve that efficiency from 75 to 85 per cent. and that is why there was considerable room in the weavers' work for improvement. There was no room in the spinner's work for improvement. That is why the spinner has not improved while the weaver has. Perhaps that is clear to you." (Page 221, Vol. II. Tariff Board Report).

These admissions on the part of the representatives of the Millowners' Association show that the position in the spinning has remained more or less the same and that in the weaving the efficiency of the weavers has materially improved. Further, the Tariff Board have themselves pointed out in paragraph 59 (page 134) of their report that "the experience of some mills in up-country centres has been that, owing to increased labour efficiency and improved conditions, such as the installation of humidifiers, the drop in the production (caused by the reduction in working hours) in the spinning department has been reduced to 10 per cent., while there has actually been increased production in the weaving department." The union thus is of the opinion that the reduction in working hours from 12 to 10 has a very wholesome effect on the industry.

59. *Possibility of Reduction in Maxima.*—The union looks at the question of further reducing the working hours more from the point of view of desirability and necessity than from that of a possibility, although it fully realizes the importance of the latter consideration. The cut-throat competition in the textile industry and the depression in the Bombay industry, have forced the millowners to think of re-organizing the industry and some of them have already brought into operation their schemes of rationalization or efficiency. If the diagnosis of Sir Victor Sassoon is correct other millowners will have to adopt similar schemes if they want to exist. The rationalization or efficiency schemes will thus at no distant date become a feature in the Bombay mill industry. Experience has shown that rationalization entails more work and more attention on the part of the operatives. Have the workers, under the existing conditions in respect of their housing, food and wages, the required stamina to do more work and mind more looms and spindles? The union's answer is an emphatic "no." In its opinion the intensive and extensive work resulting from rationalization and the present long hours, will only bring about the worker's breakdown which is detrimental not only to himself but to the industry as well. The reduction in working hours may remove one at least of the causes which are responsible for the present deplorable state of the worker. It may also be pointed out that the schemes of rationalization have been and are being pushed forth in Europe on the basis of working hours which are much less than 60 hours a week or 11 a day. The general basis is 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week, with only a slight variation in some cases. In almost all the countries in Europe the daily and weekly maxima are 8 and 48 hours and in some of them the maxima are still less. Even in Japan which is so much on the brains of the Bombay!

millowners, the present working hours are only 8½. The general tendency thus is to reduce the working hours in the textile as in other industries, in spite of its competitive character and India can hardly afford to lag behind. It is, therefore, the considered opinion of the union that not only in the interest of the workers, their efficiency and health, but also in the interest of the industry, it has become highly desirable and necessary to reduce the present daily and weekly hours.

In the opinion of the union the reduction in working hours is also a possibility. The employers all over the world have always resisted the claims of labour for reducing the hours and they have also on many occasions admitted, after the reduction has taken place, that it has on the whole yielded good results. The Labour Research Department, London, conducted some years ago a scientific enquiry into the cotton industry, and the report was published by the United Textile Factory Workers' Association, which is the central organization of the British cotton textile workers. The report went very thoroughly, with the aid of a mass of figures the Department secured and their careful compilations, into the question of the hours of work, the effect of their reduction on output and cotton industry generally, workers' standard of life and on accidents, spoil work, lost time and factory organization. After giving a short history of the movement of short hours in different parts of the world, particularly in Europe, the report points out that "the demand for a further reduction of hours is part of a general movement towards the realization of two principles which are becoming more and more widely admitted: (1) That industries which work the longest hours are not the most productive, and (2) that the workers in all industries must have more leisure." (Page 56.) The following quotation from the same report throws further light on the effect on output of the 1919 reduction from 55½ to 48 hours in Great Britain:—

"*Output not Affected.*—A comparison of the amount of earnings per worker in May—before the reduction from 55½ to 48 hours and 30 per cent. increase on list prices—with the amount per worker in August and September shows that earnings increased after the change.

"During both periods employment was fairly good. The figures for the three months were as follows:—

TABLE X.

Month.	Number of workers.	Total wages paid.	Average earnings per worker.	Percentage increase since May.
		£	s. d.	
May .. .. .	114,962	249,244	43 4	—
August .. .. .	108,982	248,533	45 7	5
September .. .. .	107,334	248,527	46 3	6·7

"The 30 per cent. increase on list prices was not quite equivalent to the reduction of 7½ hours per week, so that if the rate of output had remained the same there would have been a slight fall in average earnings. But in fact earnings went up from 43s. 4d. in May to 45s. 7d. in August, an increase of 5 per cent., and to 46s. 3d. in September, an increase of 6·7 per cent. as compared with May. Even allowing for the fact that the amount of short time had slightly decreased, the increase in average earnings show that the rate of output per hour was greater after the reduction of working hours.

"Professor Bowley, after a comparison of the increase in actual earnings in the cotton trade, as shown by the employers' returns, with the increase in wage rates, comes to the conclusion that the rate of output did not fall after the 1919 reduction of hours (see A. L. Bowley—Prices and Wages, 1914–1921, page 180.) The evidence quoted above, taken as a whole, shows that a reduction of hours in the cotton trade is followed by an increase of hourly output in those processes where speed is determined chiefly by the individual worker, and by a decrease in total output which is *rather less than proportionate to the reduction of hours* in processes where speed is determined by the machine.

"In other words, taking the industry as a whole, *rate of output rises with a reduction of hours.*" (Page 65–66.)

The report further adds that "the 1919 advance of 30 per cent. on list was agreed upon as compensating for the reduction of earnings, which was expected to follow the reduction of hours from 55½ to 48; and by this agreement the principle was definitely established in the cotton trade that shorter hours must be combined with higher price rates." (Page 80.) The union wholeheartedly accepts this sound principle.

Before leaving this part of the subject the union desires to state that, so far as it is aware, there is no material in India which will give accurate data to ascertain the effects of shorter hours on output and the industry as a whole; and that is why it has to extract copiously from the report of the Labour Research Department, which gives some information on this subject. Everything stated in that report, the figures given therein, and the relation it has shown to exist between output, wages, prices, etc., and the comparison of figures, may not be fully applicable to Bombay conditions. But the union believes that the line of argument taken in the report is worthy of serious consideration, and if a similar scientific enquiry is held here, results similar to those adduced in the report may be obtained. The fact that there is a general tendency in the world to reduce hours in textile and other industries, shows that the reduction in hours is not taking place with detriment to the industries and leads the union to believe that it is a step in the right direction. The union is, therefore, of considered opinion that the present working hours must be reduced in the interest of the workers, the employers, and the industry as a whole.

**61. Intervals.**—The Bombay cotton industry, though sufficiently old to understand the effects of long hours on the output and the workers' health, has not yet instituted any enquiry into the question of intervals in relation to fatigue; nor has any attempt been made by the Bombay Government in that direction. The union can therefore deal with this question only in relation to the workers' meal times. The existing practice is that there is only one mid-day recess of one hour and five hours' working on both sides of the recess. It was the Textile Tariff Board which first proposed to provide for a morning recess for half an hour by putting back the commencement of work from 7 a.m. to 6.30 a.m. In framing their Standing Orders during the 1928 strike, the Millowners' Association proposed a morning recess of half an hour by cutting down the mid-day recess of one hour by a quarter of an hour and prolonging the closing period by fifteen minutes. In providing for this new recess they thus maintained a 10-hour working day. The Joint Strike Committee of the workers, while approving of the proposal to provide an additional recess, opposed the millowners' proposal. They were opposed to any reduction in the period of mid-day recess and to prolongation of closing hour. They maintained that if the morning recess is to be given at all, it should be given only by reducing the present working hours. They further suggested that a fifteen minutes' afternoon recess should also be given to the workers. The net result of the proposal of the Joint Strike Committee was that a morning recess of half an hour and an afternoon recess of a quarter of an hour should be provided, that the mid-day recess should be maintained as it is to-day, and that the working hours should be brought down to 9½.

**Fawcett Committee's View.**—The Fawcett Committee, in not supporting the arguments of the Joint Strike Committee in favour of reduction of working hours in order to enable the millowners to give their workers an extra recess or two "so long as there is no general reduction of that kind made for all factories by legislation or otherwise", stated that "nor, on the other hand, do we think that the millowners can reasonably insist on the operatives reducing the mid-day hour recess and staying one quarter of an hour longer in the mill, in order to enable the half-hourly morning recess to be given" (page 22). The Committee then emphatically stated that "in any case, having regard to the extreme desirability of this extra recess, we think the Millowners' Association might well try the experiment in some mills of giving it and reducing the working hours to 9½" (page 22). This opinion is definite and only supports the workers' demand for more than one recess.

**Three Recesses Necessary.**—The Fawcett Committee could not be more definite than they were, as they had to confine themselves to their terms of reference and had not before them the question of general reduction in working hours. This Commission has that question before them and the union has pleaded for a general reduction of hours. What indefiniteness, therefore, there was in the views of the Fawcett Committee is now removed, so far as this Commission is concerned; and their view can be taken to support the union's demand of more than one recess. The enquiries that have taken place in England and Germany on the hours of work and their relation to output, have shown that long stretches of work have the effect of reducing output towards their end and that output has always shown a tendency to increase immediately after a recess. In some parts of Lancashire there exists a two-break system and it is reported to be working better than a one-break system. In Germany, there are, it is understood, some factories which provide for a short recess for afternoon tea. In Bombay the workers do spend some time in taking afternoon tea; but as they have to do it in an unauthorised manner and with their eye on the machine, an improved effect on output may not be possible. But if they get fifteen minutes' recess for this purpose, their mind will be at ease and it will, the union thinks, have a wholesome effect on output. The same argument holds good in the case of morning recess. The union, therefore, feels

that nothing will be lost and something will be gained by providing a morning recess of half an hour, a mid-day recess of full one hour and an afternoon recess of a quarter-hour and, therefore, it strongly recommends that its suggestions should be accepted.

*Holidays.*—There are generally no holidays given to the textile workers in Bombay except the Sundays. The average number of holidays given during a year is between 54 and 56. The reason for an increase of 2 to 4 holidays over the average prescribed under the Factories Act is that two or three successive holidays given in the *Diwali* and *Shimga* cannot be all replaced, under the Act, by substitute Sundays. It is therefore clear that the textile worker does not get more than 2 to 4 holidays over the weekly rest days prescribed under the Act. This must be having an adverse effect upon his health and his efficiency. In Lancashire special holidays are given under an agreement, and in Germany they are given with pay. The union considers this system of providing holidays as a very necessary one from the point of view of not only the worker but of the industry, and is of opinion that a similar system should be established in the Bombay industry. The holidays should be with pay.

61. In the Bombay textile industry, Sunday is generally the day of weekly rest. Sometimes other days are substituted for Sundays when these are Hindu or Mussalman holidays.

### X.—Women and Children.

83. *Women—Working period.*—It has been pointed out in an earlier paragraph that women work between 8 and 9 hours a day although the working period is 10 hours a day. They generally go to the mills at about eight in the morning and return home by five in the evening. Owing to their domestic responsibilities this is the utmost period which they can possibly spend in factories. But the present Factories Act allow women to work from 5.30 a.m. to 7 p.m., with a maximum period of 11 hours. This legal limit is not in conformity with the existing practice and is not enough for a double shift of eight hours each, if it is introduced. It is therefore the considered opinion of the union that this limit should be changed, and no woman should be allowed to work before eight in the morning and after five in the evening. It is opposed to any system in which women will be asked to work before 8 a.m. and after 5 p.m.

*Maternity leave.*—The present Maternity Benefit Act provides for only four weeks' leave before confinement and four weeks' leave after confinement, and eight annas a day for a maximum period of seven weeks. The union is of opinion that the maternity leave should be increased to six weeks before and six weeks after confinement, and that the maternity benefit should be extended for this whole period. The union draws the attention of the Commission to paragraph 31 of this memorandum which deals with the question of maternity in greater detail.

*Creche.*—The union is of opinion that the provision of creche should be compulsory, and, that too, by legislation. It is highly undesirable to take babies inside the factories and it is equally difficult to keep them home when their mothers are working in factories. The provision of creche is therefore the only solution.

84. *Children—Working and rest periods.*—In the opinion of the union, the provisions of the Factories Act in respect of the employment of children require amendment. The minimum age limit for the employment of children should be raised from 12 to 14, and the law should be brought in conformity with the Washington Convention. The union also considers that the maximum age limit of a child should be raised from 15 to 18. This change may have an effect in reducing, to some extent the ranks of unemployed persons in the industry. Section 23 (b) of the Act should be so amended as to prohibit the employment of children before 8 in the morning and after 5 in the evening. With the general reduction in working hours that the union has strongly recommended, it is desirable that the hours of work of children also should be reduced from six to at least five and that their recesses should be in conformity with those recommended by the union for adults.

86. *Training of Young Adults.*—In the Bombay mills there are no facilities, so far as the union is aware, for the young adults and new recruits to receive regular training in their work. Paragraph 12 (ii) of this memorandum has already dealt with this question and there is no need of repetition of the same arguments. In some of the Lancashire mills, some machinery is set apart for the adult workers and new recruits to learn their jobs and a similar system should be established here. The millowners always complain of the inefficiency of the workers; but they have done very little to remove that inefficiency. The wonder really is that with their illiteracy and lack of practical and technical training facilities, they have been able to show the efficiency they have actually done. The union strongly recommends that each mill should make adequate provision for the training of its men, particularly the adults.

88. *Single and Double Shifts.*—The union is opposed to the introduction of a double shift system, not only for women or children, but for male operatives as well. In support of this statement, the union cannot do better than quote a paragraph from the report of the Labour Research Department.\*

The further point to be taken into account in considering the question of double shift in respect of women, is, that they have to do all the domestic work and look after the children. It is, therefore, impossible for them to go to the mills at odd hours. In the case of young adults, the double shift is very likely to have an adverse effect on their health. The union is not, therefore, in favour of double shifts.

89. *Work in Factories not subject to the Act.*—It is highly desirable that the definition of factory should be so changed as to bring under the operation of the Act each and every factory which employs not less than ten persons irrespective of any consideration as to the use of steam, water, or other mechanical or electrical power. This amendment will bring small factories under supervision and restrict the abuses that are at present reported to exist there.

## XII.—Wages.

*Labour Office Enquiries—Defects in previous enquiries.*—The Bombay Labour Office have so far conducted three enquiries into the wages of the Bombay textile workers. The first enquiry was held in 1921, and its report published in 1923; the second enquiry was held in 1923 and its report published in 1925; and its third enquiry was held in 1926, but its full report is yet to be published, although some statistical tables as regards earnings and absenteeism were supplied to the Fawcett Committee and the parties concerned in 1929. The procedure and the methods adopted in these enquiries were so different that it was almost impossible to compare their results on a common basis. The first two enquiries were conducted on the basis of the specially designed forms which were filled in by the mills and tabulated by the Labour Office and the 1926 enquiry was held on the basis of the actual muster rolls and was confined to the nineteen so-called "representative" mills. The union desires to draw the attention of the Commission to paragraphs 15 to 21 of its representation to the Textile Tariff Board which appears on pages 437-480, Vol. XX, of the Board's report. It is pointed out therein by quoting the report of the 1923 enquiry why "the 1914 figures," given in the 1921 report, "must, therefore, be accepted with considerable caution and treated only 'approximates,' how, "with the date before us, it will never be possible for us to use either 1914 or 1921 as a base for Real Wage Index Numbers," how the Director of Labour Office was "not wholly satisfied that the Bombay Cost of Living Index Number is in itself satisfactory," how in a study of this kind the "arithmetic mean," adopted in these enquiries, "is a less satisfactory average than the mode, i.e., the earnings which are most prevalent in the group," and how "the average, in the usual sense of the arithmetic mean, is, in a study of this kind, necessarily higher than the "mode," or most frequently occurring value." The report of the 1923 enquiry has practically condemned the 1921 report and the 1914 figures given in it and the fact that the Labour Office has to adopt an altogether new method in its third enquiry shows that even the 1923 enquiry was not satisfactory. The union has also shown in the paragraphs of its statement to the Tariff Board mentioned above that the figure of Rs. 30-10-1 given in the 1923 report as being the average earnings of the Bombay textile workers is faulty and must be, in view of the unsatisfactory method of the enquiry, appreciably less than that figure.

154. *1926 Enquiry.*—A radical departure was made in the method of the 1926 enquiry which was based on the sample system and the muster rolls of the mills. But how were the samples selected? How was the representative character of the 19 mills out of over 75 mills ascertained? The Labour Office had no reliable and accurate material before it to determine that those mills were representative. The previous enquiries gave the office no guidance in this matter. It had, therefore, to rely mostly on the advice of the Millowners' Association. In the memorandum of the Bombay Government submitted to this commission, it is stated that these 19 mills were selected in consultation with the Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Millowners' Association. In so far as the Bombay Textile Labour Union is concerned, the statement is not wholly correct and does not represent the true facts as they happened. No correspondence ever took place between the Labour Office and the union about the selection of mills. The general secretary of the union and, again, the president and the general secretary were asked to see the Director of Labour Office and in the two interviews that took place the latter informed them of the new method he had decided to adopt in the new enquiry and showed them the names

\* Report of Labour Research Department, pages 99-100.

of the mills and the printed forms which were ready for being sent to them. The union representatives while showing their preference of the new system to the old one, questioned the representative character of the mills and asked for any material the director might have to prove it. They were told that the office had no such material except its experience and the advice given by the Millowners' Association, and if the union representatives did not approve of these mills, they were asked to give an alternative list. Messrs. N. M. Joshi and Bakhale pointed out that owing to their union being less than one year old and in the absence of adequate knowledge of the rates and wages obtaining in the mills, they were not in a position to give an alternative list but suggested that, if the Labour Office enquiry was to command the public confidence, it should extend its enquiry on the new basis to all the mills so that for future enquiries it might have adequate material to determine and select the sample mills. This proposal was turned down on the ground of inadequate staff and expense. Messrs. Joshi and Bakhale then made it clear that they had no responsibility in the selection of the mills, that they were free to question their representative character, and that they would deal with the report of the enquiry on its merits. This union had thus no hand in the selection and never agreed to it. It is indeed a matter of great regret that the Bombay Government should make such a misleading statement before a responsible body like this commission and create, perhaps unconsciously, a wrong impression about the attitude of this union. The sample system has no doubt its advantages and may be superior to the one previously adopted; but the samples selected must be fully representative. From this point of view, the 1926 enquiry may not be considered as very satisfactory.

In showing these defects of the Labour Office enquiries, the union has no desire to minimise their importance or underestimate the value of their results. It fully recognizes the good work it has been doing since it was organized and the value of its enquiries which are the first of their kind in India. In the absence of any other statistics, official or otherwise, the enquiries of the Labour Office have special importance and the union has always treated them and their results with the respect they deserve. But this should not blind it to some of the defects of those enquiries when this commission is engaged in investigating the labour conditions.

96. *Rates of Wages.*—In the absence of any standardization scheme of wages on the lines of the price lists in Lancashire, the rates and wages differ from mill to mill, and it is almost impossible to say anything about them which would enable the commission to draw a general inference. Appendix IX to the memorandum of the Government of Bombay containing the daily average earnings of the textile workers in accordance with the Labour Office enquiries of 1921, 1923 and 1926; gives an interesting comparison of the earnings for five years, but owing to the different procedures and methods adopted in each enquiry, the comparison cannot give a correct idea of the increase or decrease in wages. From the workers' standard of living and their other conditions, the union can say that there has taken place practically no change for the better in respect of their wages. If there be any increase at all in any class of workers, it is, the union thinks, offset by under-employment or unemployment, which is nowadays a feature of the Bombay mill industry. In the 1928 strike, the joint strike committee had made a demand for the standardization of wages and in complying with it the Millowners' Association prepared a standardization scheme, but it contained a very heavy cut. The scheme was therefore rejected by the Joint Strike Committee. The Fawcett Committee has dealt with this Scheme in an exhaustive manner and recommended, in the interest of harmony between labour and capital, to remove the cut which the Millowners' Association maintained was only 7.5 per cent. The Union understands that the scheme has now been revised and the cut is removed. But it has not yet come into operation and the Union has not yet examined it.

98. *Remittances to Villages.*—The remittances to the villages are many times pointed out, by interested parties, to be the index of the prosperous condition of the textile workers and a proof of the adequate wages they get. A refusal to take other considerations into account at once vitiates the bearing of remittances on wages. In the first place, there is no data to show the amount of remittances which may be considered as reliable. Secondly, in building up an inference on the remittances, the workers' financial commitments in Bombay must be taken into account. But that is not done. The Labour Office report on the Family Budgets of the working classes has shown that, in the case of families the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs. 1-11-1 which forms 3.2 per cent. of the total family earnings of Rs. 52-4-6 and that, in the case of the worker living singly in Bombay, the same amount comes to Rs. 11-7-1, i.e., 26.2 per cent. of the monthly income which is stated to be Rs. 43-10-3. These figures require very careful analysis before they are accepted or rejected. The Labour Office wages enquiries have shown the average earnings of a textile worker at Rs. 30 and the union has pointed out in its statement to the Tariff Board that they are appreciably less than Rs. 30.



This shows that a vast majority of the workers get less than Rs. 30 per month. In the Family Budget report, the average earnings of a worker are shown at Rs. 43-10-3 which proves that the family budgets collected for the purpose of this enquiry were not representative. In fact, the budgets of single men earning below Rs. 30 formed only 11·4 per cent. of the total budgets, those of men earning between Rs. 30 and 40 formed 27·7 per cent., and those of men earning between Rs. 40 and 50 were so much as 34·3 per cent. (page 35 of the Family Budgets report). In the same way, out of the total of 2,473 of the family budgets included in the Labour Office report, only 68 were those of families earning below Rs. 30, 272 of those earning between Rs. 30 and 40, and 834 of those earning between Rs. 40 and 50, 539 of those earning between Rs. 50 and 60 and 484 of those earning between Rs. 60 and 70. Such figures are bound to give a misleading impression of the average earnings of single workers and families—figures on which the percentages of the remittances are calculated. Further it must be pointed out that remittances are sent in spite of the excess of expenditure over income. For example, the families earning less than Rs. 30 incur a monthly debt of Rs. 2-12-3 and yet send Rs. 0-1-4 to the villages and single men earning between Rs. 30 and 40 have a balance of Rs. 7-5-6 and yet send Rs. 7-12-4 to the villages. (*Vide* pages 50 and 124 of the Family Budget reports.) Add to this the statement in the same report (page 33) that "interest on debts shows an average expenditure of nearly 3 per cent. of the total monthly expenditure. No less than 47 per cent. of the families were in debt," and that the rate of interest varies from 75 to 150 per cent. These facts clearly indicate that the average incomes of families and single men shown in the Family Budget report are not representative and that both the families and single men send out remittances to the villages even by incurring debts. The remittances are therefore no index of the economic position of the workers and the calculations of the Labour Office in that behalf are not acceptable to the Union.

Dr. Harold H. Mann, late Director of Agriculture for this Presidency, has some pertinent remarks to make in his book on "Land and Labour in a Deccan Village" to which reference has been made in the earlier part of this Memorandum. He says:—

" . . . . We have been interested to see how far the village derives financial advantage from their (the worker's) work in Bombay or elsewhere. As to the amount of money actually brought back, we have of course no information, but the postal authorities have been kind enough to furnish us with the amount remitted to the village by money orders during a period of two years. This amounted to only Rs. 900 or at the rate of Rs. 450 per annum. Counting the nett amount actually brought home by returning workers from the towns as reaching an equal amount it means the village benefited to the extent of Rs. 900 per annum from its members who are away. This total is very much guess work, though we fancy it is not far from the truth—and, if true, it indicates that the amount of money brought or sent to Deccan villages is very much smaller than is often supposed" (page 111).

At another place in the same book Dr. Mann says:—

"The actual advantage of the village (by the migration of the workers) in reducing the pressure on the land is great, but there appears to be considerable doubt as to whether it receives very much actual direct financial advantage. The amount of money sent by post is small (Rs. 450 per annum) and the people who had returned from Bombay were inclined to doubt whether they had benefited permanently very much—though, of course it permitted them to enjoy luxuries for the time being which were pleasant. Only one such returned worker has bought land" (page 159).

101. *Method of Fixing Wages.*—The power of fixing the rates and wages is entirely in the hands of the mill management and the workers have simply to accept them. There is no such thing as negotiated agreements between the employers and workers. The rates fixed are not even communicated to the workers. When the latter find on the pay day that their wages have gone down and when they make a complaint, they are informed that new varieties with different rates had been put on the looms and were responsible for slight decrease in wages. The workers do not always understand the slight changes made in the warp or weft or the speed of a certain variety and generally calculate their earnings on the old rates; but they are subsequently informed that the changes in the warp, weft or speed had necessitated a slight modification in rates. There are a number of mills in Bombay which do not exhibit in the sheds a board containing rates. The "Particulars Clause" such as is known in Lancashire is unknown in Bombay. The following extracts from a statement issued by Messrs. N. M. Joshi, F. J. Ginwala and R. R. Bakhale, will give a further insight into the methods of wage fixing and wages reductions:—

"The Khatav Makanji Mills, the Spring Mills, the Madhavji Dharamsey Mills and the Kastoorchand Mills have openly reduced the rates on some varieties on the ground that either they are unable to pay them owing to depressed state of the

industry or their rates were higher than those obtaining in other mills. One of these mills was bold enough to say that the blanket rates which were fixed in 1911 when the waste plant was newly instituted, had to be revised in the year 1928 as the original rates were only experimental and continued to this day by oversight. Surely this does not speak highly of the degree of the efficiency of the management! In the Simplex and Kohinoor Mills, the workers alleged and the owners denied the reduction in rates; but we are satisfied that the aggregate wages of many have gone down recently. We have also known a few mills, Moon Mill for example, in which the average wages of the weavers were brought down on the plea that they were higher than those in other mills for the same kind of work. Wages are fixed in relation to the efficiency which is generally calculated at between 70 and 80. If the workers give more efficiency, their production and consequently their wages, rise; but the millowners, at least some of them, who harp upon the plea of increased efficiency, stagger at the figure of the increased wages and bring it down. Thus the increased efficiency becomes a penalty to the workers who give it.

"Where there has been no direct reduction in rates or wages, indirect methods have been resorted to. Many mills have begun to go from coarser to higher counts and with the rates remaining the same, aggregate wages have gone down owing to the drop in weight on which wages are calculated. In several mills, new varieties have been put up with a change here or a change there but their outward appearance remaining the same; and the fresh rates are fixed for them. Seeing no apparent difference between the old and the new varieties, the workers calculate their wages on the old rates and when they find their calculations at variance with the Mill calculations, they resort to direct action. This misunderstanding has led to many a recent strike; but the management do not consider it their business to explain to the workers the changes made in the varieties. This is the experience that the Bombay Textile Labour Union got in dealing with the Simplex and Kohinoor mill strikes. The fact, however, remains that owing to the introduction of new varieties, many workers have begun to get lower wages. In some cases, the average production has gone down not because of the decreased efficiency of the workers, but because of the introduction of silk and inferior raw material. In one mill, we know, where both the cotton yarn and silk yarn work, the artificial humid air has a salubrious effect on the former while it reduces the strength of the latter. The result is that breakages come too often in the silk varieties and production suffers. Those, therefore, who work on silk get less wages; and their number is not negligible. There is another method of wage reduction which is becoming almost universal. The weavers used to get hitherto their wages on the basis of the actual production; but now they are paid on the basis of the production as it goes to the merchant. For instance, a worker produced a piece weighing 4 lb.; by the time it reaches the hands of the merchants, it shrinks, say, by a quarter pound in the further processes in the mills. The worker used to get hitherto his wages for 4 lb.; but now he gets them for 3½ lb.; in other words, for every piece woven he loses wages for one quarter pound for nothing. The argument advanced by the millowners is that they cannot pay the employees what they do not get themselves from the merchants. But they have no answer to give when they are questioned as to what they were doing all these 75 years, except that they did not mind paying more when they could afford to do so. In one mill we found still another method of wage reduction and it is this. If the basic wages of a worker come to Rs. 30-15-9 pies, his 1 anna and 9 pies are cut off immediately. Then there remain Rs. 30-14 annas; but the high prices allowance is calculated not on Rs. 30-14 annas but on Rs. 30 only. Thus the worker loses Re. 0-1-3 pies and 80 per cent. allowance on Re. 0-15-9 pies. In our opinion this method of calculating wages is nothing short of a fraud upon the employees."

The union gives below from the same statement one more interesting case of wage fixing:—

"We give below one more typical case of how the workers' wages are tampered with. We have a case of a jobber—and this case is applicable to most of the weaving jobbers of that mill—who used to get 8 annas per 100 lb. of cloth produced by his workers. His wages including the allowance amounted to Rs. 140, but he was first offered Rs. 90-4 annas only and then Rs. 100. He thus lost Rs. 40. The case was represented to the manager and the agents replied on his behalf. After pointing out that the looms in those jobbers' department were entirely on Khadi and other grey cloth, the agents said that "it would be manifestly unfair to pay these men at the same rate per hundred pounds as is paid to the line jobbers in the large shed who are mostly on fancy cloths." In such a case the different rates should have been fixed for fancy and other jobbers; but 'one cannot,' say the agents, 'equally assort the cloth among each jobber as the looms are an odd lot of varying widths.' In other words, the agents do not mind the workers suffering even though they cannot

be held responsible for the layout of the mill machinery. But the sting is in the tail. "It appears," conclude the agents, "that the manager has been in the habit of equalising and averaging the jobbers' pay. Some jobbers have received less than their calculated pay, while on the other hand *more* jobbers have had their calculated pay increased. It seems a very unconventional way of doing things, I must admit; but apparently it has worked out justly, otherwise other of the jobbers would have complained." The enquiries made by the Bombay Textile Labour Union did not bear out the agents' statement that "more jobbers have had their calculated pay increased," a statement based on the information of the manager; and the union knows it as a matter of fact that the other jobbers did complain but did not carry the matter to a breaking point for fear of victimization. This arbitrary method of calculating wages is not confined to the jobbers alone; it is freely used in fixing the rates of the weavers in that mill. There is absolutely no method for fixing the wages and there is ample room for favouritism. The managers of this type are to a great extent responsible for increasing the workers' bitterness against the millowners and are a menace to the industry and the workers."

103. *Standardisation.*—The 1928 Joint Strike Committee demanded a standardization scheme of wages and mostly in pursuance of that demand the Millowners' Association were compelled to hasten the preparation of a scheme which they had been considering for years past. At last the scheme was prepared during the 1928 strike; but it contained two dangerous items, viz., a heavy cut in wages and a reduction in the number of workers. The Joint Strike Committee prepared, under the guidance of Mr. Mohamad Umar Rajab, vice-president of this union, its own standardization scheme which had a wholesome effect on the millowners, in that, they levelled up their scheme in some respects. The revised scheme was fully discussed before the Fawcett Committee and the latter has dealt with it very exhaustively. The scheme has not yet come into operation, and it may not be worth while to go into it again. Suffice it to say, that, subject to such agreements that have been reached between the Joint Strike Committee and the Millowners' Association, the union is not prepared to accept a scheme which contains a cut and a reduction in the number of workers.

105. *Minimum Wages.*—Any scheme for the improvement of the lot of working classes will not be complete or of much practical utility if it does not include any proposals to secure to workers the payment of a wage "adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life as this is understood in their time and country." Great emphasis was laid on "the provision of an adequate living wage" by the signatories to the Treaty of Peace, and this question was mentioned in the Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty as one of the problems of urgent importance which require solution if social unrest is to be avoided. In view of the importance of this problem the International Labour Conference at its eleventh session held in 1928, adopted a draft convention and a recommendation concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. The convention contemplated the creation of such machinery in the case of trades or parts of trades (and in particular home working trades) in which no arrangement exist for effective regulation of wages by collective agreements or otherwise and in which wages are exceptionally low. A State Member ratifying this convention is placed under an obligation to create such machinery but the nature and form of the machinery and trades to which it should apply are questions which are left to the discretion of the States concerned.

*Alleged Difficulties in Adopting the Convention.*—In India, the system of regulation of wages by collective agreements is conspicuous by its absence. Labour in this country cannot be said to be much well organised yet, and this is the main cause why labour in India is weak in its bargaining power. In view of these facts one would expect India to be one of the earliest State Members to ratify this convention. But, on the contrary, the Government of India have not even ratified the convention owing to alleged practical difficulties. It is stated that the difficulties in the way of the introduction of the minimum wage principle in India are:—firstly, this question is quite new to India and has not been thoroughly considered in any Province. Besides, the question of the practicability and advisability of establishing wage boards in India has not been thoroughly investigated. Secondly, there is no standardization of wages in any industry and the wages for similar or same occupations differ from establishment to establishment. Thirdly, the cost of living index numbers are not available for different industrial centres in India. Cost of such index numbers have a very important bearing on the question of fixation or regulation of a minimum wage.

*Difficulties not insuperable.*—The difficulties mentioned above do not appear to be such as to necessitate the abandonment of the proposal altogether. The problem of fixing minimum wages may be new to India, but it will continue to be "new" until an effort is made to tackle it. The union fails to understand why it is so very

essential that the standardization of wage in a particular industry should necessarily precede the application of the minimum wage principle. The object of standardization of wages is to secure to the workers in different establishments in one industry equal pay for the similar type and equal quality of work done. But the aim of the fixation of minimum rates of wages is to ensure that a worker in the lowest paid occupation does not get a wage lower than a rate fixed by law. The absence of cost of living index numbers in different industrial centres or in various provinces appears to be a real difficulty in this connection. There is much truth in the statement that the cost of suitable standard of living differs considerably from province to province, and also between different parts of a province, and this appears to be an obstacle in the way of fixing a national living wage for India as a whole—but this is a question which must be tackled sooner or later. This difficulty is absent, for example, in Bombay City—as the Labour Office compiles and publishes a working class cost of living index number every month. Recently similar index numbers for Ahmedabad are also worked out by the Labour Office. It is, therefore, the considered opinion of the union that time has now come when the application of the minimum wage principle should not be delayed any longer and that a beginning should be made at least in industries or industrial centres where the difficulties discussed above do not exist to any great extent, such as the cotton mill industry in Bombay City.

*Basis for a Minimum Wage.*—The main objects of minimum wage legislation may be briefly stated as (1) the prevention of the payment of unduly low wages or exploitation of labour, and (2) the elimination of unfair competition between the employers as regards wages. It is also claimed, that minimum wages laws, by establishing greater equality of bargaining power, indirectly help to develop organization amongst the workers. No definite formula or principle as regards what should constitute a minimum wage has been laid down in any of the minimum wages laws adopted in various foreign countries such as New Zealand, Australia, U.S.A., Great Britain, etc. These laws generally relate to both male and female workers in specified industries and contain a general definition pertaining to what may be considered as a "minimum wage." It is significant to note that some of these laws take into consideration the necessary cost of living of the workers and his family. For instance, basis for fixing minimum rates as stated in the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act, 1924, of Great Britain, is as far as possible a wage for able-bodied men adequate to enable a worker in ordinary case to maintain himself and family in accordance with reasonable standard of comfort in relation to nature of his occupation. But the most common basis for fixation of minimum wages as contemplated in the various laws appears to be the cost of living and the financial condition of the industry.

*Condition of the Industry.*—It has been the experience of industrially advanced countries such as England and U.S.A., that it has always been extremely difficult to prove whether a given industry is able or not to pay the minimum wages fixed by law. In view of this, in certain cases in U.S.A. the regulation of changes in the minimum wages is mainly governed by the cost of living, the other factor regarding the economic position of the industry being very difficult to prove. It should not, however, be supposed that the union is not prepared to consider the financial condition of the cotton mill industry in Bombay City while putting forward a demand for fixation of a minimum rate of wages for the cotton mill operatives. On the other hand, it may be made clear, that the Union is ready to reconsider its demand for fixation of a minimum wage at the rate indicated below, if the union is satisfied that the millowners have explored all the available sources of effecting economies in the cost of production and that the only item then left is "wages."

*Rs. 30—a Minimum Wage.*—One of the seventeen demands put forward by the Joint Strike Committee before the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee was that "the wages of those workers whose average monthly wage is less than Rs. 30 shall be raised substantially." The union considers and reaffirms that the above demand is just and reasonable. The experience of the members of the Union goes to show that Rs. 30 per month for an average family is, with great difficulty, just sufficient to maintain a family almost on the "subsistence level." In view of this, the union should like to make an emphatic demand that Rs. 30 should be fixed as the minimum rate of wages for adult male operatives below which no worker who has put in normal hours on each of the working days in a month should be paid. The reiteration of this demand may be considered as preposterous by some but the following few considerations would show that what after all the union asks for, is nothing more than a bare living wage.

*Basis for Rs. 30.*—It is now proposed to indicate the lines on which the union has based its demand for Rs. 30. The basis is put at the lowest by comparing the quantities of some of the main food articles consumed by a cotton mill operative in Bombay City with those consumed by prisoners in jail, in order to show that the union's demand for Rs. 30 as being the minimum wage is not extravagant. A

reference to the Bombay Jail Manual (Part I, revised edition, 1927, page 40) will show that the following is the scale of the diet given to male convicts including juveniles confined in prisons and employed on *bona fide* hard labour :

Articles.	Daily Quantity.
(1) Wheat, jowari or bajri or rice .. .. .	24 oz.
(2) Dall .. .. .	5 oz.
(3) Salt .. .. .	8 drams.
(4) Onions .. .. .	4 drams.
(5) Vegetables .. .. .	8 oz.
(6) Oil (average) .. .. .	8 drams.
(7) Condiments .. .. .	4 drams.
(8) Tamarind (average) .. .. .	3 drams.
(9) Fuel .. .. .	1 lb.

Thirty times the first six of the above quantities multiplied by the average retail prices of the respective articles for the month of December, 1929 in Bombay City (vide p. 426 of the Bombay Labour Gazette for January, 1930) will show that the average monthly expenditure on food articles alone amounts to Rs. 5-4-2 pies for a single worker. A reference to the Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay City published by the Labour Office in 1923 (pages 65-66) shows that the average number of persons living in the family is 4.2; and the equivalent in adults per family = 3.4. The total cost of the food articles consumed by the average family will thus be 3.4 by Rs. 5-4-2 pies. The average expenditure on "food" amounts to 56.8 per cent. of the total expenditure of the working class family. If all the items included in the "food group" in Table VI referred to above are scanned, it will be seen that the expenditure on the food grains alone (according to jail diet) comes to only about 37.1 per cent. of the total expenditure of the family. On this basis the cost of maintaining an average family comes to (Rs.  $\frac{100}{37.1}$  by 3.4 by Rs. 5-4-2 pies).

According to the family budgets report referred to above, there are 1.5 earners in the average family. The 1.5 adult breadwinners should earn this sum of Rs. 48-3-4 pies in order that their families may be fed, clothed, and sheltered according to the lowest of minimum standard of life. This clearly means that each adult must get at least Rs. 32-2-3 pies as wages per month (i.e. Rs. 48-3-4 pies divided by 1.5).

The minimum wage arrived at is based on the retail prices ruling in December, 1929. Any rise in the prices or in the cost of living index number for Bombay City should have a corresponding effect on this minimum wage. The union is of opinion that the minimum should be varied with definitely marked changes in the cost of living index, say, by 5 points.

**Machinery.**—The best machinery to secure the minimum wage is, of course, the collective agreement; but it can be successfully effected in those trades where the employers and workers are sufficiently organized. Where this essential condition does not exist and where the workers are not organized to an extent which will enable them to negotiate a collective agreement on a footing of equality with their employers, a suitable machinery on a statutory basis should be devised. The union does not support any machinery which has not the backing of law behind it. The joint industrial councils under the Whitley scheme cannot function effectively where the workers' organization is not strong. The German works councils have the same difficulty if they are organized independently of the trade unions or if the workers are not properly organized. In Germany the works councils are deliberately excluded from negotiating the wage rates, which function is allocated to the trade unions and the employers' associations. Where these do not exist or are weak, the works councils are allowed to intervene. The Union, however, is inclined to take the view that, where the workers' organizations do not exist or are weak, the wage fixing machinery should be, as far as possible, independent of any other machinery that may be devised for the purpose of improving the industrial relations between the employers and employees. Out of the three systems of wage regulations that are prevalent in different parts of the world, viz., the fixed minimum wage method, the board system and the arbitration system, the union prefers the board system as being more suitable to Indian conditions. The fixed minimum wage method is inflexible and the wage amounts are stated in the Act itself with greater or less precision. The size of the country and the vast difference in the economic conditions prevailing in different provinces may make this system inapplicable to India. The union is equally opposed to the arbitration system inasmuch as it hardly tends to improve the relations between the employers and employees. The union, therefore, supports the board system in which an independent chairman, unlike under the arbitration system, has to give a decision with which at least one side must agree and in which also, owing to the fear that the chairman may vote on the other side,

the two sides are checked from taking an uncompromising attitude. The union recommends the formation of trade boards on the lines of the British Trade Boards with powers which the Whitley Committee have recommended for the English Boards.

106. *Deductions.*—The union submitted to the Bombay Government in 1927 an exhaustive representation on the "deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines" and a printed copy of the same is enclosed to this memorandum as Appendix C.\* Suffice it to say that the union stands by the views expressed in that representation and has no further remarks to offer on the subject of deductions. It only draws the attention of the Commission to paras. 109 to 120 of the Fawcett Committee's report in which the committee discusses Standing Order 18 relating to offences for which the workers are liable to be fined.

107. *Periods of Wage Payments.*—The managing committee of the union considered this question so early as in 1926 and addressed a letter to the Director of Labour, expressing its views on the prompt payment of wages. The important parts of that letter are reproduced below:—

"The Committee desires to express its appreciation of the move made by the Government of India in the direction of securing by legislation the prompt payment of the workers. The move was overdue; and had it been made earlier, some of the hardships from which the workers suffer, may have disappeared long ago. However, the Committee is glad to find that the Government of India propose, though a little late, to legislate on a matter with which the financial interests of the working classes are vitally connected.

"The Committee agrees with the Government of India that the state of affairs in respect of the periods by which wages are paid in organized industries and in respect of the delays which are associated with their payment, cannot be regarded as other than satisfactory, that these delays are, in a number of cases, so great as to add appreciably to the economic difficulties of the workmen and give rise to several abuses and that if these abuses can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation. It is the opinion of the Committee that the real remedy for checking the abuses lies in enacting a legislation making payments of wages fortnightly or weekly and the Committee would have accorded its hearty support to such legislation. The Committee is aware of the opposition to the Weekly Payments Bill of Mr. Chaman Lall, a part of which had come from some workers. But it feels confident that if the system of weekly payments, the advantage accruing therefrom and the disadvantages of the system of monthly payments had been fully explained to the workers, they would have withdrawn their opposition and agreed to the system of payments for shorter periods. But as Mr. Chaman Lall's Bill had unfortunately to be withdrawn on account of the joint opposition of the Government and the interested parties, the Committee has to be content with the alternative now proposed by the Government of India, as being the next best.

"The Committee generally agrees with what the Government have said in paragraph 6 of their letter of July 28 regarding the setting of the statutory limit to the time within which wages must be paid. It, however, desires to emphasize that such limit should be placed not only in the case of monthly wages but also in the case of fortnightly, weekly and daily wages. The limit to be placed on the delays should be, in the opinion of the Committee, at the most, a week in the case of monthly wages, four days in the case of fortnightly wages, two days in the case of weekly wages and the daily wages should be paid on the same day. There does not seem to be any necessity to delay the daily wages by a day as seems to have been suggested in paragraph 6 of the letter. In fact these wages are in most cases paid on the days for which they are earned.

"As regards the enforcement of such law, the Committee is in entire accord with the view of the Government of India stated in paragraph 7 of their letter that "if the enforcement of the law is to depend upon the initiative of the workmen themselves the Act will fail to achieve its object" and that, therefore, 'it is essential that the power to prosecute should be granted to some external authority, such as an inspecting staff.' The dangers pointed out in the paragraph such as dismissals, if the responsibility of recovering the wages in a court of law is thrown on the workmen, and the difficulties of the workers in the same establishment joining together in prosecuting the employer are real, cannot but prevent action. Moreover, the amount of inconvenience that may be caused to the workers is disproportionate to the amount that they may get. If, therefore, the Act is to function efficiently and is not desired to remain a dead letter, it is essential that the Act should set up an independent machinery to enforce it.

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\* Not printed in this memorandum.

" The scope of the measure to be enacted should be, the Committee is of opinion, as wide as possible and should cover all the establishments, large or small, Government semi-Government or private, such as railways, tramways, docks, plantations, municipalities, local boards, Government services in addition to the establishments covered by the Indian Factories and Mines Acts. The Committee does not agree with the Government of India that the Act should be confined, in its operation, to those establishments which are subject to the operation of the Factories Act and the Mines Act. Such restrictions in the operation of the measure will surely defeat to a great extent the object for which it is intended. - It is true that an additional staff will have to be employed ; but it is worth while doing so, even at the cost of some extra expenditure. Otherwise the measure will lose much of its utility and the abuses which it seeks to check or eliminate will remain where they are. It is therefore the considered opinion of the Committee that for the measure to be both useful and effective, its scope should be wide enough and its enforcement should be in the hands of an outside and independent agency. The Committee requests the Government of India to consider this point seriously and hope that they will accept it.

" There are one or two other points in connection with this subject which the Committee desires to bring to the notice of the Government of India for their consideration. One is that in some cotton textile mills in Bombay the workers who are discharged or leave the service in the middle of the month, are not paid immediately for the days for which they have worked in the mills but are asked to come on the next pay day, which means a good deal of delay. The Committee thinks that such delays should also be covered by the proposed legislation. Another point is that there is a practice prevailing in many cotton textile mills in Bombay that the wages claimed after a certain period which varies from three to six or even more months, are forfeited. There are occasions such as continued illness or other domestic difficulties on account of which the workers cannot claim their wages earlier ; but it is only fair that they should get them as soon as they are in a position to claim them. It will be well if such forfeiture of wages which is more serious than the delays in getting the wages, is prohibited under the new measure."

108. *Indebtedness*.—The following paragraph from the Family Budgets report of the Labour office will give the Commission some idea about the extent of indebtedness of the workers :—

" Interest on debts shows an average expenditure of nearly 3 per cent. of the total monthly expenditure. No less than 47 per cent. of the families were in debt. . . . The usual rate of interest is one anna per rupee per mensem or 75 per cent. per annum, and in a few cases 2 annas per rupee per mensem or 150 per cent. per annum . . . The indebtedness of the family in debt extends ordinarily to the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings. The extremes are equivalent to 14 months' and one third of a months' earnings. Some money lenders obtain in effect even a higher rate than 150 per cent. by taking promissory notes of higher value than the loan actually given." (pp. 33).

110. *Leave*.—The system of leave both with and without payment is absent in Bombay mills. Whenever urgent work or illness makes it impossible for a worker to go to work, he either sends word to his jobber or explains his absence the next day when he goes to the mills. If the jobber is well disposed towards the worker, the latter gets back his machine ; otherwise he gets a sack on the ground that he was absent without leave. There may be exceptions to this method and it may be that the workers have got leave of absence ; but the point the Union wants to emphasize is that in the absence of any system, the jobbers possess a very considerable power of mischief and the Union has on its record a number of complaints of this character. The question of leave was fully dealt with before the Fawcett Committee and the Milowners' Association have now agreed to grant 2 months' leave to the workers on an application and to keep the record of such leave. The rule has not yet come into operation and it is to be seen how far it works in actual practice.

The Union strongly suggests for the sympathetic consideration of the Commission that the workers should get some leave on pay. In its opinion such leave will have a good effect not only on the worker's health but on their efficiency as well. After their return from the villages, they have always shown better efficiency. In Germany, such leave on pay has been secured by the workers and in England the agitation to get it is going on and it is probable that it may succeed.

111. *Fair Wages Clause*.—The Union is in favour of the Fair Wages Clause in public contracts. It will have a healthy effect on the general wage level in the City.

### XIII.—Workers' Efficiency.

112. The fact that the Bombay mills are gradually going from coarse to medium and from medium to fine counts and are producing better kind of cloth than before, shows that the workers' efficiency has not remained stationary but has improved.

The reduction of working hours from 12 to 10 has also shown an improvement in the efficiency of the weavers. In view of the fact that the millowners have made no efforts to improve the efficiency of the operatives, the improvements they have shown in their work are indeed highly creditable.

113. A comparison is sometimes made between the number of looms and spindles that the workers in India and the workers in other countries mind, in order to show that the Indian workers are less efficient than the other workers. It is mischievous to make such a comparison without taking into account other factors of great importance. The Bombay millowners conveniently forget the climatic conditions obtaining in different countries, the stamina of the operatives, their conditions of service, their housing, their education, the quality of raw material supplied, the differences in machinery, the labour-saving appliances, etc., and without any justification they condemn their own operatives. Mr. Arnos S. Pearse, General Secretary of the International Federation of Master Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association, has recently stated that the average number of looms per operative in Japan is 5.5 as against 4 in England; but he has not declared that the English worker is less efficient than Japanese worker. Mr. N. M. Joshi had suggested before the Tariff Board that if a scientific comparison between the efficiency of the Indian and the British worker was to be made, about a half-dozen Indian workers should be sent to Lancashire and asked to work there under conditions in which the British workers worked, and that if the results showed that the Indian workers were less efficient than the English workers, then only he would admit the truth of the allegation of the Bombay millowners; but not till then. The union supports Mr. Joshi's stand and declines to believe that the Bombay worker is less efficient than any other worker of other countries. The union desires also to point out that Dr. Rajani Kant Das in his book on the "Hindustani workers on the Pacific Coast" has proved that the Hindustani workers working in America have proved themselves as efficient as the workers of other nationalities, including the Americans.

*Efficiency of Management.*—In sharp contrast to the improvement that the workers have effected in their efficiency, howsoever small it may be, the union regrets to say that the efficiency of the mill officers, including jobbers and head jobbers, is not as it should be. There is, the union knows, a fair sprinkling of superior officers, both Indian and British, whose technical knowledge is of a high order and it is perhaps due to their presence that the Bombay industry has maintained its existence such as it is to-day. The union, however, knows by experience that there are some mill officials whose knowledge of the technique of the industry and whose organizational capacity is no better than that of the outsiders in the trade unions who are attacked so mercilessly by the millowners. If an examination is held and these officials are put to the test, the union has no doubt that many of them will fail. Many of the ills of the industry can be traced to the incompetency of these men. But it is human nature to see a mole in others' eyes, forgetting the mountain in their own.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (ii) The extent of the trade union organization in the Bombay textile industry may be obtained from the Bombay Labour Office. Suffice it to say that the trade union movement took an organized form only after the 1925 general strike and with the formation of this union in January, 1926. Writing about this union in his report of the investigations into the conditions of the Indian textile workers, the Rt. Hon. T. Shaw, M.P., has the following remarks to make:—

"In Bombay it is to be found perhaps the nearest approach to what, for want of a better name, I will call the European model. The union takes all textile workers as members in whatever branch they work, and its business is done from five different centres. The membership cards are printed in Urdu and Marathi, and give details which are quite customary in Europe. There is also an active propaganda by means of big posters in prominent places in the mill areas. These posters give summaries of the work of the union, and invite all textile workers to join it. . . . There is a central managing committee which is really the authoritative managing body for the union. It consists of the principal officers and representatives of the workers in the proportion of one for each 200 members in any given mill. There are also committees in each centre or district, but the functions of these committees are purely advisory. There are also mill committees, and the central committee's idea is to give the actual workers themselves the greatest possible share in the management of the union." (Pages 42-43.)

With its propaganda the union could succeed within a period of two years to secure a paying membership of between 8,000 to 10,000. Then came the 1928 strike in which the Girni Kamgar Union came into existence. Taking advantage



of such success of the strike as was obtained and by its unrealizable promises and hopes to the workers, the G.K. union could increase its membership to, according to the Labour Office figures, over 40,000. It can be said that after the 1928 strike the union mentality had been created among the workers, and if the 1929 strike had not intervened and things would have gone on smoothly, the trade union membership might have increased very considerably. But the last year's strike destroyed not only the future hope but killed the strength that had been built up, and to-day it must be said with great regret and pain that the trade union movement in the textile industry is on its last legs!

118. So far as this Union is concerned, it can be said that it has been able to redress a number of workers' grievances. The three annual reports of the Union that are enclosed to this Memorandum will show that in such cases as dismissals, re-employment, rates and wages, fines, strikes, assaults, etc., the Union had been a real help to the workers. Had the millowners been a little sympathetic towards the Union, the success it had achieved would have been more substantial and the Union would not have required to go through the agonies it went through after the 1928 strike. It was a healthy check on those mills where it had good membership and some of the mill managers and other officers had admitted the usefulness and the utility of this Union. Although it cannot be said that the Union has been able to leave a permanent mark of its work on the general conditions of the operatives by securing to them higher wages, reduced hours, better housing or stability of employment, it is true to say that it had stopped very considerably the tyrannies of the mill officials practised on individual workers and created in them a kind of awe about Trade Unions. Thanks to the short sighted policy of a majority of the millowners and their born hatred of trade unions, the activities of this Union had to be curtailed for the present and it could not continue in the manner in which it did function before the 1928 strike!!

119. The Union has not been able to organize schemes for giving benefits to its members, such as unemployment, sickness, or old age benefits. The Union officials had to concentrate their energies and attention all these years on organization and the workers' complaints and deal with the strikes as they took place; and there was also the difficulty of finance. However, it has given special financial help to some of its members who were in distress and spent about Rs.6,000 in distributing relief to its members and other workers during the 1928 strike. It had also collected special funds for the same purpose in the sectional strikes in a few mills. It may further be stated here that owing mostly to the influence of its President, Mr. N. M. Joshi, in the international labour movement, the Union could secure about Rs. 40,000 for distributing relief during the 1928 strike.

120. (i) The constitution and the three annual reports of this union will give the commission some idea about the history and the activities of this union; and it is not necessary to repeat them here.

(iii) In spite of the fact that the relations of some of the officers of this union are more or less cordial with some of the millowners in Bombay, it must be stated quite frankly that the general attitude of the employers as a class is one of hostility towards the trade unions and the trade union movement. It is only recently when an undesirable element entered the trade union field that the employers have begun to talk in terms of sympathy towards the unions; but their talks have not yet been translated into action. If anything, their association in its memorandum to this commission has boldly advocated amendments to the Indian Trade Unions Act, most of which, if carried into effect, are calculated to make the independent trade union movement impossible in this country and convert the trade unions into departments of Government. The association may say that it was compelled to make these suggestions owing to the activities of the Girmi Kamgar Union. But it fails to realize that for the action of one or two unions like the Girmi Kamgar Union, the association wants to penalize all the trade unions which have been carrying on its activities in a legitimate and constitutional manner. It is also significant to remember that when the Girmi Kamgar Union did not exist and when other unions were functioning on trade unions lines, it never occurred to the Millowners' Association to look at them with a sympathetic eye or grant them recognition. On the contrary the negotiations by this union in one of the strikes of its own members with the association were characterised by it as "officious" in one of its Annual Reports. If this case is considered as rather old as it happened in 1926, the union can cite another to prove the hostile mentality of the millowners. It took place only last September. The union held a joint enquiry over the dismissal of one worker in a mill where it had very strong membership. The enquiry lasted for about three months but the parties could not come to any agreement. The matter was taken up to the Millowners' Association which appointed a sub-committee to negotiate with the parties. The negotiations failed to reach a settlement and, as a last alternative, the sub-committee of the Association asked the parties to refer the dispute to arbitration and this suggestion was sent to the

association. It was accepted by the union but rejected by the mill. In its anxiety not to displease the powerful mill, the association turned down the suggestion made by its own sub-committee. This clearly proves that when the interests of a mill clash with those of the union, the association does not hesitate to throw overboard not only the union but its own representatives who, not being directly involved in the dispute, can sometimes take a detached view.

The union can also give another illustration of the millowners' dislike of the trade unions. The chairman of the commission put it to the representatives of this union in their oral evidence whether they would meet the millowners to discuss the problems of industry and they replied that they would. The millowners have not done anything yet in the direction of calling the quarterly general meetings contemplated by the chairman owing perhaps to the present weak position of the union. The union understands this position and does not complain. But it does complain about the way in which the Millowners' Association has started its work of coming in contact with the workers and dealing with their complaints. It has recommended to the management to keep complaints boxes in the mills and ask the workers to take the complaints to the officers or put them in the boxes. In the case of collective grievances, the association says that the mill agents will make enquiries and, if necessary, take them to the association. If such methods had solved the workers' grievances, the world would have heaved a sigh of relief at the solution of one of the most difficult industrial problems. But the union may not complain about the procedure laid down by the association although it feels that it will not improve matters. What it takes serious objection to is the complete disregard shown by the association towards the trade unions. It knows that they do exist, though in a feeble condition and it should have informed the workers that if they could not get redress by the procedure laid down by the mills, it would sympathetically consider their grievances if sent through their unions. If the association had expressed itself in its instructions to the mills and the workers in these or similar terms so as to convey to the operatives its willingness to deal with the unions, it would have proved its *bona fides* about its attitude towards the trade union organization. In times of difficulties and owing to public pressure, it shows some lip sympathies towards that union which it considers to be less harmful than the others.

Another illustration of the attitude of the millowners towards the trade unions can be given and it is the organization, by an important mill group in Bombay, of what can be called company unions organized through its jobbers and head jobbers. In paragraph 182 of the memorandum of the Bombay Government will be found the names of these unions with a membership of 29 only which were organized during the period of the last year's strike. This union has reason to believe that all the three unions were started under the instigation of a mill group and one of them is already registered. In spite of the fact that the unions at the time of their registration had to give their official addresses to the registrar, some of the letters addressed to the registered union in the list given in the Bombay Government's memorandum had come to the address of this union as the postal authorities could not trace the existence of that union. This shows clearly how company unions are functioning. An attempt was also made to encourage the formation of what is called the "Amalgamated Millowners' Self-help Union," one of the objects of which was to so inculcate the habit of thrift among the workers as to enable them to purchase one or more mills and run them on model lines. The promoters of this so-called union were to be the representatives of one Bombay Ownership Housing and Tenants' Welfare Institute (it is not traceable) and of the existing trade unions in the mill industry. It was to have mill committees, a "general administrative committee," and a "board of control" whose functions though defined could not be understood. One of the promoters of this so-called union was a Government pensioner, another a municipal retired officer, and a third a landlord, besides one or two others. This union has not heard of the activities of that union; but the facts stated above are sufficiently indicative of the mentality of the millowners and their organization.

*Attitude towards Labour Legislation.*—The attitude of the millowners and their association towards labour legislation of ameliorative character introduced by the Government of India since 1921 has been mostly one of opposition. The following summary of their views, prepared from the annual reports of the association is enough to substantiate the above statement:—

(1) Legislation for the registration and protection of trade unions was at that juncture (1921) premature.

(2) The association was opposed to the voluntary registration; it demanded compulsory registration which implies, it may be stated parenthetically, the suppression by law of unregistered trade unions.

(3) It deprecated the policy of "slavish adherence" to the provisions of the British trade union legislation.

(4) It was "opposed to the introduction in the Indian law of any provisions that might tend to countenance the practice of picketing in any shape or form."

(5) The Association was not in favour of having legislation prohibiting the employment of women before and after childbirth (1921 report) and opposed Mr. N. M. Joshi's Maternity Bill (1923 report).

(6) The Association declined to express an opinion on the proposal to repeal the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act, 1859.

(7) It opposed Mr. Chaman Lall's Weekly Wages Bill.

(8) It "lodged an emphatic protest" against the Government of India's proposed legislation on prompt payment of wages.

(9) It opposed Mr. N. M. Joshi's Bill to amend the Indian Penal Code so as to give immunity from legal proceedings to unregistered trade unions.

It may also be stated that the Association supported the Intimidation and *Goonda* Acts passed by the Bombay Government last year. On the top of all this, the Association has now suggested in its memorandum to this Commission, amendments in the Indian Trade Unions Act, the effect of which, if carried out, is calculated, in the opinion of the Union, to paralyse the growth of independent trade union movement.

121. The union is not in favour of amending the Trade Unions Act in such a way as to curtail the liberties of the unions or increase the restrictions and limitations already imposed on them. It, therefore, does not support the amendments of the Millowners' Association suggested in its memorandum to this Commission; nor can it support the proposals of the Bombay Government made in their "Note on Labour Position in Bombay"—proposals which are intended to increase the power of the Registrar of Trade Unions in respect of supervision and intervention, and vest him with more power of cancelling the registration of trade unions and ascertaining their membership. In the opinion of the union these proposals will only impose additional restrictions on trade unions without achieving the object of putting them on sound lines. The union is rather inclined to suggest that the Act should be so amended as to give the benefit of immunity from civil and criminal liability even to unregistered trade unions and that is should be brought in conformity with the British Trade Union Law *minus* the 1927 Act.

122. *Methods of Negotiations.*—Hitherto there was no conciliation machinery between the millowners and the trade unions for the purposes of negotiations. During the discussions between the Fawcett Committee, the Mediation Rules were framed and accepted by the Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee. The union gave a trial to these rules in one of the disputes referred to above, and it found that during the very first stage the joint meeting had to be held no less than ten times over the dismissal of one worker. By mutual agreement the dispute was referred to a sub-committee of the Millowners' Association and the Union Committee, instead of going through the other two stages of the rules. The result was that the worker was sacked on 4th June, the joint meetings commenced on 1st July and continued to the end of the month, further negotiations took a month, and the strike was declared only on 18th September. It can easily be realized what the fate of such a strike can possibly be. If the mediation rules are to be used for the purpose of marking time, creating divisions in the trade union rank and file and damping the resentment of the workers over unjust actions of the employers, then clearly the union has no use for such mediation machinery; it prefers to go without it. In the light of the experience gained in the dispute referred to above, the union now insists upon a radical change in the mediation rules. It wants a deletion of the second part of the negotiation machinery in which the dispute has got to go before a joint meeting of the representatives from the mediation panels on either side. This second stage is absolutely unnecessary and seems to have been devised simply to prolong the negotiations. It also insists that a time limit should be laid down for the completion of the negotiations under the mediation rules. The union suggests that a maximum period of a week should be fixed subject to it being increased with the consent of both the parties.

The mediation rules are applicable only to the trade disputes, but there is no joint machinery which deals with the workers' grievances, all of which may not develop into serious trade disputes. Speaking before the Fawcett Committee, Mr. Bakhale had suggested, on behalf of the Joint Strike Committee, that joint committees should be set up in each mill to deal with the day-to-day grievances so as to check the growth of discontent among the workers. The representatives of the Millowners' Association vehemently opposed the proposal. The Fawcett Committee refrained from expressing an opinion on it on the ground that it did not come within their terms of reference.

*Results of Non-co-operation.*—So far as the union is aware no attempts have been made to secure the co-operation of labour in the attempts to increase its efficiency. Schemes were prepared, the jobbers were informed and the schemes were brought into operation. Such is the method generally employed in Bombay mills. Irritation and discontent are the results of such non-co-operation.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.—

123. The statistical information about the several strikes in the textile industry, their causes, methods of settlement, and loss to the industry and workers, may be available to the Commission from the Memorandum of the Bombay Government and Labour Office. The union desires to point out here that a good many strikes could have been avoided if only the attitude of the millowners had been a little sympathetic and if they had taken the necessary precaution to deal with the workers' grievances before allowing them and the resulting discontent to accumulate. It is painful to record that no heed is taken of the workers' difficulties and grievances and the blame for the strikes is generally laid at their door. The employers' attitude is mostly responsible for the strike mentality of the operatives. They by their indifference and disregard for their workers create that mentality in the latter, and they must, therefore, face the consequences.

125. The union is opposed to those sections in the Trade Disputes Act which have put additional restrictions on the workers working in public utility services. Those sections should either be repealed or, in the alternative, if retained, special privileges should be conferred on those on whom they are imposed.

126. The Government are themselves a great employer of labour and their attitude towards it and labour legislation cannot be sufficiently sympathetic. The union fully recognizes that during the last few years they passed some labour legislation for which they deserve credit. But it feels that they should have done more. There are a number of Geneva conventions and recommendations which the Government of India have either not carried out or postponed. There are certain departments of Government such as postal department, which have shown greater sympathy towards labour unions than some other departments, such as railways. There are railway unions in India which, though registered, have been declined recognition. The late agent of the G.I.P. Railway had, it is understood, refused to see Mr. N. M. Joshi in connection with a dispute. Enormous delay, which has driven men to desperation, in dealing with labour matters is indicative of the mentality of Government. Circumstances and pressure of public opinion may have compelled them to show greater sympathy towards labour; but the mentality has not yet undergone a full change.

During industrial disputes, the attitude of Government officers is many times hostile towards labour. The Union can cite a few instances in support of this statement. In 1928 Mr. Joshi had gone to the Madras Presidency to try to settle the S. I. Railway strike. While he was going from place to place to see the situation for himself with a view to sound the strikers' opinions and arrive at some settlement, a magistrate served him, Mr. Giri and one or two others with a notice restraining them from making speeches and ordering them to leave the district immediately! In the 1928 textile workers' strike at Sholapur where this Union has a branch, the police unnecessarily interfered with peaceful picketing to which the strikers are entitled to resort, and made it almost impossible. Prosecutions were launched against some volunteers and a large number of them were fined. It was also stated that in the conduct of these cases, the magistrate was reported to have remarked that he would like to see what resources the Union had for the payment of fines for cases already decided and for cases that might come up later on. It could be gathered from this remark that the magistracy and the police at Sholapur wanted not only to stop peaceful picketing, but also to break the financial backbone of the Union itself! In a courteous letter to the Collector of Sholapur, Mr. Joshi brought this matter to his notice and requested him to stop the illegitimate interference of the police and allow the strikers to picket in a peaceful manner. The Collector in a curt reply informed Mr. Joshi that "I regret I cannot discuss the Sholapur Mill strike with the Bombay Textile Labour Union, Bombay, or its President who have no title to be heard in Sholapur affairs." Mr. Joshi again sent another letter but no reply was received. The *Labour Gazette*, the official publication of the Bombay Government, gives periodically a list of the trade unions in the Presidency; and in that list the Sholapur Union was first shown to be a branch of this union. Subsequently when that strike took a more serious turn the Labour Office omitted to mention the Sholapur Union as a branch of this union; it was shown as if it was an independent union. Why this was done can be easily inferred. After Mr. Joshi's protests, the Sholapur Union was again shown as a branch of this union. Again, the union declared a strike at the Kurla Swadeshi Mills in September last. The union men, including the general and assistant secretaries of the union, were picketing the mill

gates in a perfectly peaceful manner. The mill officials whose number was larger than that of the union, were also counter-picketing. The sub-inspector of police and the constables were on the spot. If they had confined themselves to their duty of maintaining law and order, no objection could have been taken. But the sub-inspector and a few constables warned the union pickets not to stand on a public road (but they had allowed the mills' officials to do the same) and to withdraw; they asked some workers to go inside the mills; the sub-inspector asked the union pickets not to shout "Comrades, don't go to work," but he said not a word to the mill officials who were goading the men in; and a few constables warned some men inside the tea shops which were opposite the mills not to wait there but to go to the mills. The police were clearly helping the mill authorities and putting every obstacle in the way of the union. On the 22nd September, the union made a complaint to the District Superintendent of Police, Bandra, and copies of the letter were sent to the General and Home Departments of the Bombay Government. The General Department directed the union to the Home Department, which merely acknowledged the complaint and did nothing more. The District Superintendent of Police never cared to send a reply. Such instances are enough to create a suspicion in the mind of the workers about the *bona fides* of Government, and there should be no surprise if they feel that Government side more with employers than with labour.

#### XVI.—Master and Servant.

130. The union is of opinion that the Madras Planters' Act, which is more or less on the lines of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act, should be repealed.

#### XVII.—Administration.

133. The attitude of the Central and Provincial Legislatures, like that of the Central and Provincial Governments, is not sufficiently sympathetic. A majority in these legislatures consist of capitalists, pro-capitalists, or of men with capitalist inclinations, and it is not expected that they would show adequate sympathies with labour. A fairly large element of nominated officials in these bodies add to the difficulties of labour getting a square deal. The representation of labour on the legislatures, which is only by nomination, is so poor as to be almost ineffective. A scheme of Labour Representation on the Central and Provincial Legislatures (copies of which are enclosed to this memorandum),\* a part of which was adopted by the All Indian Trade Union Congress some four years ago, will show the comparative strength of labour and capital on these bodies. Such being their constitution, labour legislation has not advanced as rapidly as it should and in some cases anti-labour legislation has been put on the statute book. Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefit Bill was defeated; Mr. Chaman Lall had to withdraw his Weekly Payments Bill; the provisions in respect of the public utility services in the Trades Disputes Act were passed; the Intimidation and *Goonda* Bills were passed in the Bombay Council; in the same legislature a Bill to lower the municipal franchise from Rs. 10 to Rs. 5 or Rs. 3 was defeated; and some of the important Geneva Conventions were either not passed or shelved. This record is enough to indicate the attitude of the present legislatures towards labour.

135. The union is of the considered opinion that labour legislation should be a central subject so that it would be common to the whole of India. If provincial governments are empowered to enact labour legislation, it may have a serious effect on labour conditions in India. Uniformity of labour legislation, which is very essential in a country like India, will be disturbed and some provinces may be placed at a disadvantage over others. In special conditions which may be peculiar to a particular province, a provincial government may be allowed to have legislation of its own, subject always to the sanction of the Central Government. But in matters such as hours, workmen's compensation, wage-fixing machinery, social insurance and the like, the union is clear that there must be all-India legislation.

137. As compared with British India, the India States are very backward in labour legislation. Many States have not got the Factories Act, and in some where it exists, its administration is reported to be slack. There is thus a natural tendency on the part of the capitalists to remove their factories to the Indian States where there are fewer restrictions, if any, on hours, wages, employment of women and children, compensation for accidents, and where labour is comparatively cheap. It is very essential that the Indian States should be brought in line with British India in respect of labour legislation, so as to equalise, as far as possible, labour conditions and remove whatever exploitation exists in the Indian States.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. The labour statistics in India are very inadequate and, where they exist, are not always accurate. The union is of opinion that some machinery should be devised to compile adequate and reliable industrial statistics.

\* Not printed.

THE MATERNITY CONDITIONS OF WOMEN MILLWORKERS, BY  
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There is little real information in India about the maternity conditions of women millworkers. It is generally believed they are bad and that special action is needed, but unless we get more definite knowledge of the effect of maternity on women workers, there is danger that the remedies may prove wide of the mark, and unsuited to the needs of the women.

Amelioration of the conditions of women millworkers is not of importance for sentimental reasons only. One of the difficulties connected with labour in India is the shifting nature of the industrial population. Men come from their villages leaving their wives behind, and as soon as they have saved a little money, they are eager to go back to enjoy the amenities of home life. They are the more ready to strike because they have a village home to return to. When the worker brings his wife to the city and perhaps his children too, his work and its steady continuance becomes of much greater importance to him. If his wife also works in the mill, he has a larger stake in its prosperity. Hence thought and organization regarding the employment of women will do much, not only to improve their own work, but to render the employment of men more dependable and stable.

The special disability under which women suffer with regard to work is maternity. How is that affected by work? Is the mother adversely affected, and is the child adversely affected? And if so, can anything be done to remedy matters without shutting the woman off from a source of livelihood which is well within her powers at ordinary times?

Interest in this question was roused in India after the first International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919, (1) where articles were passed in the Draft Convention providing for the safeguarding of maternity among women workers. It was required that each expectant mother should have six weeks' rest before and six weeks' rest after confinement, and that she should be paid benefits sufficient for the full and healthy maintenance of herself and her child. At this Conference the special circumstances of India were recognized and it was not expected that she should adopt these articles at once. But she was asked to look specially into the matter and find out what could be done to put the maternity conditions of women workers on a proper footing. The Government of India thereafter addressed local governments asking how far it would be possible to introduce maternity benefits or at least to carry out an enquiry as to the need of them. The replies from local governments were not encouraging. The situation was the same then as now. The local governments did not wish to undertake the expense either of an industrial maternity scheme or of an enquiry. The employers of labour were in the same position, while it was felt that the workers were at once too poorly paid, and too ignorant regarding their own welfare, to be willing to contribute the small sum necessary for an insurance scheme. In the year 1921, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour, Mr. A. C. Chatterjee, called a meeting at Simla of various persons, representing chiefly medical and social organizations to discuss the question and to ask for suggestions. As a result of that meeting an offer was made by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund to give the services of two medical women for an enquiry on the maternity conditions of women industrial workers in two different parts of India. This offer was accepted by the Government of India and by the two local governments concerned, Bengal and Bombay, and in the year 1921-22, enquiries were carried out in Bengal by Dr. Dagmar Curjel and in Bombay City by Dr. Florence Barnes.

These medical women were lent from the Women's Medical Service for one year only. The object was "to determine the influence which industrial work might exert on the Indian woman worker especially during the childbearing age and on the well-being of her child". (2) The enquiry in Bengal included the jute, cotton, tea and coal industries, and in Bombay the cotton industry.

Both reports (2) and (3) give a great deal of valuable information as to the conditions under which women work in India and as to their domestic and social relations. They make it plain that childbirth is looked upon as something quite outside the province of the employers. Medical relief for ordinary ailment may be provided by means of mill doctors and mill dispensaries, but no arrangements are made for childbirth. An expectant mother disappears when her time is near and reappears when she wishes. She may, or may not, be taken on again. The factory has no information to give regarding her confinement, her child, or the frequency of her pregnancies. Hence these medical women's reports could only give general

information such as the facts that many women were confined in their own chawls by dais, while others returned to their village homes for the occasion. They had no time, nor had they any opportunity to follow the women through their confinements and to note the immediate results to mother and child.

Following the issue of these reports and in consequence of them, welfare centres were started in certain mills in Bengal, while in Bombay a medical woman was appointed with the status of factory inspector with the special task of organizing welfare work among women. There are now creches in connection with thirteen mills, while maternity benefits have been given for some years by two groups of mills in Bombay City.

In the year 1925, having received a grant from the Indian Research Fund Association, Simla, for the investigation of the causes of maternal mortality in childbirth in India, we began work in Bombay and included the maternity conditions of millworkers with those of other classes. Our intention in doing so was to supply what we felt was a lack in the earlier reports, and to collect evidence as to the actual effect of work on pregnancy as it occurs in women living under the conditions of the Bombay millworkers. For this purpose it was necessary to keep records of the deliveries of a number of women workers, of a control series which was best found in women of the millworking community living under the same social conditions, but not employed in the mills, and a second series of controls, women of a rather better social position delivered in other hospitals in Bombay.

The facilities for such an investigation, which did not exist before, had been provided by the opening in 1923, by Sir Ness Wadia, of a maternity home in the mill area, specially intended for mill workers. In 1927, this home was moved to the fine new building of the Nowrasjee Wadia Hospital at Parel, built and partly endowed by Sir Ness Wadia and his brother Mr. C. N. Wadia. By the kind permission of Dr. M. V. Mehta, the principal medical officer, we have been permitted to attend the hospital and note the condition of the mill workers confined there. The numbers of the mill-working class who attend hospital are even now small, as they still prefer delivery in their chawls or villages, and for this reason we have kept the enquiry open until May, 1929, during which time we investigated 571 cases of labour among women of the mill-working class. Of these 283 were women actually working in the mills, whom we shall refer to hereafter as Class A, and 287 were the wives of male mill workers living under the same social conditions as the first, but not employed in the mills, whom we shall hereafter refer to as Class B.

With the kind permission of the Millowners Association and of the managers concerned, we visited a number of mills and saw the conditions under which the women worked. We were accompanied by Dr. T. J. Cama, who, as already stated, holds a special post as Factory Inspector under the Government of Bombay, and who showed us several of the mill creches and of the dispensaries officered by medical women (4 in number). She also took us to see several of the most insanitary chawls available, for which we were duly grateful.

During the same period we have been watching the maternity conditions of women of other classes in the city, especially in the Cama and Allbless hospital, to the successive superintendents of which we are grateful for the facilities so kindly given. In many cases we watched the after progress of our patients by visiting them in their homes, either chawls or better class houses, and so gained much knowledge of the conditions under which the different communities live. We have also carried out some observations on the diet of the people.

Before entering on the special question of maternity conditions it would be well to make some remarks on the habits and ways of living of the women of the mill-working class.

(1) The housing is poor. The people live in chawls or large tenement houses, which are usually built with a long central passage, from which rooms, about 12 feet by 15 feet in area, open on each side. The room may be occupied by one family, or, in order to save money on the rent, several families may share it. A case is described by Barnes (3) where 36 persons inhabited a room 12 feet by 15 feet. This is an extreme instance of overcrowding, but it is common to find six or ten people inhabiting such a room, in which the women will also have their deliveries. The rooms usually have a window opening on the street, but the only other air space, the door, opens into the passage, not into the outer air. The one window may not open directly to the air, but into a verandah where the family cooking is done, so that the air which enters is contaminated with smoke. The window may be blocked by neighbouring buildings, so making the room close and dark. The housing question is improving, and many new chawls are being built in the open areas to the north of the city. These are not yet fully occupied, but as they become more popular they should do good, especially if overcrowding within them can be prevented.

(2) Sanitation is water-borne, and there is a good drinking supply. In the newer chawls there is a tap in each passage and a room for bathing. Each chawl has a superintendent responsible to the owner for general order and cleanliness. In spite

of this most chawls are dirty, the passages littered with rubbish and swarming with unwashed children. The rooms are often dirty and disorderly, but here and there in the midst of disorderly neighbours a clean and tidy room is found.

(3) *Disease*.—Hookworm is rare owing to the water sanitation. Malaria is common, on account of carelessness in leaving water vessels and even cisterns uncovered and allowing pools to collect near the water taps. Dysentery and diarrhoea are common, especially in the autumn and winter. We did not hear much of gynaecological disease, and the women doctors in the special dispensaries said they got few such cases.

(4) *Wages*.—In 1923 the average monthly wage of men employed in Bombay cotton mills was Rs. 35-10 annas 7 pies, and of women Rs. 17-5 annas. The wages of course vary with the kind of work done. Many of the women of Class B, when questioned, gave their husband's wages as low as Rs. 20, Rs. 25 or Rs. 27 per month. Of 132 women questioned the husband's wages were below Rs. 40 p.m., in 75 cases, and above Rs. 40 p.m. in 57 cases. The majority of the women workers were doing piece-work; 151 were asked regarding their wages. In 38 cases the wages were under Rs. 20 p.m., in 107 cases between Rs. 20 and Rs. 30 p.m., and in 6 cases over Rs. 30. In 20 cases the wages of both husband and wife were asked and the joint average was Rs. 54 p.m.

(5) *Food*.—The results of an enquiry into the budgets of the working classes, carried out by the Bombay Labour Office was published in 1923. The following shows the constituents of the diet of a working-class woman, calculated from the figures given in that report, and compares it with the minimum of what is supposed to be required for a healthy woman not doing heavy work :—

	Protein in grms.	Fat in grms.	Carbo hydrates in grms.	Calories per oz.
Healthy woman ..	72	64	288	2,016
Mill worker ..	35.28	10.03	369.10	1,708

It will be noticed there is a great deficiency of protein and fat, and that the calories are nearly made up by an excess of carbo hydrates. It must be remembered the enquiry was made on what is called the extensive system, that is, the families were visited once, and the amount of foodstuffs ordered each month ascertained. This was divided by the days of the month and the members of the family, Lusks co-efficients being used to determine the amount for each person. Such articles as green vegetables and fresh fish which are bought in varying quantities daily were left out. Had these been entered they would have somewhat improved the diet shown. But the enquiries we made personally from the women confirmed the fact that their diet is very lacking in proteins and fats. Milk is taken not at all, or in such small quantity (in tea) as to be negligible. Ghee is not used, because it is more expensive than vegetable oil. Meat is too expensive for general use and is taken perhaps once a fortnight. Fruit is a very rare luxury, except at certain seasons as when mangoes are ripe. The staple diet of the "Konknis" (who form a large part of the mill-working population) is polished rice. The staple diet of the Bhatnis (also largely represented) is juari and bajra grains. With this is taken by the Konknis a little fish or the cheaper vegetables, chiefly potatoes, onions and spinach. The Bhatnis do not eat fish. Dal or gram is taken in small quantity. When times are bad, the women at least, will make their meal on rice or a piece of bajra bread and a little chutni. In all this question of diet the tendency of the mother of the family to give to her husband and children and do without herself (even if she knows she is with child) must be remembered. The diet is not only very deficient in proteins and fats but also in vitamins. Milk, ghee and eggs are the chief vehicles by which vitamin A enters the body. Some is contained in bajra and juari, therefore those who feed on these grains are better off than those whose staple food is rice. Dals and grams are good, but they are taken in very small quantity. Dal as cooked by these women is like soup, as cooked by peasants in the north of India it is like porridge. Spinach is excellent and contains a good supply of vitamins A, B and C, but it is less filling to the stomach and probably less popular than potatoes, which contain far less vitamin. In fact, the vitamins are chiefly contained in the more expensive foods and these are impossible for mill-workers at the present rate of wages. The labour office reports show that about half the family income is spent on food. If the wage is Rs. 30, this allows Rs. 15 p.m. for food. The average family is just under four persons. This gives 2 annas per day per head for food, which might make it possible to fill the stomach with edible substances, but not to pay any attention to such necessities as vitamins and the proper balancing of the dietary constituents.

6. *Habits and Work*.—Women of the industrial classes do not observe purdah. The women of Class B rise early, as the men have to be at the mill by 7 a.m. They cook the food, then clean the cooking and eating vessels, do the family marketing and the family washing. Many carry their husband's dinner to the mill daily.



Many take in boarders from among the single men working, and cook their food and carry it to the mill. They have, of course, no servants, so they are forced into the open air each day and have fairly active lives.

Women of Class A work in the mills from 8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. (sometimes longer) with an hour's interval at mid-day for food. They have the advantage of a walk to and from the mill and sometimes a second walk at mid-day if they come home for their food. They spend their days in the big factory rooms, which are on the whole clean, light and airy, at least as compared with most of the chawls. The joint income earned by themselves and their husbands should make better living possible, and in some cases no doubt it does so, but the tendency of the men to gamble and drink too often leaves the family with nothing but the mother's wages for support. It is generally agreed that the women themselves never drink.

The women are employed chiefly in the winding and reeling departments. This is not heavy work. It entails standing before a frame, watching the yarn wind and removing and replacing it when finished. The attention must remain fixed on the bobbin throughout, as broken threads unnoticed spoil the yarn when it comes to weaving.

In some cases there is a mother-in-law or other female relative living with the family who does the home cooking and housekeeping. In other cases the woman herself has to do it. This entails getting up at 5 or 5.30 a.m. to kindle the fire and cook the mid-day meal. At the mid-day interval she may come home to serve the food to husband and children. When work is finished in the evening she does her marketing and goes home to cook the evening meal. After it is eaten she has to do the cleaning up and various odd jobs about the house. Some women said they got up at 5.30 a.m. and did not get to bed till 10.30 p.m., working all the time. If there is a young baby and no one to leave it with, save perhaps a little sister or a neighbour, it can be imagined how this must add to the woman's tasks and anxieties, and one cannot wonder that, not realizing the danger, she is so liable to dose it with opium. Out of 83 mills in Bombay City only 13 have creches attached.

*7. Age and Casts.*—Of the mothers of Class A, 11 per cent. were below 20 years, 62 per cent. between 20 and 30 years, and 25 per cent. over 30 years. Only 2 were 15 or younger, the youngest being 14. Of the mothers of Class B, 20 per cent. were below 20 years, 59 per cent. between 20 and 30 years, and 20 per cent. over 30 years; 4 were 15 or younger, the youngest being 14. In fact there were fewer very young mothers in Class A.

The great majority were Hindus, in Class A all, except for 3 Christians and 3 Mahomedans, and in Class B all except 7 Christians and 12 Mahomedans. This does not probably show the real proportions of these communities among the industrial classes, for Mahomedan women have a great objection to attending hospitals staffed by men (as is the case in the Nowrasjee Wadia Hospital), and as a matter of fact they went in small numbers to the Cama Hospital (staffed by women) and were not included in these figures.

We now come to this important question: *Is the effect of the work done in the mills injurious to the expectant mother and her unborn child?*

TABLE I.—*Labour Cases among Industrial Mothers.*

Period.	Class A.				Class B.			
	Number of cases.	Still and premature birth-rate per 1,000 live births.	Maternal complications per 1,000 live births.	Average infant birth weight (full-time).	Number of cases.	Still and premature birth-rate per 1,000 live births.	Maternal complications per 1,000 live births.	Average infant birth weight (full-time).
1925-1927 ..	75	300	14.6	5.14		No return.		
1927-1928 ..	99	320	8.0	5.60	100	149	3.0	5.88
1928-1929 ..	112	217	3.5	5.66	185	241	9.7	5.71

Table I shows (1) the still and premature birth-rate, (2) the rate of maternal complications during pregnancy and labour, (3) the average infant birth weight in Classes A and B during the periods October, 1925, to April, 1927, May, 1927, to April, 1928, and May, 1928, to April, 1929. These periods are shown separately because the records for Class B were only begun in 1927, hence the earlier figures, though worth showing, cannot be compared in the two classes. The year 1927-28

was an ordinary typical year in the mill industry; 1928-29 was the year of the strike, when the cotton mills were closed for six months. The comparison of the two classes in these two years, therefore, offers evidence as to the effect of work on pregnancy.

In this table the still and premature birth-rate has been entered together for the sake of simplicity. Few premature babies survive in the millworking class, and it is not of importance to our present subject if death takes place before or shortly after birth.

In the year 1927-28 the still and premature rate of Class A was more than double that of Class B. In the following year (of the strike) it fell by one-third, although that of Class B was higher. There was no marked variation in the still and premature birth-rate in the Cama Hospital (non-industrial class) during the two years.

Enquiry was made from the women as to the length of time they continued their work during pregnancy. Up to the time the strike began 119 women had been so questioned. Of these 57 had ceased work before the completion of the seventh month of pregnancy and 62 had continued work beyond seven months. (The figures very closely correspond with those obtained by the Bombay Labour Office when this point was investigated in 1924 (6)). Those who ceased before seven months had a still and premature rate of 115 per 1,000, as compared with 194 per 1,000 for those who continued work beyond seven months. The questioning was resumed six weeks after the strike had ended. It was found that whereas the proportion leaving off work before the seventh month was formerly 47 per cent., it was now only 26 per cent. The 74 per cent. who continued to work after seven months had now a still and premature birth-rate of only 81 per 1,000, as compared with 194 per 1,000 before the strike. It looked as if the women were stronger after the prolonged rest and more able to carry on till near the end of pregnancy without ill effects to the child.

*Infant birth weight.*—There was not much difference in this in the two classes but what difference there was, was unfavourable to Class A. Only full-time babies were taken. The most marked difference was, that few really fine babies were found in Class A. The average weight of a full-time Indian baby is considered a little over 6 lbs. Among the non-industrial classes 26 per cent. of the babies observed weighed over 7 lbs. In Class B 16 per cent. and in Class A only 8 per cent. weighed over 7 lbs. During the 6 months following the end of the strike this was nearly reversed. Seventeen per cent. of the babies of Class A weighed over 7 lbs. and only 11 per cent. of those of Class B. The average birth weight of the pre-strike babies whose mothers ceased work before 7 months was 5.60 lbs. as compared with 5.31 lbs. for those whose mothers continued work after 7 months. The average birth weight of all the babies of Class A in the 6 months following the strike was 5.71 lbs.

*Maternal complications.*—This does not include general diseases such as malaria or diarrhoea, but complications of troubles specially connected with pregnancy or labour. The table shows that there were fewer of these in Class A during the year of the strike. The complications included few cases of toxæmia or of anaemia—which are the causes of greatest danger in childbirth in India. Only one death occurred in the two classes—due to eclampsia and in a woman of Class A. This represents a very low rate of maternal mortality as will be emphasised later. The number of women giving birth to the first child was almost the same in the 2 classes—87 in Class A and 94 in Class B.

The above facts seem to indicate that the effect of the work is injurious, not so much to the mother, but to the unborn child. They gather weight from the fact that the women of Class A are under better conditions financially and hygienically than those of Class B, and yet there are worse results for the child. The work is not heavy and the woman appear to be treated with all consideration by their employers. But they have to stand all the time they are at work and have to keep their minds fixed in one direction for hours. The woman who is doing her own housework may at times have heavier work, but she can sit down and rest when she is tired and can arrange the order of her work to suit her convenience. In the mills she is paid by the piece so any resting means loss of wage. It was one of the marked features of this enquiry that so many women stated they had ceased work before full-time because they felt so exhausted, and this is the more noticeable because it meant losing nearly half the family income at the very time when it was most needed.

It appears however, that the women who do housework as well as mill work suffer most. Ninety-three women were asked consecutively if they were obliged to do their own housework or not. Fifty-nine replied that they had to do so and 34 replied that they had not, or at least that they had help with it. Among those who did the housework the incidence of still and premature birth was 312 per 1,000 and among those who did not it was only 125 per 1,000.

Of course very much depends on the individual. S, aged 35, worked as a winder until a day or two of delivery. Her hours were 8 to 5.30 and she did the cooking for herself, her husband and son. She was well and cheerful, had a healthy baby of 6½ lbs. and made a good recovery.

M, aged 32, worked as a winder and also did sweeping work. Her hours were 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. and she did cooking, etc., for herself and her husband after hours. She felt very weak during her pregnancy and left off work at 6 months. The baby was stillborn and she felt too weak to return to her work.

It is probable that a strong healthy woman can carry on without injury. But the women of Class A and B have a very small reserve of strength, partly, no doubt, owing to their poor diet.

*How did the strike of 1928 affect the maternity conditions of the women of the mill-working class?*—This question has already been answered as far as Class A is concerned.

The strike began in the last week of April and ended in the first week of November. Wages were paid for most of April, therefore it was probably not till June that the full inconvenience was felt. Many of the people went to their villages and returned when the strike was over, but probably these too felt the pinch of want. Many remained in Bombay and lived as they could. Interrogated, some said their husbands got other work, but mostly in the nature of temporary jobs. Some sold their bits of furniture and cooking utensils and lived on the proceeds. Some got credit for foodstuffs from the shopkeepers which they had to repay after the strike was over. Some had relatives who helped. Some got a meal a day from charitable funds. One woman had a blind stepson, who went out and begged and brought home 12 annas to Re. 1 per day. She said "we managed on this, but with difficulty." That was the general trend of reply "we got through, but with difficulty. We were sometimes hungry." And it may be taken for granted that it was the mother of the family who suffered most. While there was anything, the husband and children got it, and in addition to the scanty feeding she had the strain of constant anxiety.

See Table I and note that the incidence of still and premature birth in Class B was much higher the year of the strike than in the former year. This was not due to any cause connected with season or epidemics, because in the Cama Hospital (non-industrial class) the incidence was practically the same both years, and in Class A it was much lower than in 1927-28.

The number of complications of pregnancy and labour in Class B were higher in the strike year than in the preceding year.

It thus appears that the strike affected the women of Classes A and B differently. All suffered equally from anxiety and scanty nutrition, which caused in Class B more trouble in pregnancy and labour, and less vitality in the infant. But in Class A the unfavourable conditions were more than nullified by the relief from excessive fatigue.

An enquiry carried out in England under the Medical Research Council (6) concludes that the infant birth weight is not affected by the nutrition of the mother during pregnancy; that the infant has the power of taking what it needs from the mother before birth and if her nutrition is low she suffers, not the child. These observations, however, were made in England on collections of individuals recently married, and whose scanty incomes presumably dated from that period. They no doubt had a reserve of strength. The millworkers had been living for many years in poverty and on a scanty and insufficient diet. The loss of pay was sudden and absolute. They had no reserve of strength to fall back on and the cutting down of the already scanty supply of nutrition meant that the foetus could no longer take what it needed for it was no longer there.

*Do the maternity conditions of the mill-working classes differ from those of other classes in Bombay?*

TABLE II.  
*Labour cases seen in Bombay Hospitals (1925-27).*

Community.	Osteomalacia.		Eclampsia.		Anaemia.		Still-birth.	Average infant birth weight.
	No.	Rate per 1,000	No.	Rate per 1,000	No.	Rate per 1,000	Rate per 1,000 live births.	Full-time.
Hindu—2,066 cases ..	6	2.9	8	3.8	83	40.1	108	6.1 lbs.
Mahomedan—842 cases ..	32	38	14	16.6	79	93.8	154	6.3 lbs.
Christian—801 cases ..	nil.	nil.	3	3.7	39	48.6	78	6.4 lbs.
Millworkers—571 cases (1925-1929)	1	1.7	1	1.7	6	10.5	115	5.65 lbs.

The women shown under the headings Hindu, Mahomedan and Christian vary in the social scale from the servant and coolie class to the shopkeeper, clerk and even professional class. Some are in very poor circumstances, as much so as the mill-worker. Others are comparatively well to do. But even those who are well off do not always live hygienically and all are dependent on the foodstuffs sold in the bazaar, some of which are doubtful as regards nutritive value and vitamin content.

Osteomalacia, eclampsia and anaemia are the causes which lead to the greater number of the deaths in child birth in India. The small incidence of these among the millworking class is striking and no doubt accounts for the low maternal deathrate, 1.7 per 1,000 births; the maternal deathrate in the Cama hospital during 1928 was 16 per 1,000 births. It must be remembered that these classes which we are comparing are all hospital cases, so the comparison is a *fair* one.

When we turn to the foetus it is a different story. The still-birth rate is higher in the industrial class than in any other except the Mahomedan. If we divide the industrial class into A and B we find the still-birth rate for Class A is 156 per 1,000 for the whole period of 3½ years, and for Class B 108 per 1,000. That is Class B approximates to the ordinary hospital rate in Hindus, while Class A approximates to the ordinary hospital rate among Mahomedans. These two classes, Mahomedans and millworkers so far as habits and customs go, stand at the very opposite poles of Indian womanhood. The Mahomedan woman usually lives in purdah. This is not observed so strictly in Bombay as in other parts of India, but it is strict enough to ensure that women of the childbearing age seldom leave the house and then are enveloped in burkas; such a woman lives, perhaps 1 in a single room with her husband, or perhaps there are 3 or 4 rooms, shared by her husband's parents and brothers and their families. The rooms are often small and airless and sometimes quite devoid of sun or may get the sun for a short period in the day only. The cooking and house work which in a joint family is shared by the women does not give much scope for exercise. The husband or some elderly woman does the outside catering. The diet includes more meat than that of meat eating Hindus and is cooked with ghee. Hence the diet contains more protein and fat than is the case with most Hindus and especially millworkers. In pregnancy, above all conditions, it is important that metabolism should be active and the excretory channels open. But the close confined life of Mahomedan women, the comparatively rich diet and the lack of exercise favours a sluggish metabolism, hence the tendency to toxæmia is greater in the Mahomedan community. The lack of sunlight favours the onset of osteomalacia, which, as well as anaemia, is more common than in the other communities.

Class A millworker, on the other hand, leads a very active life, has plenty of open air and sunlight and no excess of food. Still-birth is highest in these two communities, but for different reasons. In Mahomedans, owing to toxæmia of the mother, or severe anaemia, or osteomalacia causing difficulty in delivery. In the millworker Class A it is not due to these causes, but to fatigue, acting on a maternal organism exhausted by excessive work and poor diet. The infant birth weight is higher in Mahomedans.

An endeavour was made to contrast infant and child mortality in the industrial and non-industrial classes by asking each woman the number of her past confinements and the number of her surviving children. 500 consecutive women delivered in the Cama Hospital were so questioned and their replies were compared with those received from the 571 women of the industrial class delivered in the Nowrasjee Wadia's Hospital. 62 per cent. of the non-industrial children survived as compared with 43 per cent. of the industrial children.\*

*How can the conditions of Women Millworkers be remedied in order to produce better conditions for the Child?*—In considering this question we should try and dissociate our minds as far as possible from the conclusions already reached in Europe on this question. Conditions in Europe and India are very different. Women workers in India have special difficulties to contend with which should not be forgotten in endeavours made to ameliorate their circumstances.

1. There is greater poverty and a diet lacking in nutritive power. Hence the people have little reserve of strength. Many of the women workers begin to feel exhausted before pregnancy is far advanced, and give up work on this account, at the 5th, 6th or 7th month. If the maternity benefit is given on condition that the woman remains at work until the end of the 8th month, many will continue working when physically unable and the result will be worse than before.

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\* The facts given in the preceding pages must not necessarily be taken as giving an exact picture of the maternity conditions of women millworkers generally, for it is possible the more serious cases gravitate to hospital. But as all the three classes dealt with are equally hospital cases the comparison is fair and the conclusions, so far as they go, are correct. We believe that a larger investigation, including other places besides Bombay, is needed.

2. The principles of maternity and child welfare are not understood among the people. Fathers do not realise their responsibility to the unborn child, nor perhaps does the mother herself. Hence if two months salary were given to her, it would too often be used for the benefit of the family and especially of the husband. Even in England this is sometimes the case. How much more likely to be so in India, where the mother not only occupies a lower position in the household, but has not the knowledge which would enable her to spend a maternity benefit wisely.

The following are suggestions as to how employers could mitigate the conditions of expectant mothers :—

(1) By providing light work during the later months of pregnancy, which the woman could do without standing.

(2) By providing one free meal a day to expectant mothers during the last two months.

(3) By having a simple maternity home attached to the mill premises. Each mill should have a creche for receiving young children while their mothers are at work. Even now creches are attached to 13 of the Bombay mills. It would cost little to have one or two airy rooms attached to the creche and either keep a midwife to attend to the women or allow their own dai to come and attend them. As compared with confinement in the chawls they would have space, fresh air, good food and rest from home duties ; as compared with hospital, it would at least be adequate for normal labour and would probably be taken better advantage of than the hospitals, where comparatively few millworkers go for delivery.

(4) As regards maternity benefits, these would be probably best given in kind, as indicated above—free meals, accommodation for confinement, food during the period of confinement, and a money present when returning home, sufficient to allow the mother a month's rest after delivery.

But if a maternity benefit of 2 or 3 months' wages is to be given, let it not be dependent on the woman remaining at work until the end of the 8th month and returning one month after delivery. If she has worked in the mill a full year, why should the benefit not be given her at any time of her pregnancy when she wishes to leave off work and without securing any promise for the resumption of work ? It would thus be in the nature of a bonus for work done. Half would be given when she left off work and half when the child was born. If she is required to remain until the end of the 8th month, harm will ensue in many cases, while the condition that she must resume work a month after delivery will assuredly mean neglect of the baby unless she has a female relation at home to take charge of it or unless there is a mill creche.

The benefit, in whatever shape, should be strictly dependent on the mother having a full examination by a woman doctor, not only in order that her pregnancy may be certified but in order that any danger or abnormality may be seen and provided for.

A bill has recently been passed by the Bombay legislature requiring that maternity benefits should be paid to all women millworkers at confinement, the benefit to consist of 2 months' wages, that is leave on full pay for a month before and a month after confinement. While welcoming the action, one cannot help regretting the form in which the benefit is given for the reasons already declared. It is not impossible, even yet, to modify the proposals of the bill by allowing the women who have completed a year's service to avail themselves of the benefit at any time during pregnancy and without any compulsion to return.

During the debate in the council it was stated the benefit per head would be Rs. 21. There are about 30,000 women millworkers in Bombay, of whom it is estimated about 10 per cent. bear children annually (3). Thus the amount to be given by the mill industry towards the benefits (if all women eligible come forward, which is unlikely) would be about Rs. 60,000 annually. A proportion of this sum would be sufficient to finance a large enquiry on the lines given above and to obtain ample evidence as to the best method of giving maternity benefits in India. Surely such an enquiry would be a wise preliminary of any widespread scheme for maternity benefits.

In the course of our investigation we were impressed by the fact that improvement in the conditions of the male workers would in itself assist the maternity troubles of the woman. The lack of proper nourishment in pregnancy and the need for continuing work when physically unable is often due to the habits of the men, who spend their own wages on drink and gambling, so that the wife practically supports the household. The provision of cinemas or other amusements for Sundays and holidays, the starting of welfare organizations, propaganda to inculcate a sense of responsibility towards the wives and children would all be means to this end. Work of this kind is already being carried out by the Y.W.C.A. in Bombay, but our point

is that it should be done by the employer for the benefit of the worker. Grain shops in the mills would ensure the workers getting a good return for their money, and schools for the workers' children would be specially useful as inculcating on impressionable minds a sense of greater responsibility both in regard to work and social relations.

Dr. (Miss) M. I. BALFOUR, C.B.E., M.B., C.M.

#### IV.—Health.

31. *Maternity Benefits*.—During the past four years I have been engaged in research on the causes of maternal mortality in child-birth and have included observations on the maternity conditions of women millworkers.

The details of this enquiry are embodied in a paper entitled "The Maternity Conditions of Women Millworkers" written in July, last.

I recently visited the Sholapur spinning and weaving mills and found there was already a system of maternity benefits in force. The women, during the last month or two of pregnancy, were passed into the pre-maternity ward, where they were given light work and were not required to work longer each day than they felt able to. They were free to enter the maternity home for confinement, got free food for 10 days, and after discharge from the home, 3 weeks' half pay.

The statistics given in the report of the Maternity home show a much smaller still birth-rate than in Bombay and the children in the creches looked healthier than the children in similar institutions in Bombay. Of course there are reasons other than the system of maternity benefits, which might account for this.

This system of maternity benefits given during the past 8 years at the Sholapur mills automatically ceased when the new Maternity Benefits Act came into force in July last. Now, millowners are required to give a maternity benefit of 8 annas per day for 4 weeks before and 3 weeks after delivery, that is a sum of Rs. 24-8 annas.

It must be remembered that both men and women workers are illiterate and have no idea what is required in pregnancy to produce healthy children. The Act requires the benefit to be paid after delivery so it is not available for extra comforts in the critical last months of pregnancy. It may be paid to the husband, so the wife may never see it. I heard of one man who drew the benefit and was going to use it to pay off his marriage debt. In another case I asked a woman who had just received it what she would do with it and she promptly replied she would buy an ornament for the baby. It is very necessary that the Act should be amended to render it of real use to mothers and babies.

23. *General Health Conditions of Workers*.—(i) and (ii) No figures are available showing mortality, birthrate and infant mortality. It would not be impossible to get them in Bombay as births and deaths are registered by the municipality and the occupation of the dead person, or of the parent in case of a birth, is required.

I made an effort to contrast infant and child mortality in the industrial and non-industrial classes by ascertaining the number of past confinements and surviving children in 500 consecutive women (non-industrial) and 571 women (industrial). Of the first class 62 per cent. survived as compared with 43 per cent. of the latter class.

(iii) The conditions of employment in the cotton factories seemed good. The work, chiefly winding, was not heavy. It required the women to stand all day, and it is probably this which adversely affects them towards the end of pregnancy, their general physique being poor. It would probably not hurt women to work up to the end of pregnancy if they could have light work, sitting.

(iv) It is found that the workers spend about half their income on food. If the family income is Rs. 30 per mensem and there are four in the family, this means that only 2 annas per head per day is available. It is impossible to provide a well-balanced diet on this. Some live chiefly on rice with a little vegetable or gram, some have bread made from the cheaper grains with vegetable or *dal*. Meat is rarely taken, milk and *gāi* almost never, fruit rarely. The diet is hence very wanting in protein and fat and has an excess of carbohydrates. There is also a great lack of vitamins, especially A, C and D. If any arrangement could be made whereby pregnant women could be given a nutritious meal a day towards the end of pregnancy it would probably greatly improve their offspring.

24. *Medical Facilities.*—Most of the mills have dispensaries and mill doctors. A few also retain women doctors, who hold separate clinics for women workers. I believe the women do not go to these clinics for childbirth or for troubles in pregnancy. They would rather consult the ignorant *das*. To my mind it would be a better plan if these general dispensaries under women doctors in the mill premises were given up and if all the mills combined to support 2 or 3 dispensaries in convenient places for diseases of pregnancy and labour, and troubles following delivery, officered by women doctors, or even by one woman doctor, for each centre might be open twice a week. A health visitor should be attached to each centre who would visit the women, find out those in need of advice and bring them to the doctor. Talks on the care necessary during pregnancy and for young infants should be a feature of these centres. It might be arranged that the women should report themselves at these centres for securing the maternity benefits. This would make it possible to collect a great deal of valuable information regarding the working of the Act.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY MEMORANDUM.

The Maternity Benefits Act came into operation on 1st July, 1929.

Under this Act, women workers in the factories of Bombay and of certain other cities in the Presidency, are entitled to maternity leave and benefit for seven weeks, at the rate of 8 annas per day, three weeks before and four weeks after confinement. The whole cost of this is to be met by the employers.

There are about 29,000 women employed in factories in Bombay City and it is estimated about 10 per cent. of these bear children annually. If full advantage is taken by these of the benefit, a sum of about Rs. 70,000 will be expended annually by the industry. This will be well spent if it helps to secure stronger children and healthier mothers, but as the scheme is being carried out at present, no such results seem likely to ensue.

(1) A serious drawback is that there is no provision for medical examination, so no part of the benefit can be given until the woman shows a copy of the birth registration certificate. The millworkers have a very poor diet and the time when the benefit would be most useful would be during the last two months of pregnancy to enable the mother to have more nourishing food.

(2) The Act requires the mother to work up to the beginning of the ninth month of pregnancy. Experience shows that many of the women give up work long before this and give, as a reason, fatigue. The condition of the infant appears to be poorer when the mother works beyond the seventh month. The endeavour to remain on to secure the benefit may do harm, not good.

(3) The millworkers, men and women, are very ignorant and have no idea how to use the cash benefit for the advantage of mother and child. The ideal would be that the mother should have some extra diet during the last months of pregnancy, that she should be seen by a doctor and provision made for any likely trouble at the time of delivery, that she should have proper attendance by a trained nurse during the confinement, in hygienic surroundings, if possible; and that she should have some cash to get essential clothing, etc., if she elects to be confined at home, to provide herself with milk or other special food, to supply anything which may be necessary for the baby and to take a month's rest after confinement.

But as these details are not recognized by the people, it is likely the benefit will be spent in paying debts, in buying ornaments or even by husbands in gambling or drinking. If extra food is bought it will go to the husband and children rather than to the mother.

As the benefit is being provided by the employers it is worth their while to take some trouble in organizing the scheme so that real good will be secured. The first essential is to get information, and the existence of the Act makes it possible to get this, since the women now have to report their pregnancy. How many women give up work early, how many are in an unhealthy condition, how many go to their village homes for confinement? What are the conditions at the time of delivery and what is the result for the child? How do the conditions compare with those of women of the same class, not working in the mills? How is the benefit being utilized? When such information has been acquired it will be for consideration whether amendments could be made to the Act to ensure the better fulfilling of its purpose. It may be noted that information of this kind is not being gained from the muster roll at present kept under the Maternity Benefits Act.

The information could best be obtained by appointing a medical woman to whom the women claiming maternity leave would be sent for enquiry into this condition. She would attend daily at convenient centres in the mill area. She would be assisted by three health visitors who would visit in the mills and chawls and would collect

information regarding the confinements of women who leave off work too early to be entitled to the benefit, also regarding the confinements of women of the millworking class who do not work in the mills. They would so far as possible instruct the women and would also supply at cost price the most simple necessities for confinement.

The cost of this scheme would be Rs. 11,000 p. a. as shown below.

Cost of scheme :—

	p.m. Rs.	p.a. Rs.
(1) Salary of medical woman ..	400	4,800
(2) Salaries of three health visitors at Rs. 125 p. m.	375	4,500
(3) Salary of peon .. .. .	30	360
(4) Motor allowance for seven months	150	1,050
(5) Contingencies .. .. .	—	290
Total		Rs. 11,000

It is supposed that a room would be provided in different mills where the doctor could attend, so rent has not been included in the estimate.

## THE BOMBAY COUNCIL OF SOCIAL WORKERS.

### *Industrial Housing in Bombay City (Section I I I).*

#### INTRODUCTION.

The growth of Bombay from a small fishing village to the first city of India is a most romantic story, but the problems occasioned by this growth are quite devoid of romance. It was in the sixties of the last century that the need for additional building sites led to the formation of a company to undertake the reclamation of 350 acres of land from the sea. The original project was followed by other projects—some financially successful and some financial failures.

Like most other great cities, Bombay just grew, its development not following any pre-conceived plan. Buildings rose here and buildings rose there. People crowded in here and people crowded in there. Before the city knew what was happening it found itself confronted with unsanitary and overcrowded slums. For fifty years successive health officers protested the evil, but far too long without results.

#### I.—The Improvement Trust.

It was not until a severe outbreak of bubonic plague in 1896 that the city really aroused itself and endeavoured to cope with the situation. In 1898 the Bombay City Improvement Trust was organized to undertake the work of "making new streets, opening out crowded localities, reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city, and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the police." The policy of the Trust was one of (a) indirect attack on slum areas by the development of residential estates and the construction of main arterial roads with a view to attracting people from the congested areas, (b) the erection of sanitary chawls for the working classes, and (c) direct attack on a few of the worst slum areas in the city. (Durnett-Hurst, A. R., *Labour and Housing in Bombay*, page 31.)

Circumstances combined to prevent the Trust from carrying out a balanced programme, and the people dishoused by the demolition of their old dwellings were too often either unable or unwilling to find new locations in less crowded areas, moved into other crowded dwellings in the same locality, thus forming new slums. Rents began to rise, and there was considerable friction between the Improvement Trust and the Municipality. The Trust was severely attacked and the benefit of its work seriously questioned. Without entering into the controversy it is sufficient to say that by the year 1920 the Trust had demolished 24,426 tenements, provided 21,387 new tenements, and had opened up new and important avenues of communication. Neither the Trust nor the Municipality, however, succeeded in meeting the growing demands of the city, the population of Bombay having increased from 776,000 to 1,176,000 in the 20 years between 1901 and 1921.



## II.—The Development Directorate.

His Excellency, Sir George Lloyd, upon assuming office late in 1918, immediately began to interest himself in the housing situation. In 1920 a Development loan was authorised, and the Government, the Municipal Corporation, the Improvement Trust and the Port Trust began a concerted attack upon the problem. A development directorate was created to co-ordinate the activities of the various bodies, which included an attempt to provide 50,000 one-roomed tenements, the reclamation of a part of the Back Bay, and the development of the north of the island and Salsette. The work was taken in hand at once and has continued through the years.

## III.—Housing Facilities provided by the Development Directorate.

The most recent report of the Development Department (for the year ending 31st March, 1928) shows that the Industrial Housing Scheme now "comprises 207 chawls of 80 rooms each (with one exception of 64 rooms) in four different areas." The chawl areas are De Lisle Road with 32 chawls and 2,560 rooms; Naigaum with 42 chawls and 3,344 rooms; Worli with 121 chawls and 9,660 rooms; and Sowri with 12 chawls and 960 rooms—a total of 16,524 rooms. In March, 1928, 28 of the De Lisle Road chawls were occupied, 37 of the Naigaum chawls, 46 of the Worli chawls, and 12 of the Sowri chawls. The scale of rents in effect at the same time was Rs. 9-8 annas for ground floor, first floor and second floor rooms, and Rs. 9 for top floor rooms at De Lisle Road; Rs. 7 for all rooms at Naigaum and Sowri; and Rs. 5 for all rooms at Worli. The number of rooms actually occupied in all areas in March, 1928, was 7,678—an increase of 1,713 during the year.

## IV.—Housing Facilities provided by the Improvement Trust.

The Improvement Trust maintains 105 chawls, consisting of 9,424 rooms. The largest chawl areas of the Improvement Trust are Agripada with 22 blocks and 1,665 rooms; Foras Road with 19 blocks and 1,504 rooms; and Mazagaon with 16 blocks and 1,280 rooms. The remaining chawls range from seven blocks to one block in scattered sections of the city. The rents in the Improvement Trust Chawls range from Rs. 4-15 annas per room to Rs. 14. All of the chawls of the Board are in use, and in April, 1929, 8,559 of the 9,424 rooms were reported occupied.

*Note.*—In addition to the facilities provided by the Improvement Trust and the Development Directorate, certain large employers of labour, such as Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., Mathavji Dharamsi Mills, The Kohinoor Mills, and others, have erected chawls, which have been of real aid in meeting the problem of industrial housing.

## V.—Density of Population in Bombay.

The test of the success of a housing scheme is not only the provision of new quarters, but also the way in which it succeeds in reducing the density of population in the most congested areas. In a lecture delivered before the Bombay Co-operative Housing Association in 1914, the Hon. Mr. J. P. Orr, the Chairman of the Bombay City Improvement Trust, presented certain illuminating facts regarding density of population. He called attention to the fact that the average density of Bombay was about 57 to the acre. This figure in itself would be no occasion for alarm, but as the city is examined by districts it is found that the population in certain areas is most appalling. The following table shows the Bombay census statistics from 1864 to 1911:—

Ward.	Population. Density per acre.	1864.	1872.	1881.	1891.	1901.	1911.
A		73	62	53	49	49	49
B		773	526	279	251	214	215
C		449	467	454	433	388	388
D		21	47	64	75	48	70
E		39	89	62	77	92	109
F		7	6	7	9	13	18
G		0	9	13	18	24	39

The astounding density of B ward in 1864 is explained by the temporary influx of workers to share in the prosperity resulting from the certain trade during the American civil war. It will be seen that B ward and C ward have always been the most densely populated, and that during the period under review the density has shown a general decrease in contrast with the increase in density shown by the less

congested northern wards. This tendency is quite as it should be. It must be added, however, that before 1881 the ward limits were different from the present limits, and hence any comparison is not strictly accurate.

The figure from 1921 census and the estimate for the year 1927 contained in the report of the municipal commissioner add the following information :—

Ward.	Population. Density per acre.	1921.	1927.
A ..		51	53
B ..		203	208
C ..		431	450
D ..		89	102
E ..		110	126
F ..		28	34
G ..		44	52

These figures show an increasing density in both the more congested and less congested areas, with less migration towards the northern wards than we might have hoped for.

The most congested areas in the city are the following :—

Area.	Density of population per acre.	1921.	1927.
Khumbharwada ..		736·86	799·57
Kamatipura ..		714·05	786·21
Second Nagpada ..		699·03	719·48
Khara Talao ..		581·55	592·87
Chukla ..		489·07	484·97
Bhuloswar ..		471·30	470·09
Umarkhadi ..		469·18	477·68
Market ..		411·69	445·20

#### VI.—Why do People continue to live in the Congested Areas ?

The question that naturally arises is, why do so many people continue to live in the extremely congested areas, with the attendant sickness, discomfort, etc., instead of the empty chawls in the better air of sections like Worli or Naigaum ? Take, for example, Second Nagpada, with a population density of 719·48 to the acre, and the highest death rate, and the highest child death rate in the city of Bombay. Why does the population of a section like this continue to increase ? Why do the people continue to occupy dark, crowded, private tenements instead of the lighter and more airy development department chawls ? Several factors enter into the situation. There are various reasons why the people prefer to remain where they are, and there are various reasons why they are unwilling to move to the less crowded areas.

(1) There is the pull of custom. An occupation group, such as a group of mechis, may have lived in an area for years, and hence they are reluctant to leave the area. One family does not care to leave the group and unless facilities can be offered to move the entire group there is little hope of removal. In the meantime the situation gets worse because of the arrival of friends and relatives from up country who move into the already overcrowded quarters in order to be near to their own kinsmen.

(2) There is the religious reason. A devout Muslim, for example, hesitates to leave a large Mohomedan population area to take up residence in a mixed or perhaps predominantly Hindu section. This factor enters into practically all of the excessively crowded sections of Bombay.

(3) The workman desires to live near to his work. He is employed somewhere in the vicinity of his home in the crowded section, and does not care to seek work in some distant area of the city.

(4) Closely related to this is the uncertainty of securing satisfactory work in the less congested area of the city. A job secure is worth two jobs in prospect.

(5) In every crowded locality there are hosts of small shopkeepers and small factories. The owners of these hesitate to give up a more or less assured income in exchange for the unknown.

(6) The natural laziness of man keeps him from doing any more than he absolutely has to do. Moving is one thing more.

(7) There is the ignorance and indifference of the people which causes them to be content with filth, disease and overcrowding, instead of seeking out something better.

### VII.—Why do the people not move into less crowded Quarters, such as the Chawls available at Worli and Naigaum ?

We have listed a few of the reasons why people continue to reside in the crowded sections. Now let us note the objections to the less crowded quarters now available.

(1) **Lack of transportation.** To be of use to the working people a housing scheme must either be near to the people's work or near to some convenient means of transportation. The Worli chawls are twenty minutes remote from the nearest cheap transportation.

(2) **Lack of privacy.** Although the private chawls are by no means private, the people regard them as much more private than the great chawl buildings housing hundreds of people whom they do not know. In order to attain a degree of privacy in the chawls, doors and windows are closed thus cutting off the necessary ventilation.

(3) **Lack of sanitation.** In practically all of the improved chawls the privies and baths are not only inadequate in number, but in an insanitary condition. The demand upon the limited services leads to many quarrels, creates difficulties about getting to work on time, and often leads to urination and defecation at the sides of the buildings, thus endangering the public health.

(4) **Lack of adequate market and shop facilities.** The market and shop facilities of Worli and Naigaum areas provide the bare necessities, but they cannot yet compare in choice and in variety with the shops in the older sections of the city.

(5) **Lack of recreation facilities.** There are open spaces between the chawls where games can be played, and the Y.M.C.A. is heading up good work in this direction. There is still need for cinema shows, entertainments, etc., to compensate for the isolation of a section like Worli.

(6) **Lack of medical and maternity facilities.** Worli is again most deficient in this respect. There is a station of the Bombay Presidency Infant Welfare Society as well as Municipal dispensary, but those are inadequate to cope with the situation. Additional maternity facilities are particularly needed in Worli.

(7) **Lack of police protection.** This again is a criticism primarily of Worli. The great unoccupied chawls are most forbidding at night-time. Recently there have been additional police added, but the removal of the badmashis and hooligans of Bombay to the temporary prison in the Worli Chawls has not added to the peace of mind of the people, nor is it a drawing card for future residents.

(8) **Ignorance of the health benefits of the more airy chawls as compared with the closely crowded chawls in the congested area.**

(9) **The aversion on the part of many people to moving into large concrete buildings on the ground that they are cold, damp and unhealthful.**

(10) **Lack of drive, and lack of encouragement to make a change.**

### VIII.—How can Increased Tenancies be encouraged ?

To encourage increased tenancies, the Development Department as an experimental measure has converted 1 chawl at Naigaum and 1 chawl at De Lisle Road into two and three roomed tenements. The chawl at Naigaum is fully let as two-roomed tenements and odd single rooms, but the chawl at De Lisle Road is mostly vacant. Four chawls at Warli have been fitted with electric lights in the passages, and 2 police chowkies have been established, which gives the residents an additional sense of security. Steps have also been taken to provide better medical facilities, but the transportation problem still remains as an effective barrier to any large-scale influx of workers.

Putting aside for the moment the various indictments that can be made against the improved chawls, the fact still remains that they provide better housing than the houses now occupied by the workers in the congested areas. Several steps might be taken to encourage tenancies :—

(1) A campaign of education (largely pictorial) showing the benefits of the new chawls over the insanitary ones now occupied by many workers.

(2) Pressure should be brought to bear upon the proper authorities to supply Worli with cheap and rapid transportation.

(3) More experiments should be made with electric lighting in the chawl passages.

(4) More adequate water facilities should be provided.

(5) Instruction in house-keeping might be given with profit. The difference between the well-kept and filthy rooms in the same building is so great as to give the impression that one is in an entirely different building. A group of attracting rooms is a far better advertisement than a display of the same filth of the old surroundings.

(6) The strict enforcement of the rule against sub-letting (which is now being violated) would minimize the present overcrowding in the rooms, and would tend to raise the general standard of health.

(7) More wholesome recreational opportunities should be provided for the leisure time of the workers and their families, and such other facilities as make for a well balanced life. The housing problem does not stop with providing houses, the houses must be placed in an attractive and well balanced environment.

### IX.—What is to be done with the Crowded Areas ?

We must frankly recognise that many people will not leave their old houses. To meet this situation we shall probably have to resort to demolition and to continue slum patching to make those places as liveable as possible. We shall also have to carry on continuous public health education to fight the sickness and death rate. The experience of Miss Octavia Hill, in constructive rent collecting, furnish a good example of what might be done in the city of Bombay.

### X.—What of the future.

Looking into the future we would hope that a new type of workman's dwelling might evolve. The model village of the Bombay Port Trust at Antop Hill, and the one-story houses of the Bombay municipality at Love Grove are a vast improvement over the great chawls, and with past experience to guide we must look forward not only to the development of workman's colonies in Bombay proper, but also to the decentralization of industry into the suburbs. Adequate electrical power seems to be available for such expansion. Certain factories have opened along the C.I.P.R.R., and there is still hope that model villages can be developed in the less crowded suburban areas.

The industrial region, which will almost certainly grow up around Bombay, must not simply be allowed to grow. It must be planned. Every resource of the area must be carefully surveyed and developed. Land, people, and industry must be thought of as a whole. Buildings and grounds must be so arranged as to give plenty of light and air. Industry must be within economical transportation distance of the homes. Ample space must be provided for schools, play-grounds, religious buildings, shops, theatres, etc. The region must be considered as a unit, and be developed for the good of all the people.

The congested area has had its day. Our best thoughts must now be centred on creating fulness of life in new and undeveloped areas. Regional planning is the only sound programme for the future.

### MATERNITY BENEFITS.

*Infant Mortality.*—The causes can be divided into three main heads.

(1) Anti-natal causes may be sub-divided into (a) maternal and (b) foetal.

The physique of the child depends on that of the parents. But the influence of the condition of the mother is so overwhelmingly greater than that of the father, though not a negligible quantity recedes into the background. A healthy well-formed mother gives birth generally to a healthy child. She can nurse it and so give it a good chance of thriving. But on the other hand the mother may be debilitated deformed or be suffering from disease more or less serious, her child cannot be healthy and it is just in this condition that it most wants the mother's milk, and cannot get it, hence its premature death. Again such a condition of the mother brings on premature delivery or it has to be induced to save the mother's life, naturally such a child stands no chances of survival. Then there is ignorance and superstition and more stringent poverty. Besides their labours are conducted in the most insanitary environments by the most ignorant and uncleaned midwives. Is it any wonder if they come out of their confinements full of illness and with almost expiring children ?

Now let us examine some other causes of this terrific abnormal and very sad infant mortality prevailing in India.

1. Natal causes, *i.e.*, during delivery. They too are divisible into (a) maternal and (b) foetal.

(a) The maternal causes are the same as mentioned above with debility, deformity diseases, with infection and bad midwifery super-added.

(b) Foetal causes are diseases of the Foetus. Such as Hydrocephalus, etc., unnatural positions and presentations. In almost all the towns, and even in some big villages, a small percentage of labours now-a-days are conducted in maternity hospitals which did not exist some years ago. The number of still births and abortions are high on account of the lack of ante-natal clinics where women may be examined during pregnancy and from where arrangements with hospitals or anti-venereal clinics, for her treatment and yet the number of still births are atrociously high because on close examination we find that in many cases the child is already

dead or is dying and the set of putrification finishes it. Still-birth, abortions and miscarriages are said to be chiefly due to venereal diseases. To avoid all this human waste we submit that with proper ante-natal care and clever midwifery, many a mother's and child's life could be saved.

Post-natal causes are bad handling, bad feeding, indifferent treatment of the child ailments, etc., all of which could be put down to poverty and ignorance, and the lack of pure milk supply.

*Suggested Remedies.*—(a) Prevention is better than cure; (b) Intensive propaganda to bring home to the labouring classes their present parlous state and to awake them to their sense of duty to the race and save it from extinction; (c) Series of lectures and exhibitions to teach the labouring classes personal and sex hygiene and the way to take care of and bring up children; (d) Maternity hospitals, up to date and well-manned and well-equipped, founded in the midst of labouring population within easy reach where labours could be conducted "secundum artem" and correct registers kept. They should work hand in hand with the ante-natal and post-natal clinics; (e) establishment of centres for the supply of pure sterile milk to be given on production of tickets issued by different hospitals and clinics; (f) Committees of sympathetic ladies to pay house to house visits in their respective wards assigned to them and bring to light cases which require personal attendance of doctors at the patient's home or removal to ante-natal or post-natal clinics or hospitals; (g) registration bureau for the inspection of all births and death certificates and compiling initial statistics; (h) creches attached to all mills and big factories; (i) periodical school medical examination of students; (j) opening of classes in girls' schools to teach personal and sex hygiene, domestic economy, care and management of babies, etc.; (k) Maternity Benefit Act which is applicable only to some parts of the Bombay Presidency should be made applicable to the whole of British India; (l) social insurance as treated hereafter; (m) increase in the number of inspectresses of factories; (n) absolute prohibition by means of legislature, if necessary, of employment of female labour in mines.

These recommendations may savour of socialism but the new council is of the opinion that in the introduction of such a socialism, if it be a socialism, into a decaying nation like ours, lies its salvation.

*Social Insurance.*—The sub-committee is of the opinion that a certain amount of life insurance is necessary for the earning members of the family, be they rich or poor. The advantage thereof to the ignorant and backward working-classes is immense because in case of death or old age the family naturally needs money which, if not available from any other source, is perforce required to be borrowed at a very very high rate, almost usurious rate of interest, for funeral rites and maintenance of the family rendered destitute by the death or incapacity to work of the only wage-earner in the family. At least in such a predicament the education of the young is seriously disturbed and the social and economic level of the family is definitely lowered.

An experiment was made some years ago to insure industrial workers, but it failed because of certain initial mistakes. However, if we avoid the mistakes committed in the previous experiment we are bound to succeed. We need not here enumerate all these mistakes but cite a few samples thereof. The greatest mistake that was committed was that the experiment was extended to the lowest grade of wage-earners who could barely eke out their family maintenance from their very limited earnings, too limited to enable them to save even a pie of such earnings. We should, however, leave alone such lowest grade of workers and begin with the middle and higher grades of working-classes and take full advantage of other facilities mentioned in this scheme to improve the condition of the wage-earner. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company of New York, took on itself twenty years ago the task of carrying out welfare work among the wage-earners who could be persuaded to become its policy holders. An extract from the pamphlet issued by the Company on "Educating for Longer Life" sets out some of the benefits of health propaganda among the policy holders. At least some life insurance companies in the different districts and towns of India should be persuaded to follow in the footsteps of the above American insurance company and do what they can in the case of our Indian wage-earners, adapting themselves to the conditions prevailing in India, which are, of course, different from those prevalent in New York or America.

This sub-committee is alive to the fact that the earning of money of these bread-winners is below what we call a living wage, and practical difficulties are bound to arise in the initial stages for getting the premium paid regularly, even on a monthly basis. But it can, on the other hand, safely be argued that if after all money has to be found by those families for being spent profusely after marriage, sickness, death and other social functions why not by means of propaganda education and such other

means, these very families should not be made to realize that it is better for them to build it up little by little by effecting a compulsory but small saving every month, and that if the policy holder dies early his relatives get the face value of the policy, and if he lives till the policy matures the saving is returned to him with at least 2 to 3 per cent. (and in some cases more than that) compound interest. In case he needs a small loan before his policy matures for realization he can get it from the insurance company at a very moderate rate of interest, say, 5 to 6 per cent., which is far far better than getting it at 100 per cent. from Pathan or Marwari moneylenders, who actually suck out his life blood from pay-day to pay-day and then even do not leave him in peace but keep him in constant danger of life and anxiety of frequent molestation.

Having advanced so far, let us now consider whether it is possible for these bread-winners to effect a monthly saving without in the least pinching their bellies or interfering with the education, etc., of their children. This question can be answered by finding out whether these bread-winner are wasting any money. If it found that out of ignorance and sloth money is being unnecessarily but definitely wasted, then it stands to reason that some of this waste can be stopped and saving effected. The reports on inquiries held into the wages and expenditure of working-class families published by the Labour Office of the Bombay Government show that on an average 3 to 4 per cent. of their monthly income is absorbed in the redemption of debt and from 6 to 10 per cent. is wasted in drinking and other luxuries which breed dissipation and disease. It will thus be seen that at least 5 per cent. of this 10 per cent. avoidable waste may be redeemed and this means Rs. 2-8 annas a month for a worker earning Rs. 50 a month. This position is more encouraging in the case of those who earn more. It is, therefore, possible for such a worker to insure his life for Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000. In this connection we may mention some of the facilities which an average worker gets in Bombay and which if availed of fully are sure to tend to increased savings in the case of such workers. By these facilities we mean (1) cheap grain and clothing shops, (2) free medicines at municipal and other charitable dispensaries, (3) free hospital accommodation for maternity and sick nursing, (4) cow's milk to the babies at the rate of one anna a seer through the Infant Welfare Society of Bombay, (5) day nurseries or creches for their children, (6) free treatment of venereal diseases, etc. As we have stated above, if these facilities are taken full advantage of it means in money value as much increase in wages. The trouble, however, is that through ignorance, prejudice, or want of sympathetic treatment the wage-earner is not taking full advantage of these facilities that are meant for him, and here welfare organizations such as the Council of Social Workers, the Social Service League and such other like organizations can do a lot to educate the workers to avail themselves fully of those facilities provided for them by philanthropic citizens of diverse communities.

But such welfare organizations have not, unfortunately, at present adequate funds to carry on this sort of propaganda and educative work among the workers, and attention of some of our charitably minded citizens should be directed to this sort of charities which are most deserving of their support.

At present these workers prefer to live in cheap but very insanitary chawls. It is well known that people living under such conditions become not only physical but mental and moral wrecks, and this leads to drinking and dissipation. But his housing problem having been assigned to another sub-committee, which has made its very valuable report already adopted by our managing committee, we need not traverse over the same ground in this report.

If the insurance work amongst the wage-earners by means of small policies is started on the basis above indicated, it is bound to benefit both the insurance company undertaking the work, as in the case of the above-mentioned American company, on the one hand, and on the other hand the policy holders, who being ignorant and backward, should be taught by such agencies as the Council of Social Workers and Social Service League, to contribute to their own benefit by their own money and efforts, by means of life insurance policies taken out by each according to his own means and circumstances.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MEMORANDUM.

### *Maternity Benefits.*

In our statement emphasis has been laid on the need for (a) opening more small but well-equipped, well-staffed, and up-to-date maternity homes and (b) ante-natal and post-natal clinics, but in the short time at our disposal for sending in the papers some of the important facts have escaped our attention :—

1. If the Maternity Benefits Act is to benefit both the mothers and the employers, it should be so amended as (1) not to make it obligatory upon women to work up to the beginning of the 9th month of pregnancy in order to secure the maternity benefits

but let them give it up earlier if th

part of the payment before and a pair do not feel fit, (2) to enable the wom. to make it compulsory on women to after the delivery and not a lump sum, a.

The first and third would ensure be secure proper conditions during child-birth. instalment enable the women to buy the eter output and the second by a fortnightly are confined by country midwives " Dais " axtra food required by them. Most women they are invalids or semi-invalids for life-time:ed as the result of their unskilled methods

When the employers bear the cost of mate: while to spend a little more and organize a schemity benefits it would be worth their supervision. This would secure good health to the of medical inspection and proper output would increase. e women and as the result their

2. The enforcement at as early a date as possible of . Act at present under consideration. The All India Socithe already overdue Midwives a resolution urging the necessity of such a measure in 191 Service Conference passed women have been constantly doing the same. 24 and since then medical

The supervisor should be an experienced Indian woman language, customs, habits and prejudices of the people amc .ctor familiar with the be carried on, and not the Health Officer as recommended in .om the work is to there is a woman Assistant Health Officer with the necessa . Draft Bill. Unless work cannot be done satisfactorily. It is to be hoped that wi . under her, the will not be on paper only. .es in force it

3. (a) Co-ordination of all maternity and infant welfare work .t the . being done at present in the city in order to prevent overlapping, secure economy . and uni- formity of work, increase the efficiency.

This is most necessary and should be first undertaken.

At present there are 10 Municipal and 20 Infant Welfare Society's midwi .es doing midwifery work among women at their homes.

(b) Infant welfare work should be organized on the same basis as in England, viz., secure trained workers and most important of all proper supervision of the work done by them.

At present in our city there is no recognized institution for training health visitors. Until it is in a position to do so those who carry on infant welfare work must engage women trained in the Delhi Health Visitors Training School.

Majority of the nurses have no experience of training in the subject as it is not included in their training and naturally the work done by them cannot be very satisfactory.

Miss I. WINGATE, INDUSTRIAL SECRETARY, YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, BOMBAY.

#### Report on Economic Status of Women Workers in Sholapur Mills.

During the month of August, 1928, an intensive inquiry was conducted into the economic condition of women workers in the mills of Sholapur, Bombay Presidency.

This is an important cotton manufacturing centre. Sholapur is a city of 119,500 inhabitants according to the last census. It is an old centre of the hand-loom industry and this is still the major occupation of the town outside the cotton mills. According to the recently issued report on Family Budgets of the Bombay Labour Office, out of 62,000 persons engaged in industry, 50,000 were employed in the textile industry.

There are five cotton mills employing 16,975 persons of whom 4,335 were women. The number of cases investigated in the present inquiry was 482 or just over 10 per cent., belonging to all the various castes employed.

This inquiry was conducted with the object of discovering the salient facts concerning the economic status of women workers in the textile industry. Sholapur was chosen, primarily because a suggestion had been made that a somewhat similar inquiry be held there on behalf of the Bombay Representative Christian Council. It was in the hope that the N.C.C. inquiry might serve both purposes that this place was selected.

*Method of inquiry.*—A questionnaire was drawn up covering the points required and the answers were obtained personally from the women in their own homes and in one case at a mill-creche; partly by myself and partly by a schoolmaster whose full-time services were obtained. The managers of the mills were asked to supply the following information:—The number of women employed; their caste; minimum, average and maximum wages for a given month, July, 1928.

Two mills supplied this information in full. One supplied all but the wages particulars and for these referred to the *Labour Gazette* for May, 1925, which gives figures for August, 1923, five years previously, stating the wages had not changed since then.

An attempt was made to collect family budgets as there had been a Government inquiry into this in 1925, the report of which had just been published in time for reference to be made to it in this report. About a dozen typical budgets were collected and the results obtained will be found.

Every effort was made to insure accuracy and to verify statements. On the whole it may be said with confidence that the information given was correct, but it is probable that implicit faith cannot be placed in every return made. Where there seems to be a doubt as to accuracy reference is made to the fact. Completely true answers to questions are not easy to obtain from ignorant people. Yet it is only fair to record that when the purpose of the inquiry was explained, information was freely supplied by both workers and most millowners.

*Classification.*—The 482 cases studied were divided as to caste, as follows :—

	Per cent.	Per cent.
Hindus .. .. .	178 .. 37	} 330 .. 69
Outcasts .. .. .	152 .. 32	
Musslemans .. .. .	54 .. 11	
Criminal Tribes .. .. .	52 .. 11	
Christians .. .. .	24 .. 5	
Caste unknown .. .. .	22 ..	

Percentages are given to the nearest unit. While these figures do not correspond exactly with the total numbers of these castes employed in the mills, as to proportion they are a fair indication as may be seen from the following two typical mills which made the following returns as follows :—

	Mill 1.		Mill 2.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.	
Hindus* .. .. .	1,846 .. 82	566 .. 80		
Musslemans .. .. .	252 .. 11	51 .. 7		
Criminal Tribes .. .. .	151 .. 7	92 .. 13		

The total number of Christians working in the mills are included in this report. One curious discrepancy discovered was that the mills, in the returns supplied by them gave the number of Christian women in these mills as stated.

Of the 482 women covered by the inquiry—396 were married women with husbands, 81 widows, 2 unmarried, 3 deserted wives.

The husbands of 333 women also worked in the mill, 63 others did other work while their wives worked in the mill. The total numbers in the families concerned were :—Adults, 1,235 ; workers, 1,065 ; children under 12, 864.

The average family contained five persons, 3 adults, 2 children under 12 years of age. Of this number 2.2 were workers.

The numbers of children in each family was as follows :—

Number of children in family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Nil.
Number of families	106	153	111	47	8	6	1	50

*Housework.*—Besides working 10 hours a day in the mill, 446 women, that is 92 per cent., did all their own housework.

*Welfare Work.*—Sholapur mills are conspicuous for the effort made to improve conditions by the establishment of welfare work.

Creches are provided by all the mills and vary very much in quality. A badly run creche with inadequate attention to health is a worse danger than home conditions. It was proved by Dr. Barnado's Homes in England that infection spreads extremely rapidly when a large number of infants are brought together, and this will be even more marked if those in charge are careless about proper precautions.

The creches in Sholapur are well patronised which makes the responsibility for proper management all the greater. A kindergarten school for those of toddler age fills a very real need as so often children up to 6 or 7 or even more years are not taken in a creche spending their day in idleness as the creche is only equipped for infants.

Inquiries regarding the care of children of those mothers who worked yielded the following results :—

Per cent.	
50	Had no children.
14	No children under 14 years of age.
1	64 Sent the older ones to school, took babies to creche.
1	6 Took youngest to creche, left older ones at home with a relative.
4	15 Had all the children in school.
9	36 Took babies to creche, left older ones at home uncared for.
11	46 Left all children at home in care of relative.
12	50 Had only young children, took them to creche.
61	256 Left all children at home uncared for.
	Regarding three, no returns were made.

\* Including outcasts.



In all cases where relatives are referred to they include any adult over 14 years of age, not going to work. Where, as often, it simply means that the oldest child is over 14 years, the attention given to young children cannot be considered adequate, but in view of the fact that girls marry at that age or soon after, 14 was taken as the minimum age for an adult in this connection. All those who sent any of their children to school were either members of the Criminal Tribes, for whom it is compulsory, or Christians. The general mill population had not yet awakened to the need for education. They consider themselves able to do their daily work without it and expect their children to do the same. Their chief anxiety is that the boys should begin to earn as soon as possible. It will be seen that the great majority of the working mothers make no provision for their children during their working hours and that there is great need for some provision, either by the mills or, more probably by some voluntary organization, for these children; that they may not continue to run wild as is the case so largely at present. In a village most of the children are given jobs such as herding cattle, etc., which keeps them out in the fields. In a city they run the streets with all the depraving results that this leads to in any country.

Some attempt was made to find out if the women worked willingly or if they were only driven to it by economic necessity. Of the total 482 questioned, 388 only worked from necessity and would remain at home if not driven to the mills by economic pressure. 92 worked from choice as well as necessity. As this number included mothers of large families as well as those who had no home ties, it was possibly because they had always lived a life of ceaseless toil and had never been accustomed to give their children proper care, also because of their extremely low standard of life in some cases, that these women could not visualize what real domestic life might be.

**Housing.**—The Sholapur millworkers live in several different types of housing vary considerably in quality. The Criminal Tribes are in a special settlement under the care of the American Marathi Mission. These people are all exceedingly primitive and nearly all build the houses themselves in the style they prefer, and pay nominal rent for the land. All attempts on the part of the mission to build better houses have so far met with almost complete failure as the people refuse to occupy them. These huts may be of mud and thatch or merely shelters of grass and leaves, not more than three or four feet high and primitive in the extreme. It would be interesting to study the mentality of these people, living in such a way and working all day with highly complicated machinery on a huge scale. Other workers live in mud huts also built by themselves. Some of these are on waste land and rent free; others pay a small ground rent. Very few live in "pucca" houses, except those who live in the mill-lines. All the mills house a proportion of their people. The majority of the mill-housing is a considerable improvement on the private types. One mill has a large settlement comprising houses of different kinds, and here the standard has steadily advanced with each new type constructed. For these mill-chawls it seems the practice to charge a rent somewhat lower than the economic rent.

Of the families studied the rents paid worked out as follows:—

Rent per month .. ..	12 annas	Rs. 1 to	Rs. 2 to	Rs. 4	Rs. 5	Nil.
	or less	Rs. 1-8	Rs. 3	and over	and over	
Number of families .. ..	149	203	89	9	3	35
	Unrecorded 3.					

The total average rent is Rs. 1-3 annas a month. According to the Government Enquiry, rent for millworkers, other than Criminal Tribes was Rs. 2-8 annas per month and for Criminal Tribes 6 annas a month. As nearly all the Criminal Tribes pay only a nominal ground rent, their general average is very low but many people were met with among the ordinary mill population who were also paying nothing or merely a small ground rent. It will be seen from this that village conditions still obtain to a certain extent. The reason for this is that the millworkers do not live in the city itself but on the outskirts and even in the surrounding villages, some coming as much as two and three miles to work each day.

**Wages.**—The standard of wages in Sholapur is considerably lower than in either Bombay or Ahmedabad. Spinners get an average of Rs. 27-8 annas in Bombay, Rs. 26-8 annas in Ahmedabad and Rs. 18 in Sholapur. All the mills in the latter places give a grain allowance which seems greatly appreciated. This district suffers from frequent scarcity and general shortage of rainfall, so that the prices of the staple foods vary considerably from year to year. All workers who have not missed more than four working days out of the month are entitled to this allowance, which is 18 seers of jowari grain and 2 seers of dhal to each adult worker, and half rations to child workers. A fixed amount Rs. 2 is deducted from the wages irrespective of the market price which was Rs. 3 in August, 1928, but would be much more in a bad year.

Enquiry revealed that this grain allowance was highly valued, and was sometimes the main inducement to take up factory work. The women, when questioned seemed to receive this allowance regularly and indeed, implied that they could not

live without it on account of the smallness of their wages. This conflicted somewhat with the statements of two mill managers that the labour was very irregular in its attendance. According to the mill registers of two mills, the number of women attending the full working month was only 55 per cent. and 53 per cent. respectively. The truth seems to be that while over 40 per cent. fail to put in a full month's attendance, very few are absent more than four days in the month, in order to get their grain allowance.

A few mukkadams or forewomen earn from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 a month, and up to Rs. 20. The average wage, including all classes, as shown by the women's own statement was Rs. 8-6 annas a month; according to the returns furnished by the mills it was Rs. 8-8 annas, including grain allowance in both cases, so the agreement is very close and evidently the women's statements are to be relied upon. The average minimum wage for all departments employing women in the mills referred to, was Rs. 4-14 annas per month and Rs. 6 a month respectively. According to the statements of the women of their average earnings, they are as follows:—

Wages earned,	Rs. 7 and under.	Rs. 8 to Rs. 9.	Rs. 10 to Rs. 11.	Rs. 12 to Rs. 15.	Over Rs. 15.
No. of women.	194	164	86	31	6

One woman had newly joined and had not received wages. It is worthy of notice that she did not seem to have any idea of how much she would be entitled to receive.

From the above figures it will be seen that 92 per cent. earn less than Rs. 12 a month, 74 per cent. earn less than Rs. 10 and 40 per cent. less than Rs. 8 a month, that is Rs. 6 in cash wages plus grain allowance. This result may be compared with the report of the Government Family Budget Enquiry which gives 95 per cent. as earnings less than Rs. 12. According to the report on wages and hours in the cotton mill industry August, 1923, published in the *Labour Gazette* of May, 1925, to which we were referred for particulars by one mill, the average of wages actually earned was Rs. 8-9 annas per month. These figures, it is stated, do not include the grain allowance, therefore another Rs. 2 a month must be added to the above figures making Rs. 10-9 annas and Rs. 12-11 annas respectively. These figures are considerably higher than those given for July, 1928. Whatever the cause, it is evident that the wages to-day are considerably lower than those given for 1923.

Sufficient information is not yet available to enable one to make a true estimate of the comparative costs of living in these three cities, Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur. The retail food prices published in the *Labour Gazette* cannot be taken as an accurate basis for comparison. Taking rents as an indication, the average rents for working-class families are given in the Government Enquiries in Ahmedabad and Sholapur as Rs. 4-8 annas and Rs. 2-8 annas respectively. In the Sholapur enquiry, the Bombay average rent is quoted as Rs. 5, but reference to the *Labour Gazette* for October, 1924, from which this figure is taken, shows that it refers to old buildings only. Including new buildings the figure would be about Rs. 8-12 annas. From this it would appear that though the millworker in Bombay and Ahmedabad receives a larger cash wage, he is not as actually better off than those in Sholapur. Housing in Sholapur also, though in some cases very primitive, allows more square feet of space per individual if we exclude the Criminal Tribes. There is also a greater proportion of families owning two rooms or a closed-in verandah which is used as a room. The floor space per person is as follows:—Bombay, 24.7 sq. ft., Ahmedabad, 47.3 sq. ft., Sholapur, 36 sq. ft.

While it is possible that the difference in men's wages may not be greater than the difference in cost of living, the discrepancy between men's and women's wages is greater in Sholapur than elsewhere.

	Bombay.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.
Av. wage Spinner	Rs. 27 8 annas	Rs. 26 8 annas	Rs. 18.
„ „ Women	Rs. 22 8 annas	Rs. 25	Rs. 8 8 annas

Even by Sholapur standard women's wages cannot be considered adequate.

*Economic Independence.*—Where the women were married they, without exception, handed over their earnings to their husbands. If widows, the pay was handed to the male head of the house if such existed. Of the 86 women, not living with a husband, 80 retained their wages in their own hands, 6 handed them over to a male relative. The 80 who handled their own pay were all supporting children with the exception of 12)

(No. of persons supported,	1	2	3	4	5
(No. of cases	12	28	30	8	2

(On an average each woman supports 2.4 persons. While in the case of wives, their wages may be held to be supplementary to their husbands earnings, the figures quoted above refer also to all those women upon whom falls the burden of supporting

cannot possibly be made adequate to supply Re. 1-8 annas per sarid. That this is the cause of direct and very definite way during the enquiry.

of the women questioned did not admit to being employed in the opinion of these who know the local situation seemed

One al. Besides those incurred for marriage, religious ceremonies the people displays incurred before joining the mill, purchase on the instalment mill, though maccommon and most clothing is bought in this way.

Family Budgets.—As previously stated, no attempt was made to go to this subject as it was too complicated a one to be handled in the time and also the Government Report gives detailed information. 20 typical budgets were collected by way of comparison, 4 of these were rejected as incorrect and 16 were tabulated. They are as follows:—

Incomes.	No. of budgets.	Average number in family.	
		Adults.	Children.
Below Rs. 10	2	1.5	2
„ Rs. 20	10	1.9	1.6
„ Rs. 30	3	3.3	2
„ Rs. 40	1	3	3

#### Percentage expenditure by income groups.

Incomes.	Below Rs. 10	Below Rs. 20	Below Rs. 30	Below Rs. 40
No. of budgets.	2	10	3	1
Food .. .. .	50 per cent.	47 per cent.	43 per cent.	55 per cent.
Fuel and light .. .. .	14 per cent.	16 per cent.	13 per cent.	10 per cent.
Clothing .. .. .	17 per cent.	15 per cent.	15 per cent.	10 per cent.
Rent .. .. .	17 per cent.	6 per cent.	11 per cent.	11 per cent.
Drink and tobacco, misc. ..	2 per cent.	12 per cent.	7 per cent.	4 per cent.
Total ..	100 per cent.	100 per cent.	100 per cent.	100 per cent.

Conclusion.—This enquiry related to the economic status of women workers only.

Their economic status is largely dependent on the general wage level, and living conditions. Yet, as has been pointed out about the discrepancy between men's and women's wages is greater in Sholapur than elsewhere.

As long as the grain allowance is given the women consider it worth their while to go to the mills, though there were many complaints at the smallness of the wages. But their wages have evidently been considered too much in the life of a supplement to their husbands earnings net as a living wage. A minimum living wage is the least that should be given for a full day's work, until that is reached the position of the women workers cannot be considered satisfactory.

The other matter which stands out very clearly as a result of the enquiry is the need for more adequate provision for the children of working women, either by the mills, local authority or voluntary agency.

Compulsory education and nursery schools would help to meet this need.

#### Hand-loom Industry, Sholapur.

According to the Government Report of Family Budgets in 1928, "there is no other important occupation for the working-classes in Sholapur except cotton spinning and weaving."

(In different parts of the City colonies of hand-loom weavers are to be found. Speaking generally, the men do the weaving and the women and children do all the auxiliary processes.) The bulk of the weavers are Sedis, or Hindu weaver caste, but a certain number of Mohammedan weavers from the adjoining State of Hyderabad have also settled in Sholapur and there they ply their trade. These are newcomers, but the Hindu weavers have been there for many generations. As a rule the weaving is done in workrooms varying in size from the largest, which employs 300 hands, to numerous small workshops where two or three men are employed. The former having 50 looms, the latter usually 4. All are pit looms, even those up on the

live without it on account production is confined to women's saris and bodice pieces. with the statements received from the local mills or in the bazaar, in which case it may attendance. According to Japan or in the case of artificial silk (much used) or gold thread, attending the full vance. All the dyes come from Germany.

The truth seems used none of these workshops come under the Factories Act, and attendance, depend on trade, usually from about 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., with a more or their grain all at noon and irregular rests in between. In many cases the primitive

A few mowing the shuttle backwards and forwards by hand is still in use. In Rs. 20. An improved loom is used which about trebles the output.

A workroom is run by a relative of Kiloskar of Kiloskarwadi, Tikekar, and mills is the same ingenuity. All the machinery is modelled on modern textile is machinery, but made locally of wood, tin and nails. He used to employ power but discontinued it and uses hand power only, thus avoiding the Factories Act. He has another similar establishment outside the City which has a "model village" attached. The women do reeling and pirn winding by the same method as in the factory, only the machine is turned by a man instead of power. They weave up to 40 and 60 counts. The place is a curious cross between the old hand-loom industry and a modern mill. The wages were stated to be Re. 1 a day to Rs. 1-8 annas for weavers; it is all piece-work. The women earn 4 to 6 annas a day. All the dyeing is done in a village nearby, where most of this work is done for the whole of Sholapur. The workshop has its own shop in the town for selling its goods. In the largest workshop already referred to, the auxiliary processes are all done in the old primitive way, the warp is set up in the open street, every bobbin is wound separately by a woman, and it is the same organization precisely as the little four-loom cottages, except in the number of people employed. The earnings were stated to be 14 annas to Re. 1 a sari, and it was possible to make a sari in a day. Women got 6 to 8 annas a day. Work hours were from 4 a.m. to 10 p.m.)

Workers seemed to come and go as they liked, there were no regular shifts. A Bombay firm took the whole output. The light in the rooms was good, a contrast to many smaller homes, where the people work in such darkness it is hard to see how they can turn out good work. The women worked on the verandahs and in the open courtyard, and they had their children with them. Some of the people were from Hyderabad State. Each had to pay a deposit of Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 before being allowed to start work.

*The four-loomed hut.*—This was the smallest number found, and usually one or two outsiders are employed for the looms, the family doing the supplementary work if there were enough of them. Wages were about Re. 1 a sari. Women get 2 annas for sizing if they are employed, and they can do two or three a day, making 4 to 6 annas. This sizing is done with a large and heavy brush and is hard work. They work from about 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., with pauses for rest and food. One of the poorest weavers found had four looms which he worked himself with two hired men; one loom was idle. He supported 13 persons, himself, two women, two men, and the rest children. The yarn was obtained from the moneylender, who also took all the cloth made. They were weaving women's and small girls' saris. The man received 6 to 14 annas a sari according to the size.

The Tikekar type of reeling machine was met with occasionally in other workrooms. In one case about 30 women were working in a small room that was entirely filled with machinery and the women. There were only very inadequate means of exit, the air was absolutely full of fluff, which made us all cough violently on entering.

In another case of a large workroom, wages were stated to be Re. 1 to Re. 1-2 annas a sari, and a sari took one to one and a half days to finish.

There were stated to be 20,000 looms in Sholapur, though this may be an exaggeration. Very few are purely family concerns. Women weavers are occasionally met with, but not often. Weavers all require additional help, and it is customary to have young boys either one to each man or one between four or five looms to assist the weaver.

The whole industry struck one as prosperous and very well organized. Wages compare very favourably with the mills, but light, ventilation, and sanitary conditions were decidedly poorer than the standard required in the latter.

*Mohammedan weavers.*—These, as already stated, are immigrants. They were driven by poverty from their State and are settled on the outskirts of Sholapur. They are altogether poorer and their work more primitive than that of their Hindu neighbours. They hang on the outskirts of a closely organized guild and find competition severe.

One house had six looms and another 16, in rooms surrounding a courtyard. The looms in the former were the old type with the shuttle thrown by hand thus taking four days or so to finish. In the large establishment both varieties of loom were found. Real and artificial silk were both found in use. The yarn was Japanese, which was stated to be stronger than the local product.

Both men and women worked at the looms and were paid Re. 1-8 annas per sari on the old type, and 14 annas on the new. The men made about eight in a month on the former, the women four to six. Women on other work got 2 to 3 annas a day. Hours were more or less from dawn to dusk. Some of the women employed in the larger establishment were Hindu weaver caste.

One house was found where the looms were standing idle because the people could not afford to work them. Two men in the family had gone to the mill, though so far only as extra hands.

There were six adults and some children in the family. The women are all purdah, so none of the Mohammedan women can get any work outside their own home.

Both Hindu and Mohammedan complained that the price of saris had dropped from Rs. 13 a sari some years ago to Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 now, so that the work was not nearly so paying as it used to be. No definite reason could be found for this drop. If it is due to competition with the mills it is indirect and not direct, as the mills do not manufacture saris on account of the demand for variety in the borders, and their comparative complexity in design and it does not pay so well as to make white cloth.

*Conclusion.*—It seems likely, from the condition in Sholapur, and other places also, that it is quite possible for hand-weaving to continue side by side with the mills and that there is no immediate danger of extinction. The rate earned in Sholapur also compares quite favourably with the mills. It has to be remembered of course that as far as the Hindu weavers are concerned the hand-loom industry is confined to a special caste, and does not offer a means of livelihood to any other.

Conditions of overcrowding, bad lighting, ventilation, and sanitary provisions and long hours, all are matters which show clearly the need for bringing workshops under some sort of control.

#### THE NATIONAL CHRISTIAN COUNCIL OF INDIA, POONA.

The growth of modern industries in a country like India, where the rural masses are both illiterate and extremely poor, is bound to be attended by serious evils. The steady wages available in factories all through the year as against the meagre and uncertain income they are able to get by working on their lands or as agricultural labourers, induce workmen to migrate to industrial centres. Here they have to live under conditions which make it difficult, if not impossible, for them to maintain the order of life based on the religious, social and moral values to which they have been accustomed for generations in the villages. Being illiterate they are incapable of organizing themselves or looking after their interests or increasing their efficiency as workmen. They easily come under the influence of self-interested persons who persuade them to take up attitudes or resort to action which ultimately result in serious loss both to the labourers and their employers, and consequently to the general industrial progress of the land.

Nevertheless, we believe that progress in large scale organizations in industry is needed in India in the present stage of her development. At the same time we are convinced that we should do everything possible to prevent this new economic civilization that has come to India from becoming the master, instead of the servant, of the human spirit. We believe that human life is the most important form of wealth and for this reason we stand committed to the removal of all those conditions we find in the organization of industries which tend to violate the essential dignity of human personality and deny facilities to reach its full development.

We affirm that service of the community, and not merely profit for employers or workmen, should be the primary motive for industrial development; and we believe that if this is kept in view a policy of prices, profits, wages and production can be worked out which will serve the common interests of employers, workers and the community as a whole.

With a view to facilitate the application of the principles stated above to the conditions we find to-day in Indian industries, we offer some practical suggestions.

#### I.—Legislation.

1. There is need of amending the present Factory Act in the following aspects:—  
 (a) There should be reduction of hours of work to a normal 55-hour week and 10-hour day, seasonal industries being considered an exception; (b) no spell of work without a pause should be longer than five hours; (c) the multiple shifts should be abolished; (d) workplaces using power and employing ten or more persons on any day in the year should be brought under the Factory Act.

2. *Fines*.—At present there is very little control over fines and deductions in industrial undertakings. There should be legislation based on the principle that fines and deductions should be fair and reasonable and not a source of profit to the employer, and that they should be recorded in a register which the factory inspector should have the right to inspect.

3. *Minimum Wage*.—The Government of India should ratify the Minimum Wage Convention and legislation along the lines suggested by the Convention should be introduced without stressing the need of applying it to home trades.

4. *Sick Leave*.—There is need for legislation by which workmen could get at least 20 days' sick leave in a year on doctor's certificate on full or half-pay.

### II.—Increase of Inspectorate.

If the proposals made above are to be carried out, it would be necessary to increase the number of factory inspectors. There should be at least one woman inspector in each of the large industrial centres. The clause in the present Act by which "public officers" are empowered to inspect factories should be used more fully than is done now.

### III.—Welfare or Labour Supervisors.

We recommend the appointment of welfare or labour supervisors to undertake among other things :—(a) Direct engagement of labour; (b) property management of lines or *chawls*; (c) health educational and recreational work, always safe-guarding the direct access of labourer to management as it exists in many places at present; (d) handling advances to workmen now given through jobbers; (e) developing the committee or *panchayat* system among labourers.

We are of opinion that voluntary agencies be encouraged to develop welfare work such as that indicated above in co-operation with employers. In the carrying on of welfare work, the labourers should be given as much share in it as is possible, and care should be taken that welfare work is not used in any way as a rival to trade union.

### IV.—The Training of Welfare Work Supervisors.

We believe that efforts should be made to train suitable persons, Indian and European, as welfare work supervisors. The outline of a scheme for this purpose, contemplates co-operation between the economic departments of some of the Indian Universities with some of the British Universities, is sent herewith (see Appendix).\*

### V.—An Industrial Welfare Society.

There is not in India at present any kind of co-ordination in welfare work. A voluntary organization on the lines of the Industrial Welfare Society of England should be started in India, mainly for the purpose of collecting information about progress in welfare work and to give advice in welfare matters. This organization should be worked with the help and co-operation of employers, workmen and the general public. While it should be an unofficial body, Government may help it with grants of money.

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### THE BOMBAY REPRESENTATIVE CHRISTIAN COUNCIL.

The fact that industrialism is in its infancy in India presents many difficult problems of management, but we believe that much of the industrial unrest in this Presidency is due to an inadequate application of the principles of brotherhood, respect for personality, and mutual service.

The Bombay Representative Christian Council therefore adopts and commends to the careful consideration of all concerned, the following statement :—

(1) Ownership is a trust which carries with it a responsibility towards the labourer as a human being, and the interests of personality should not be subordinated to consideration of profits. We would affirm our belief that service should be the primary motive of industry.

(2) The interests of neither capital nor labour can take precedence of the welfare of society as a whole. Society on its part has an obligation to secure the just interest of both capital and labour.

(3) The happiness and efficiency of labour is dependent in a large measure on the conditions under which the labourer lives. We realize that the domestic habits of the labourer are open to improvement, but we believe consideration should be given to improving the existing housing conditions under which many of them live.

(4) A first charge upon industry is a living wage for the workman ; and every workman should give an honest day's work in return for his wage.

(5) Labour should have the right to organize and have every reasonable opportunity to give full and adequate expression to its desires and to negotiate with the management through the representatives of its properly constituted organizations.

(6) Labour should be free to seek ways and means whereby its legitimate ends may be obtained, it being understood that the methods employed will be along constitutional lines.

(7) Proper provision should be made for the education and recreation of the workers, preferably through the appointment of trained welfare workers, both inside and outside the mills, in each industrial area.

(8) The establishing of labour exchanges is a much needed agency to deal with unemployment ; and for relieving exceptional unemployment, well-conceived schemes of public works should be given consideration.

### LEGISLATION.

Towards the practical working out of the above principles certain matters seem to us to call for legislation. In the following respects we would endorse the proposals made by the National Christian Council *Industrial Survey* :—

(1) There should be a normal 55-hour week and a 10-hour day.

(2) No spell of work should be longer than five hours.

(3) Workplaces employing more than 10 persons should be brought under the Factory Act.

(4) Fines and deductions should be fair and reasonable and not a source of profit to the employer. They should be recorded in a register and the Factory Inspector should have the right to inspect this register.\*

(5) In view of the above proposals Government should increase the inspectorate and a woman inspector should be appointed in each large industrial area.

(6) The Government of India should be urged to ratify the Minimum Wage Convention and to initiate legislation along these lines but without stressing the need for applying it to home industries.

Further, we would urge the following four points in regard to Bombay Presidency in particular :—

(1) The right of peaceful picketing at the time of strikes must be affirmed.

(2) Facilities for impartial investigation and conciliation such as those provided for in the Trade Dispute Act, should be established on a permanent basis.

(3) The law with regard to child labour should be rigidly enforced and minors in industry should be safeguarded so as to protect their future health and well-being.

(4) We welcome the fact that the Bombay Government has initiated maternity benefit legislation, and we are convinced of the value of such an Act. There are, however, one or two particulars in which the present Act may, unless suitably amended, militate against the interests of those women it is intended to serve. As two instances of this which have already come to our notice we might mention (1) the fixing of a definite amount to be paid as benefit, instead of a fixed proportion of the average wages. In at least one large industrial town this figure is so much higher than a woman earns as a normal wage, that there is danger of such women as would become eligible for the benefit, losing their employment. (2) A recent investigation goes to show that in Bombay pregnant women tend to leave their work earlier than the time provided for in the Act, alleging as a reason physical inability to continue. The necessity of remaining at work until one month before confinement is expected, in order to get the benefit which is likely to have a deleterious effect on such women.

### PROBLEMS AFFECTING LABOUR IN THIS PRESIDENCY.

The following are some conditions, which, in the actual experience of our members, militate against a contented industrial population.

\* We further believe that all fines should be credited to a fund for the benefit of the labourer.

*Wages.*—The wages of a large proportion of the mill workers are admittedly low. This is true, not only of unskilled workers, but of skilled workers, such as spinners, winders (women), and reelers (women).

For example :—Average wage per month.

	Bombay.			Ahmedabad.			Sholapur.		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Spinners (piecers)	..	23	1 0*	23	4	0†	15	3	0‡
Winders	..	16	8 0†	16	10	6§	7	5	0¶
Reelers	..	17	5 6†	19	4	6§	7	14	6¶

Those living on the bare subsistence level show results in under-nourishment, poor physique and continuous ill-health. This must be a potent factor in the inefficiency so often deplored of the Indian labourer.

*Housing.*—While we realize that the Hindu joint family system tends to overcrowding in some cases, we believe that numbers of working class families are unable to pay the rent of even one room at the present rates of rents and wages, necessitating more than one family sharing one room, each family having a separate cooking place.

Other families take in boarders. These are usually men without their families who have no sleeping place provided but are allowed to keep their possessions in the room and the housewife cooks for them.

We recognize that Government have made a remarkable effort to deal with the housing question in the City of Bombay, and we share the concern of all that the facilities provided have not been made use of more fully. Certain parts of the city are very congested while others lie vacant in the northern end of the city. The improvement of transport facilities would, we believe, be one of the ways to relieve this congestion and distribute the population better in regard to housing facilities; another would be a scheme of welfare service conducted by voluntary agencies to ensure a wise utilization of the leisure hours of the workers.

*Education.*—The majority of mill hands are illiterate, including numbers of those who hold positions of responsibility over other men. This imposes an unfair disability in matters concerned with their engagement, the payment of wages, and in a knowledge of and understanding of rules and regulations governing their employment. It is also a potent factor in the rapid spread of false rumours and a state of panic.

We acknowledge the effort made by the Municipality to overcome this by the establishment of compulsory education in wards F and G, which are largely occupied by a labouring population. But since the Act is not enforced, large numbers of children do not attend school, neither is there sufficient accommodation should all desire to do so.

An adult school movement, particularly for youths between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five, would prove extremely valuable. This would be most profitably conducted by voluntary agencies, liberally assisted by Government, which should allow full scope for experiment in matters of curriculum.

Believing physical training to be a great asset in the education of the child, we would stress the importance of spacious school playgrounds, and also of finding a place in the primary schools curricula for physical culture and a programme of directed play for all, on well ordered lines. Adequately qualified teachers should be employed and placed in charge of this important branch of education.

*Recruitment of Labour.*—The present system of engagement of labour through jobbers, themselves usually men but little, if at all, above the men they engage, opens the way for much petty injustice, bribery and oppression. We are aware that employers are usually alive to the difficulties of this system, and that up to the present no way has been found to abolish it; but we would urge that the matter be re-examined in connection with the question of establishing labour exchanges.

### Welfare Work.

We would endorse the findings of the National Christian Council Survey in the following matter.

*Welfare of Labour Supervisor.*—A considerable amount of excellent welfare work has been undertaken at different times by millowners in this Presidency. But anyone familiar with similar work in England must be struck with one difference. It is becoming increasingly the practice in England, even where it is not legally obligatory, to appoint a well-educated and trained man or woman to be in charge of all the personnel side of the work. This has not hitherto been the practice here.

\* See enquiry into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry, Government of Bombay, Table I. † *Ibid.*, Table II. ‡ *Ibid.*, Table IV. § *Ibid.*, Table V. ¶ *Ibid.*, Table VII. ¶ *Ibid.*, Table VIII. No material change since 1923.



Since the relationship between capital and labour is one of the most disturbing factors in the present situation, we would urge that the appointment of trained supervisors to deal, among other things, with the following matters should be urged upon all large employers of labour:—(1) To use his influence to facilitate the settlement of disputes as and when they arise. Probably it would be found helpful if committees of workmen were set up in the mill to assist in this matter. (2) to have supervision of the working conditions in so far as they affect the health of the workers, especially as regards women and young workers. (3) to have general supervision of all welfare work carried on. (4) To supervise all lines or chawls belonging to the firm and to help to improve the home conditions of those living in them.

There is a large field for voluntary effort outside the factory walls which would provide for the needs of the labourers in their leisure hours and for their general uplift. Such voluntary efforts exist, but are usually hampered for lack of funds, and are thus prevented from undertaking work on the scale required.

*Examples of Over-crowding due to " Boarders " in Naigaum District.*

Room.	Family.	Boarders.
<b>Chawl 13.—</b>		
Room 47 .. ..	3 families—8 people :— (1) Of 4—husband, wife and 2 children. (2) Of 2—husband and wife. (3) Of 2—husband and wife.	
Room 14. .. ..	1 family—9 people :— Husband, wife and 1 child, 4 relatives..	.. 2 men
Room 54 .. ..	2 families—5 people :— (1) Of 2—husband and wife. (2) Of 3—husband and wife and 1 child.	
Room 53 .. ..	3 families of 8 people :— (1) Of 2—husband and wife. (2) Of 2—husband and wife. (3) Of 4—husband, wife and 2 boys.	
Room 55 .. ..	3 families—7 people :— (1) Of 2—husband and wife. (2) Of 2—husband and wife. (3) Of 3—husband, wife and 1 child.	
Room 58 .. ..	2 families—9 people :— (1) Of 5—husband, wife and 3 children. (2) Of 4—husband, wife and 2 dependents.	
<b>Bogada chawl*—</b>		
No. 1 .. ..	1 family—19 people :— Husband, wife and 5 children	.. .. 12 men
Present condition ..	1 family—7 people..	.. .. 4 men
No. 4 .. ..	2 families—10 people :— husband, wife and 3 children each	
Tin shed .. ..	1 family—4 people :— husband, wife, and 2 children. Dependents, 1 woman, 2 children. Hens, cattle, etc.	
No. 13 room .. ..	1 family—8 people :— husband, wife, and 6 children	2 men

*Note.*—Average size of rooms, 8 x 16, including washing and cooking places.

## THE BOMBAY MILLOWNERS' ASSOCIATION.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. Labour in Bombay mills is composed of about 30 per cent. of local labour, of which about two-fifths are Mahomedans and three-fifths Hindus. The Mahomedans are chiefly employed as weavers, and the local Hindus are employed in the spinning department. The local female labour employed consists of depressed classes who are usually employed as sweepers, and Ghati women who are mostly employed as reelers and winders.

Out of the remaining 70 per cent. four-fifths come to Bombay from the outlying Konkan districts of the Presidency—Ratnagiri and Kolaba—and are mostly Mahratas. They are very largely employed in the weaving department, and to a lesser

\* *Note.*—Tin roof, small window, very insanitary. The 12 men had two rooms for sleeping.

extent in the roving and frame departments. The remaining 14 per cent. of Bombay's labour are Bhayya and Pardeshis from the united provinces and the central provinces who are chiefly employed in the frame department and in the blow room.

(2) A large number of the Konkani operatives in Bombay mills go away to their native villages shortly before the monsoon and return to Bombay at the end of the rains. During the marriage season, which recurs periodically, there is also some exodus to villages. During the temporary absence of these workpeople, *budlis* or substitutes are employed who usually leave when the regular workers return. Speaking generally, the labour force may be said to be more or less permanent, allowing, of course, for *budlis*.

Bhayya and Pardeshi operatives do not go back to their villages so frequently as their Mahratta confrères, probably because of the remoteness of their villages from Bombay and the consequent high railway fares. They go once in three or four years, and stay away for about three or four months.

3. The high wages paid in Bombay mills attract a sufficient labour force from the surrounding districts to meet all ordinary requirements, and no special recruitment is necessary at present. In this connection, the following paragraph from the Association's letter dated 10th January, 1928, to the Collector of Bombay in respect of the action taken by the millowners on some of the recommendations of the Tariff Board will be found interesting :—

"7. Paragraph 63.—A special enquiry has been made by the Association since the publication of the Tariff Board report with a view to ascertaining the exact practice in regard to recruitment of labour, and the results definitely prove that the practice of direct recruitment is making rapid strides throughout the Bombay mill industry and this movement is receiving every encouragement from the Association and from the management of individual mills. The days when the jobber had almost complete power over the labour force working under him in the mills and the management had perforce to accept whatever labour the jobber thought fit to bring, are fast coming to a close owing to the growth of a more independent spirit among the workers. The enquiry just completed has shown that so far as the daily replacement of absentees is concerned, operatives as a rule are not finally engaged by the jobber. They may, it is true, be brought to the mills by the jobbers, but even this practice is becoming more and more rare and it is now the more general rule for the jobber to obtain replacements for his absentees from the applicants for work who daily attend at the mills. Whatever the method adopted by the jobber to obtain the workpeople necessary for replacing absentees, the final selection and appointments are made by the heads of the departments concerned, and in many mills even the preliminary assembling of applicants for replacements of casual vacancies is conducted by the heads of departments and not by jobbers.

"There may in the future still be occasions when, owing to an extraordinary shortage, jobbers will be still required to recruit labour, but these revivals of the power of the jobbers are likely to be temporary and infrequent.

"The millowners have always strongly discountenanced the practice of extorting commission from workpeople by jobbers, and where charges of this nature are substantiated, the most severe disciplinary action is taken against the jobbers concerned."

7. The amount of unemployment amongst textile operatives in Bombay has increased during the last four or five years, and at the present time, there are probably 10,000 less workers in the industry than there were five years ago. This number is not necessarily entirely unemployed. Unemployment among weavers is not in the same proportion for the reason that the number of looms has increased considerably.

The number absolutely unemployed varies during the different seasons of the year.

The unemployment is chiefly due to a number of mills having gone into liquidation and many others having worked at below full capacity. Some increase in the amount of unemployment has also been brought about by the increase in the amount of finer cloth woven, which necessitates less preparatory machinery. The retrenchment of superfluous labour and the introduction of the efficiency system in a few mills have also caused a reduction in the labour force. The extent of these reductions is probably between three and four thousand, and has chiefly affected the spinning department.

Labour troubles have also added their quota to the amount of temporary unemployment.

8. (i) *Average duration of employment.*—The Association has no definite information on this subject.

(ii) It is difficult to estimate the extent of casual employment because the workpeople in Bombay do not remain in one mill for any length of time, but seek employment in different mills from time to time.

Casual employment is increased during those periods when a large number of Konkani workmen leave for their homes or remain absent owing to the marriage season, etc.

Where a large proportion of Bhayya, Pardeshi or up-country workpeople are employed in Bombay mills, it is not necessary frequently to employ *budhis*, because they do not go away so often as the Mahratta workpeople.

9. *Apprentices Act, 1850—Value of.*—As far as the Indian textile industry is concerned, the Act has little, if any, value.

## II.—Staff Organization.

10. The system under which the mills in Bombay are managed has been dealt with at some length by the Tariff Board. The managing agents largely control the buying and selling policy of the mill, and are responsible solely for financing the concerns.

The immediate management and control of mills is vested in the hands of a manager with wide practical experience, with technical assistants under him who are responsible for the working of the various departments.

11. The selection of the managing staff is usually in the hands of the mill manager or mill superintendent, but in the case of most appointments they have to be sanctioned by the agents.

In certain mills, there is a system of training apprentices for managerial and supervising positions.

12. (i) The procedure with regard to the recruitment of the supervising staff is more or less the same as for the managing staff. The methods of recruiting ordinary workers are dealt with in answer to question 3.

(ii) There are hardly any vocational facilities provided at present for the operatives in general. It is hoped, however, that it will be possible in the near future to improve the facilities available to workmen for obtaining technical knowledge of the machine and process with which they are connected. In this matter the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, the Government of Bombay and the Association are collaborating.

The provision of vocational training for those who desire to enter the textile industry will, however, still remain inadequate, and is a matter to which the Government of Bombay might be invited to get detailed consideration. In the opinion of the Association, satisfactory facilities cannot be made available to all workmen unless and until all operatives receive a more adequate primary education.

Although in the mill area of Bombay primary education is free and compulsory, a very large proportion of children of millhands who may be expected to form the working force in the mills in the next decade or so, do not receive any primary education whatsoever owing either to the fact that they are living outside Bombay or are kept away from school by their parents, and until the situation is altered, it will be difficult to introduce a satisfactory scheme of vocational training.

In spite of this lack of vocational training, the conscientious workman, at the present time, has fairly good chances of improving his prospects. The posts of the subordinate supervising staff, such as mucedums, jobbers and foremen, are filled from the ranks, and it is only on rare occasions that these posts are filled up by men recruited from outside owing to the lack of suitable men in the department.

13. (i) The relations between the staff and rank and file were quite harmonious until recently. But the attitude of a certain section of the labour force has entirely changed owing to the teachings of certain labour leaders. (See also answer to question 122 later).

(ii) *Value and defects of system of employing jobbers.*—A reference is invited to the answer to question 3 above.

(iii) The constitution of Works Committees, as understood in the more advanced industrial countries in the West, has not been generally attempted. One important reason for this is the illiteracy of the major portion of the industrial population in India which prevents them from fully appreciating and utilizing the advantages that accrue from such committees.

The experience of two important groups of mills in Bombay show the difficulties in the way of organizing Works Committees, and the attempt had to be given up in one group, and in the other, their activities came to be confined to welfare work. Whether circumstances have altered sufficiently to admit of further experiments in this direction is a matter which is engaging the attention of the Association.

A copy of the "brochure" issued by Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim and Sons, giving detailed information of the work done by Works Committees in their group of mills, is submitted as an enclosure for the information of the Commission.

14. (i) Each mill maintains a timekeeper's department with a special clerical staff who are responsible for attendance registers. They calculate and check wages, and in the piecework calculations, departmental clerks also render assistance. The great majority of mills issue tickets to their workers on the day before pay-day showing the amount of wages due.

The methods of checking timekeeping, piecework, contract and attendance registers, adopted by two representative groups of mills, are given below, and it may be assumed that the details outlined therein obtain more or less in almost all the mills in Bombay :—

" *Group A* :—All operatives except weavers are provided with tickets showing their departments and departmental numbers, which they drop at the timekeeper's office while entering the mill in the morning. The ticket boys arrange these tickets in order, and draws up a list of absentees. The head of each department also sends a list of absentees which is checked with the ticket boys' list. The tickets collected at the time office are redistributed among the operatives after the recess hour, and this provides a check. From the ticket boys' report, the timekeepers enter the attendance in the attendance registers or musters.

" In an average mill employing about 2,000 hands there are generally 3 timekeepers and 4 ticket boys under one head timekeeper.

" *Piecework books* showing the amount of work turned out by pieceworkers, are maintained by the departmental clerks, and are checked by the timekeepers.

" The musters are checked by the timekeepers of each mill by an interchange of musters. The pay scrutinizing staff attached to the head office maintains a general supervision on the musters of all mills.

" There is no work done on contract."

" *Group B* :—Timekeeping and attendance registers are kept and checked by the timekeepers' staff.

" Every employee except in certain cases, is supplied with a metal ticket bearing his register number. On entering the mill the employee deposits his ticket in a box placed outside the timekeeper's office. The timekeeper then gets the tickets sorted out by the ticket boy who then consecutively places them on the board on which the numbers of employees with their respective departments are written in order. Those whose tickets are placed on the board are considered to be present, and those whose tickets are not found, to be taken as absent. The absent numbers are then noted down in a separate book and the assistant timekeeper goes into the departments with it to get the absent numbers verified by the head of the department, and after they are verified, they are marked in the muster-rolls.

" Piecework books are kept by the departmental clerks concerned and after the end of the month when they are completed, are sent to the timekeepers who check them and enter into the muster-rolls."

(ii) Wages are almost invariably paid to the actual workpeople by paymasters or cashiers sent specially to mills on pay-day for that purpose by the agents' office. The payment is made in the presence of a timekeeper who attends with the muster-roll and checks the payments; the head of the department concerned is also present. It is a custom to pay wages during working hours in the departments one after the other. The workpeople present themselves in batches according to their order in the muster.

15. The system of giving out work on contract does not exist in Bombay mills.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) The information at the disposal of the Association shows that up to date, nearly 6,000 rooms have been constructed by Bombay mills at a cost of something like Rs. 75 lakhs. The activities of the Association in this direction had to be curtailed, however, when the Bombay Government undertook the provision of housing accommodation for the working classes, for which purpose a duty of Re. 1 per bale was imposed on all cotton brought into Bombay. This duty during the last 8 years has cost the mill industry of Bombay approximately Rs. 80 lakhs.

The chawls erected by employers provide suitable one and two-room tenements for the housing of labour. One or more *nainis* (bath-rooms) are built to serve the needs of the tenants on each floor. Most chawls are built with verandahs or corridors which run the length of each floor and adequate precautions are taken to ensure proper ventilation and light.

The average dimensions of each room are 10 ft. to 12 ft. wide by 10 ft. to 12 ft. long. In some cases, electric lights have been installed and in all cases the supply of fresh water is ample for all purposes. The provision of sanitary arrangements in the chawls is adequate, and a menial staff is maintained for the purpose of keeping the latrines, passages and the precincts of chawls generally clean.

It has been the experience not only of mills but of other large employers of labour that in spite of their attempts to maintain a reasonable standard of sanitation in the chawls built by them for their workpeople, their habits and way of living prevent them, to a considerable extent, from deriving all the benefits of the improved housing provided for them. One reason why the provision of cheap and improved housing does not result in better conditions of health of the workpeople is the ingrained tendency to overcrowd by taking in lodgers or allowing their friends or relations, employed elsewhere, to stay with them. In some cases it has been found that chawls built by the employers of labour in Bombay for their workpeople are inhabited more by outsiders than the workpeople themselves.

The average rent charged is between Rs. 3 and Rs. 5 for single rooms, and the normal yield on capital invested is between 2½ per cent. and 3½ per cent.

(ii) In 1920 the Government of Bombay levied the town duty on cotton on the understanding that a portion of the proceeds of the duty would be utilized for the payment of interest and sinking fund charges on the capital required for the construction of 50,000 tenements for the industrial population of Bombay, which it was proposed to let to workers at very low rents. The scheme was never completed—only 16,500 tenements were built—nor was it practicable to let the tenements at anything like the rent originally intended. The constructional costs of the chawls far exceeded the original estimates, and to make matters worse the operatives showed a disinclination to take advantage of them, with the result that a large number of rooms are now lying vacant in spite of the concessions in rent made by Government from time to time.

Thus, while Government's efforts have substantially failed to relieve the housing situation, the industry continues to pay the tax in spite of the fact that the Tariff Board recommended that it should be reduced.

The following statement shows the scale of rents collected by the Development Department on these chawls :—

*Rates in March, 1929.*

Floor.	Delisle Road.	Naigaum.	Sewri.	Worli.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Ground, first and second	9-8-0	7-0-0	7-0-0	5-0-0
Top floor .. ..	9-0-0	7-0-0	7-0-0	5-0-0

*Notes.*—It was decided to reduce the rate of rents for rooms on all floors of Delisle Road chawls to Rs. 8 per mensem with effect from 1st April, 1929.

18. In regard to chawls provided by Government and employers, the provisions which have been made constitute an advance on the provisions made by private landlords in regard to sanitation, water supply and lighting arrangements.

19. At the present time the accommodation provided by employers is being more readily taken up than previously, but in a fair number of cases the accommodation intended for the benefit of their own operatives has had to be let out to outsiders.

In the case of Government chawls, although rents have been reduced to a comparatively low level, the accommodation is not availed of to the extent to which it should be. This remark specially applies to chawls at Worli. The reasons for this are explained in the following paragraph extracted from a letter addressed by the Association to the Secretary, Development Department, Bombay, in 1927 :—

" There is little doubt that one of the reasons for the lack of tenants in the development chawls is that a very large number of workers persist in remaining in infinitely worse accommodation belonging to private landlords. Many of these chawls are really unfit for human habitation as judged by present-day standards, and should be condemned as ' U.H.H.' by the Sanitary Department of the Municipality. My committee consider that the authorities in charge of the housing scheme should approach the Municipality with a request that the sanitary rules should be more rigidly enforced henceforward both in the interests of the health of the city and the finances of the housing scheme. Bustees and temporary abeds should, in no cases, be allowed as human habitations. It has been said that the Municipality themselves own certain properties which ought to be condemned as insanitary, and are therefore loath to put the screw upon private landlords. If this is true it is scarcely to be wondered that the development chawls do not contain as many tenants as they might otherwise have."

Further progress towards the provision of accommodation by employers in Bombay is unlikely in the future, for the reason that the funds which might have been available for this purpose have been diverted towards bearing the cost of erecting and maintaining the houses built by Government.

21. (i) Although sub-letting in its strict sense is not common in the chawls erected by employers, the greatest difficulty is experienced in preventing overcrowding resulting from the system of "paying guests."

Another problem which confronts employers is that they have difficulty in preventing their chawls being taken up by workpeople from other mills. After the last six months' strike it was often found that in order to evade payment of arrears of rent, workers did not return to the mill in which they were originally employed, nor to the chawls in which they had previously rented rooms.

(ii) The greatest latitude has always been allowed by employers before eviction, and after the six months' strike in 1923 many employers gave up their claims for the greater portion of the arrears of rent; and in all cases in which a portion of the arrears was collected very easy terms were arranged for tenants. This generous policy did not meet with an adequate response from operatives, and stricter methods were adopted during this year's strike though the number of evictions was small.

22. Modern industrial housing tends to raise the standard of living of millhands, as it is meant to prevent overcrowding and leads to better health, owing to more ventilation and the use of more up-to-date sanitary appliances. Conservative habits and the disinclination of workers to adapt themselves to improved conditions often serve as barriers to their reaping the full advantage from improved housing.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (i) The reports of the Health Department of the Bombay Municipality would seem to indicate a very high mortality amongst children at birth and during the first twelve months. These, however, must be discounted to a very great extent. While the association recognizes that the death-rate amongst children is unduly high, it must be remembered that there is a practice amongst millhands to send their womenfolk to their villages shortly before confinement. They remain away for perhaps a month and then return to Bombay with their children. If such children die, their deaths are registered in Bombay, and thus go to swell the death-rate per 1,000 amongst children under one year since their births have not been registered in Bombay. Not only this, but even when children are born in Bombay their births are often not registered. All deaths are, however, registered before burial or cremation can take place.

That registration of births leaves much to be desired may be readily deduced from a study of the annual figures published for different localities.

(iii) The following extract from the Report of the Delegation of the International Federation of Textile Workers, under the leadership of the Rt. Hon. Tom Shaw, M.P., which visited India in 1927, gives some idea of the conditions which obtain in Indian mills :—

"Taking the factories from the point of view of height of the rooms, space and ventilation, they are at least equal to the factories of Europe. The machinery is, with very few exceptions, of the latest and most up-to-date type, and whilst there was abundant evidence that—taken generally—European conditions were not being reached, we saw many concerns, where, in every respect, the conditions were equal to the best European mills."

(v) The physique of workers is notably poor in Indian industries generally, one reason being their puny build and poor constitution from birth; another reason being the absence of proteins and other necessary vitamins from their normal dietary which has an adverse effect on building up a robust physique during the period of growth. Early marriage with its attendant evils saps the vitality of the workers to a considerable extent. Another contributory factor which is a hindrance to the possession of sound health is the unhygienic mode of life.

As regards the Bombay mill industry, it may be generally stated that the physique of the weavers and Bhayya workers from the United Provinces compares favourably with that of operatives recruited locally.

24. (i) From information furnished by mills in Bombay in respect of medical facilities provided by them for their operatives, it may be stated that all of them maintain a fully equipped dispensary in the premises, in the charge of a qualified compounder. Medicines are dispensed to mill-hands free of charge almost without exception. In some mills, it is not only the operatives themselves who take advantage of the facilities provided, but even their wives and children are allowed free treatment at the dispensary; e.g., in one mill, 22 per cent. of the daily average attendance was of the families and relations of operatives.

In addition to the maintenance of dispensaries, almost all mills engage the services of qualified medical officers who visit the mills twice a day and prescribe for the operatives who go to them for treatment. Some mills employ a whole-time doctor to attend to their operatives; and in the case of those workpeople who are too ill to attend the mill dispensary for treatment, it is usual for the mill doctor to go to their places and treat them in their homes free of charge.

Women doctors are not generally employed, and in one case, the appointment of a lady doctor with a nurse to help her to attend to the needs of female operatives was discontinued when it was found that they had no objection to be treated by a male doctor, and did not particularly want the services of a lady doctor.

In a mill of average dimensions in Bombay, 50 to 60 workpeople per day seek medical advice or obtain medicines at mill dispensaries. In the case of those mills where workers' families are allowed to attend the dispensary for treatment, the attendance is somewhat higher.

Another direction of welfare work undertaken by some mill managements in Bombay is the provision of creches in the mills for children under 5 years. The creche is usually in charge of a trained nurse assisted by an ayah. Milk, sugar and biscuits are supplied free of charge to children in the creches, and in some instances clothes are also provided for children during the time they are in the creche. The infants are kept in the creches when their mothers are at work and their minor ailments are also attended to by the mill doctor.

The following figures illustrating the extent of medical and other facilities provided by one of the most important groups of Bombay mills, will be found interesting:

There were in all 84,600 attendances at the mill dispensaries during the year 1927, and the doctors paid 491 visits to the patients' residences; the average employment in that year was 23,000 in the whole group.

The total cost of these medical facilities provided by the firm was Rs. 33,732 11 annas in 1927, which gives an incidence of 6 annas 4½ pias per case treated.

There is a lady doctor for all mills, who ordinarily visits each mill on alternate days, and also supervises the baby creches. She treated 8,480 cases in the year 1927.

Daily average attendance at the baby creches is 75 as against provision made for 100.

25. The medical facilities afforded by mills are now very freely utilized. At one time it was difficult to get the women employees to avail themselves of the professional services of mill doctors, but, during recent years, the objection to examination by male doctors is not so marked. (See also answer to question 24 (1).)

26. Latrines of the flushing type are provided where there are municipal connections in mill compounds and a special menial staff is maintained to keep them clean. Drinking water is provided by all mills in the mill compound and in almost all mills provision is made for washing and bathing and these facilities are very freely utilized.

Sanitary arrangements in mills are, generally speaking, far superior to those in workers' houses.

28. Temperature in factories is suitably controlled by the managements, and is subject to frequent examinations by Factory Inspectors. The existing factory rules are ample to safeguard the workers' health. The effect of atmospheric conditions in mills on the health of workers has been dealt with in some detail, as far as the cotton mill industry is concerned, in the report on Humidification and Ventilation of Cotton Mills submitted by Mr. T. Maloney in 1923, to which attention is directed.

During the last few years a considerable amount of work has been done by the cotton mills of Bombay with the object of improving working conditions by the provision of more adequate ventilation and cooling devices. In accordance with the Factories Act, as amended in 1926, wet and dry bulb thermometers are maintained in all cotton mills. Records are submitted at regular intervals to the factory inspection department, and these are checked against a schedule which corresponds very closely with that laid down in the Humidification Report of 1923. It is understood that, in so far as mills in Bombay are concerned, the schedule is rarely contravened.

29. (i) Industrial and occupational diseases are not known to exist in Bombay cotton mills.

(ii) As amongst other workers in Bombay, malaria is very common amongst mill workers, but every effort is being made to combat this undoubted scourge. Many mills have filled in their tanks, others have covered them up, and some mills now employ a special anti-malarial staff, and have adopted the recommendations of the local Malaria Advisory Committee.

30. (i) The attention of the Commission is drawn to the reply of the Government of India to the International Labour Office contained in the report of the International Labour Office on Sickness Insurance, published in May, 1927. On page 11 it is stated:

"The Government of India consider that the adoption of any comprehensive scheme of sickness insurance must be regarded, for some time at any rate, impractical in India, and they think it unnecessary that the reply to be sent to the questionnaire on behalf of the Government of India should discuss in detail the provisions of a scheme which will be formulated with almost exclusive regard to the conditions prevailing in the more advanced European countries."

(ii) *Possibility of introducing other systems.*—In one or two mills, voluntary sickness benefit funds were started at different times, but none of these has met with any great success. It might be possible to attain a greater degree of satisfaction from such schemes if the State contributed towards the cost.

(iii) The use of native medicines has decreased very considerably among mill workers in Bombay and, as mentioned in reply to question 25, even women operatives now take advantage of the medicines and treatment provided by mills.

31. (i) The Bombay Maternity Benefits Act which came into operation from 1st July, 1929, in the following areas situated within the Bombay Presidency, enjoins that maternity benefits be paid to female operatives employed in a factory for a period of three weeks before and four weeks after confinement at the rate of 8 annas per day:—Bombay Suburban District; Bombay City; Ahmedabad; Viramgam; Surat; Broach; Jalgaon; Sholapur; Belgaum; Amalner and Karachi.

The provisions of the Act are administered by the Chief Inspector of Factories and his staff of inspectors, and the amount of maternity benefit for the period up to and including the date of delivery is to be paid by the employer to the woman within 48 hours of the production of a certified extract from a Birth Register stating that the woman has given birth to a child. The amount due for subsequent periods is payable punctually each fortnight in arrear.

(ii) The previous history of the attempts to introduce legislation to provide for the payment of maternity benefits dates back to the year 1919 when the International Labour Conference held at Washington adopted a Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth, and a special resolution was passed on the representation of the Government of India delegates which read as follows:—

"That the Government of India be requested to make a study of the question of the employment of women before and after child-birth and of maternity benefits before the next Conference and to report these matters to the next Conference."

In pursuance of the above resolution, the Government of India caused exhaustive enquiries to be made into the whole question, and the very complete information which they collected was discussed at the informal conference convened by the Department of Industries, and attended by representatives of associations concerned with the welfare and medical relief of women and children. The findings of this important conference, which were incorporated in a report subsequently framed by the Government of India, were that immediate legislation on the lines of the Draft Convention was impossible.

In January, 1925, Mr. N. M. Joshi introduced in the Legislative Assembly a Bill to regulate the employment of women in factories and mines some time before, and some time after, confinement, and to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits.

This Bill, which was subsequently circulated for public opinion, stated in its Objects and Reasons: "The Bill seeks to carry out some of the proposals contained in the Draft Convention passed at the First International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919." But Mr. Joshi's Bill laid down that the cost of maternity benefits should be borne entirely by employers, whereas the Convention adopted at Washington enjoined that the benefits to be paid to women in connection with their confinement should be provided either out of public funds or by means of a system of State insurance. That industries should be made to contribute the whole cost of providing maternity benefits was palpably unfair. Another defect of Mr. Joshi's Bill was that its scope was confined to women engaged in particular kinds of employment. The Bill was adversely criticised by almost all the public bodies consulted on the subject and, it is understood, was therefore dropped.

In 1928 Mr. R. S. Asavale introduced a similar Bill in the Bombay Legislative Council which was in the first instance referred to a Select Committee. Mr. J. B. Petit, the Association's representative in the Provincial Council, who was also a member of the Select Committee, appended the following minute to the Select Committee's report, which adequately summarises the Association's views:—

"I regret I am still unable to agree to the principle underlying the Bill. Nor am I in favour of the methods proposed by the Select Committee for putting that principle into effect, for the reasons set out by me at very great length in the speech I made when opposing the first reading of the Bill during the July session of the Council.

"My main objections to the Bill are:—(1) That it is the function of the State to provide maternity benefits and not the function of the employers.



" It is stated in the Objects and Reasons attached to the Bill that it is sought to carry out some of the proposals contained in the Draft Convention passed at the First International Labour Conference. In this connection it is pertinent to point out that the Draft Convention adopted at Washington, enjoined that the benefits to be paid to women in connection with their confinement should be provided either out of public funds, or by means of a system of State insurance. The Bill, however, goes even beyond the provisions of the Draft Convention and requires industrial employers to pay for the maternity benefits for women employed in industries.

" The Bill in the form in which it has emerged from the Select Committee absolutely flouts this principle, since it seeks to impose the whole cost of maternity benefits on employers, a principle which has been accepted by no other civilized country.

" (2) That the exhaustive investigations made by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments into this question of maternity benefits led them to the unanimous conclusion that legislation on the lines of the Draft Convention adopted by the International Labour Conference at Washington was premature, impracticable and unsuited to the conditions prevailing in India.

" (3) That legislation dealing with maternity benefits should apply to the whole of India and to all classes of labour.

" In my opinion no satisfactory answers have been given by the supporters of the Bill to these three objections, and until my objections to the principle of the Bill have been met, I must emphatically oppose it as absolutely unfair and uncalled for."

The Bill was, however, accepted by the Provincial Council, and became law from the 1st July, 1929.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

34. When the financial position of the industry is considered, the welfare work which is being done by Bombay mills may be considered creditable, and the welfare schemes which were initiated during the industry's prosperity will be continued and extended as soon as financial considerations permit. In this connection, the attention of the Commission is also directed to the Annual Reports issued by the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay.

From the information obtained by the Association, it appears that in almost all mills, a tea-shop is maintained in the compound. In many instances, two or more such shops are to be found where, in addition to tea, light refreshments can be had. Where a large number of Mahomedan hands are employed, there is separate provision made for the supply of tea and refreshments to them by a Mahomedan tea-shop keeper.

Cheap grain and cloth shops have been in existence for many years, and were particularly useful to the workpeople during the period of high prices which followed the close of the war.

In some mills, large sheltered accommodation is provided for the workpeople, to enable them to take their meals.

It may interest the Commission to know that one mill has even gone to the length of erecting a theatre equipped with electric lights, where plays are staged and cinema shows are given.

35. The effect of the welfare work is difficult to estimate owing to the fact that millhands are in the habit of changing about from mill to mill, and during the last few years, the beneficial effects of welfare work have been, to a large extent, neutralised by the unemployment and misery caused by frequent and prolonged strikes.

36. It was until recently the practice in a large number of mills to provide schools for half-timers and children of workpeople in Bombay mills. These have largely been discontinued owing to the introduction of compulsory primary education and owing to the raising of the age limit for child workers. The statistics of the Factory Inspection Department show that at the present time only 122 half-timers are employed by mills, and the necessity for schools for them no longer exist.

As regards adult workers, individual millowners have contributed generously towards night schools conducted by the Social Service League, and several mills maintain night schools for their workpeople.

Technical education has been encouraged for many years. The Association has been contributing Rs. 2,000 per year, for many years, to the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute. In addition, in 1922, a special subscription of Rs. 1,14,000 was made to the cost of the new premises of the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute. The work carried on by the Social Service League has been substantially helped by the generous contributions in money and machinery made by members of the Association.

37. While the difficulties in the way of inaugurating schemes of this nature which would be acceptable to the workers are undoubtedly great, the matter is receiving the attention of the Association.

Even at present a certain number of old employees do receive grants or pensions on retirement, but nothing in the nature of a general scheme has, so far, been adopted.

38. The chief difficulties in the way of increasing the extent of co-operation in the matter of welfare between employers and their employees are the unsettled habits of the workpeople who move about from mill to mill, and the lack of genuine assistance from some of the trade unions which do not seem to be concerned with improving welfare work.

#### VI.—Education.

41. *Facilities for Industrial and Vocational Training.*—This subject has been touched upon in answer to questions 11 and 12, but it may be stated that facilities for vocational training could probably be developed if primary education, which must form the ground-work for vocational training, was more general in the Presidency.

42. The labour attracted to Bombay mills in the past has generally been drawn from the ranks of the illiterate, and the Association is not therefore in a position to say what the effect of education would be on the standard of living and industrial efficiency, except that inasmuch as it has usually been the experience in other countries that the extension of education has had beneficial effects both upon the standard of living and upon industrial efficiency, the mill industry of Bombay would welcome a rapid extension of primary education.

43. Machinery in textile mills which is likely to cause accidents to operatives is generally adequately fenced or guarded, and the factory inspection department maintains an efficient supervision over all fencing devices. Fencing has, on the whole, steadily improved during recent years, and many defects which have come to the notice of the factory inspection department, or have been brought to its notice by this association, have been remedied.

In recent years, lap guarding apparatus has been improved, and defects in the fencing of transmission machinery have been reduced to a minimum.

The factory inspection department, in 1927, issued a pamphlet which was distributed to the managers of all mills pointing out the common defects in guards, and improvements have been made which tend to prevent serious or fatal accidents.

The last two years have shown an increase in the number of accidents from flying shuttles and this was brought to the notice of the factory inspection department by this association. Special instructions were thereafter issued, and the number of such accidents has lately decreased.

44. Most of the cotton mills in Bombay are insured by the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, who at present insure approximately 110,000 men. The total number of accidents reported during the last five years was 11,310, out of which 57 were fatal, 360 resulted in serious injuries and the remaining 10,893 were of a trivial nature.

In European countries, the rate of premium paid for compulsory accident insurance has been estimated at between 1 and 2 per cent., while the rate charged by the Mutual is only 0.2 per cent. This seems to indicate that the rate of accidents in Bombay is very much lower than in other countries. The incidence of accidents in Bombay cotton mills is only 2 per cent. per annum; and in a period of five years, only one person in 9,650 injured was fatally injured. The low accident rate in Bombay mills can be held to be due to the care taken by mill authorities to prevent accidents, and to the control exercised by the factory inspection department. It may also be attributed, in part, to the smaller number of machines attended to by each individual operative in Indian mills.

45. However effectively a machine may be guarded and however thorough the control and instructions, the human element has always to be considered, and is one of the main causes of accidents. There are, however, certain machines in cotton mills which are more likely to cause accidents than others. Experience has shown that the incidence of accidents is greatest in the card-room. A number of these can be attributed to the ignorance and lack of skill of the average card-room operative. Stripping operations cause numerous accidents involving hand and arm injuries which sometimes prove fatal. Belts and machine tools are also frequent causes of accidents.

46. Valuable work in accident prevention has been done by the factory inspection department. Frequent inspections of machinery and safety devices are made to see that the guards, etc., required under the Act, are used and maintained in an efficient state. Whenever it has been found that on any particular machine accidents are frequent, the suggestions made by the factory inspection department for their prevention are attended to by the mills. The frequency of accidents on looms having been brought to the notice of the factory inspection department by the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, the department's suggestion for the

substitution of shuttle bar guards for guards of the hook type was readily accepted and given effect to by many members of the Millowners' Association. As the result of a fatal accident in the card-room of a Bombay mill due to tetanus ensuing from a trivial injury, the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association caused arrangements to be made for anti-tetanus injections being given in all card-room accidents due to injuries received at the licker-in, card cylinder or doffer cylinder.

In certain cases, accidents have been caused by other workmen starting a machine while the injured man was engaged in cleaning or repairing it. These accidents could, to a large extent, be prevented by the exercise of greater care on the part of the workpeople.

A third source of accidents is the careless handling of the machines by workpeople, which can only be prevented by an increase in efficiency, which might be brought about by a more intelligent appreciation of the chief dangers on various machines. As an aid to this, the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association has issued safety-first posters free of charge to members. These posters illustrate very graphically the danger of work on cards at the front plate either during or after the stripping process, the dangers at the under side of the licker-in, the danger of careless sweeping under ring frames, and the danger of wearing loose clothing in the card-room.

48. Practically all cotton mills in Bombay maintain well equipped dispensaries, and in most cases also provide qualified doctors on a part-time basis, whose services are given free of charge to operatives during sickness or accidents. Minor injuries are attended to by the mill medical staff who also render first-aid in serious accident cases. Some of the larger groups of mills have full-time doctors and one or two have lady doctors.

An interesting experiment is at present being tried by the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association under which men, after discharge from hospitals, are being given further curative treatment such as massage by their own doctors, and in many cases it has been found that the extent of permanent disability has been reduced. In some cases it has been found that the full use of the limb has been obtained by such treatment.

49. As far as the mill industry is concerned, the work of the factory inspection department leaves little to be desired, and the provisions of the Factories Act are rigidly enforced.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) and (ii) Most of the insurance effected under the Workmen's Compensation Act in the cotton mills in Bombay is covered by the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association. Every accident, however trivial and however caused, is notified to the association by members on behalf of the workmen. This system entirely prevents claims being turned down for want of notice, and ensures that every possible claim is lodged and investigated as far as the members of the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association are concerned.

(iii) Though the passing of this Act five years ago has put an extra burden on the employers, it was readily accepted by most mills as they were already in the habit of compensating their workmen when injured. It is found that, with very few exceptions, mills have met their liabilities fully and willingly.

(iv) About 70 per cent. of the mills have insured their risks, the majority with the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, and the rest carry their own risk. From the workers' point of view, what is most necessary is that they should be assured of receiving compensation in full when injured. As far as the mill industry in Bombay is concerned, this has always been possible, no matter whether the mills have carried their own risk or have insured their risk.

(v) As far as the mill industry is concerned, compulsory insurance is not necessary. There have been no cases in which workers have lost their claims to compensation.

52. The Act as at present framed only covers men employed in all organized industries, and the association considers that its scope should be extended to cover workers on plantations or employed in construction, repair and demolition of buildings.

53. (i) Judging by the experience so far gained, the scales at present in force seem to be adequate.

(ii) The conditions required to be fulfilled under the Act are few and simple, and practically unlimited discretion is vested in the commissioner who may waive any omission on the part of the workman which would disentitle him to compensation.

(iii) As far as the association is aware, occupational diseases are unknown in the cotton textile industry.

(iv) In presidency towns with special commissioners, the administration of the Act has been most satisfactory, and compensation claims are disposed of with despatch. Commissioners usually advise workmen and employers. The giving of

such advice has not prejudiced the commissioner in favour of any party in cases which are subsequently brought to his court for settlement. Outside the presidency towns, where district or sessions judges officiate as commissioners, they do not usually advise parties prior to the hearing of a case for compensation. In this particular respect the instructions of the central government transmitted through local governments requesting all commissioners to help the people concerned, have not generally had the desired effect. These judges are invariably over-taxed with legal work, and compensation cases have to await disposal in the ordinary course and, usually, it takes much longer for settlement of compensation cases than in presidency towns. Even in the registration of agreements where compensation has already been paid, though it takes only a fortnight to register agreements in presidency towns, it is a common experience that, in the mofussil, it may take months to get them registered.

54. As far as the cotton industry is concerned, legislation on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act of 1880 is totally unnecessary.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. (i) The normal hours of work in Bombay mills are 10 per day and 60 per week. The 10 hours is split up into two periods of 5 hours each with a break of one hour from 12 to 1. Attempts have been made to introduce a half-hour recess in the forenoon, but workers themselves have opposed its introduction the chief reason being that they manage to find time to take their morning meal during working hours. An attempt which was made by the association in 1920 to introduce a morning recess to enable the operatives to take their morning meals was abandoned within a very short time of its introduction as the workmen themselves were not in favour of the scheme.

However, in view of the fact that the Tariff Board also stressed the desirability of introducing such a reform towards the end of 1927, the Association invited the Bombay European and the Bombay Textile and Engineering Associations to express an opinion on the subject. The Bombay Textile Labour Union, the only registered trade union which existed at the time, was consulted, and it was found that the proposal was not acceptable to the union. As under section 21 of the Indian Factories Act, a recess of less than one hour can only be provided with the consent of the employees, no further progress is, at present, possible.

(ii) With the following exceptions, the number of hours worked in cotton mills is 10 per day :—

Warpers, sizers, calendermen, warehousemen and operatives of the folding department are working, as a rule, for 8½ to 9 hours per day, the hours varying in different mills.

The same remarks also apply to mechanics' shop and smithy, but there are instances where the operatives of these departments are putting in 10 hours' work with a *pro rata* increase in wages.

In all cases, the *actual* number of hours worked per day by Bombay mill operatives is considerably less than ten. During the morning and afternoon, workers spend anything from half to one hour away from their machines. During this time, production does not entirely cease, for the reason that during these absences, machines are kept running as far as possible by neighbouring workpeople, or by surplus hands in the department.

56. In Bombay cotton mills a six-day week is universally adopted.

57. The 60 hours' week has very adversely affected the industry's power to compete against countries like China and Japan where, until recently, the hours of work were considerably more than 10, and where women and children were employed at night and double shifts were and are still common. This subject has been dealt with at length by the Tariff Board in 1926, to whose report the Commission is referred.

58. The reduction of the length of the working day in 1920 has resulted in a certain increase in efficiency, particularly amongst piece-workers, but not to the extent of the reduction in hours, and in that sense it may be stated that the cost of production has been adversely affected in a certain measure.

59. As far as the cotton mill industry in Bombay is concerned, any further reduction in hours would be disastrous unless accompanied by an increase in the number of machines attended by an operative.

60. (i) It is very difficult to state definitely what the effect of the present system of recess is on fatigue, but that fatigue is not felt to any extent is indicated by the refusal of the workpeople themselves to have a morning recess of half an hour, and

104. Wage changes of the last few years have had very little effect on the supply of labour. The supply of labour for many years past, has been more than adequate to meet the demands of the industry, except during one or two months during sowing seasons, when isolated mills have some difficulty in obtaining their requirements. The higher wages which have been paid have not affected the character of the labour supply to any material extent, nor have they attracted better class labourers. It is, however, possible that a better class of labour may, in future, be attracted to the weaving section of the industry if the use of the efficiency system is extended. But before this could happen, it might be necessary to arrange for special training of such labour. Interesting results have followed an experiment introduced by Messrs. Courtaulds, who have employed rather superior type of labour in their mill for winding and preparing art silk yarns.

105. The introduction of minimum wages by statutory enactment would be of no assistance to the Bombay mill workers. On the other hand, it might be a positive disadvantage, since the level of wages now existing in the cotton mill industry is relatively high compared to wages paid to a similar class of labour in other occupations, and is also out of proportion to the profits made by the industry and the rise in the cost of living.

One of the 17 demands put forward by labour during the strike in April, 1928, which was considered by the Fawcett Committee, reads as follows :—

" 8. The wages of those workers whose average monthly wage is less than Rs. 30 shall be raised substantially."

After discussing the system of minimum wage regulation in various countries at some length, the Fawcett Committee observed :—

" . . . We do not think that in this enquiry we should be justified in importing the principle of a minimum wage to the extent demanded, viz., the fixing of a definite standard of Rs. 30 below which the wages of no mill operative in Bombay should fall. The introduction of such a standard was not contemplated by the parties when they agreed to the reference, as is clearly indicated by the fact that the Standardization Scheme put forward by the Joint Strike Committee themselves in opposition to that of the millowners contains a number of instances in which the wages are less than Rs. 30. . . .

" In our opinion it would be quite inappropriate in a time of recognized trade depression to attempt to raise the general standard of living of millhands, for that is what the present demand contemplates. . . .

" But we think that any attempt to improve the standard of comfort of the lowest paid workers by raising the general level of wages in the mill industry, in the circumstances of trade depression and fierce outside competition, might only result in the closing down of more mills, and thus in the end be injurious to the interests of the working classes."

106. *Deductions*—(i) *Extent of fining*.—This subject has been dealt with at length in the Fawcett Committee and Tariff Board reports, and the extent of fining practised in Bombay mills was the subject of a special enquiry by the Labour Office to which the Commission is referred. The recommendations of the Fawcett Committee, as incorporated in the standing orders framed by them, deal adequately with the problem. The standing order reads as below :—

" 18. Operatives will ordinarily be fined after being heard (but the acts on being repeated or in any gross case may be treated as misconduct under Order 17) for any of the following offences, namely: (a) absence without leave for more than three days without sufficient cause; (b) negligence in work or neglect of work; (c) smoking on the mill premises except in places where smoking is permitted; (d) entering or leaving or attempting to enter or leave the mill premises except by the gate provided for that purpose; (e) habitual late attendance; (f) absence without leave or without other sufficient excuse from appointed work in the mill; (g) quarrelling or behaving in a noisy or obnoxious manner or doing anything likely to cause a breach of the peace; (h) (e) breach of any rules for the maintenance and running of any department and maintaining its cleanliness; and (i) taking bribes from or giving bribes to any other operative or person employed in the mill, or from or to any other person having dealings with the company as a motive or reward for doing or omitting to do any act, the performance or omission whereof would be prejudicial to the interests of the company.

The total amount of fines inflicted under this Order 18 during any particular month shall in no case exceed 2 per cent. of the operatives' total earnings for that month.

All fines imposed under this order will be credited to a Welfare Fund and utilized for such benefit or benefits to the operatives as the company may determine.

No fine shall be inflicted by an officer lower than the head of the department in which the operative is employed."

The 2 per cent. referred to in the order quoted above compares very favourably with the 5 per cent. allowed in the Truck Act in the United Kingdom.

(iii) It will be noticed that the standing order provides that all fines will be credited to welfare work.

(iv) As far as the Bombay mill industry is concerned, legislation, in the opinion of the association, is neither necessary nor desirable.

107. (i) The monthly system of payment prevails throughout the mill industry. Until 1920, payment was made about the 25th of the month following that for which wages were due. From that time, it was agreed that payment should be made on or before the 15th. Actually, the average date of payment works out at about 11th or 12th, since it is the practice to make the payment on the day preceding Sunday or a holiday. When an important holiday falls earlier than the 12th, payment is made even as early as the 8th or 9th to suit the workers' convenience. At such times, the clerical staff have to work overtime in order to prepare the wage-returns.

(ii) The period which elapses between the date when wages become due and the date of payment is from 8 to 14 days.

(iii) (a) The existing system of monthly payments is general in the city and island of Bombay, and is not confined to the textile industry. In 1924, the question of introducing a system of fortnightly payments was raised by Sir Leslie Wilson the then Governor of Bombay, as a result of which the Association approved of the principle of a fortnightly payment, but when the suggestion was put to the operatives, there was a general consensus of opinion in favour of retaining the monthly system of payment, and the scheme was therefore not proceeded with. It may also be noticed that attempts have in the past been made by individual mills to introduce the fortnightly system of payment, but in no case has it been found possible to continue it, owing to the opposition of the workpeople themselves. For further details of what has been done in this connection, the commission is referred to pages 408-416 of the Associations' Report for 1924.

(b) In the opinion of the association, legislation is not necessary. As previously stated, payment day varies between the 8th and 15th of the month, and earlier payment is scarcely feasible owing to the elaborate calculations which have to be made to ascertain the earnings of piece-workers. Moreover, it should be mentioned that a large number of mills have a system under which advances against wages earned are made to workpeople during the month.

(iv) Unclaimed wages are usually payable twice a month on dates fixed for that purpose by individual mills, and the Fawcett Committee have considered this question fully and have framed a Standing Order (No. 15A) which provides that unclaimed wages shall be payable on demand, and the Millowners' Association have already agreed to accept this recommendation.

108. *Indebtedness.*—Association has no information on this subject.

109. (i) There are no profit-sharing schemes in the Bombay mill industry, but during five years of prosperity, from 1918 to 1922, annual bonuses were given to workers amounting to nearly 2 crores. (Appendix 3.)

110. (i) It is very difficult to state exactly what leave is taken by workers during a year, since it is impossible for mills at the present time to keep accurate records owing to the difficulty of separating ordinary leave from absence due to sickness or other cause. The practice which now exists in Bombay mills is that workpeople simply keep away from mills when they require leave or are sick, without informing the management. A very large proportion of the workers also absent themselves for shorter or longer periods. The report of the enquiry into absenteeism made in 1926 for a number of typical mills by the Labour Office contains very interesting tables (tables Nos. 2, 3 and 4), dealing with this subject, which show the actual number of days worked by every man and woman covered by the enquiry.

Records would also be difficult to maintain, for the reason that in many cases, workpeople do not come back to the same mills, but often find employment in other mills on their return to Bombay. When leave of this character is taken, a certain number of days' wages always remain due for payment. These are seldom, if ever, forfeited and payment is made on the days in each month fixed for the payment of unclaimed wages.

The question of evolving a satisfactory procedure for the grant of leave was discussed by the Fawcett Committee who also laid down that :—

“ Any operative who desires to obtain leave of absence must apply previously to the head of his department or any officer appointed by the manager for this purpose, who, if he thinks fit, may grant him leave for a period not exceeding two months. If the leave granted exceeds one day, the officer granting it shall keep a record of its grant, and give the operative a written and signed certificate as to the period of leave granted to him. In the event of an operative taking leave in excess of the period granted he shall lose all his rights to reinstatement, unless he has previously secured

written permission to extend the leave originally granted and returns to work on the first working day following the period covered by any such extension, or unless on his return to work he gives a satisfactory explanation for his omission to apply for such an extension and the extension is retrospectively sanctioned."

The above rule, which has been already agreed to by this association, will, when introduced, prove a great improvement on the existing practice for both employers and employees.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

113. Some very interesting comparisons of the efficiency of the Indian mill operative and the mill operatives of China, England, and Japan are made in certain publications issued by the Cotton Yarn Association, Ltd., in December, 1928, and January, 1929.

In the spinning section of a Japanese mill only 18 operatives manage to look after 1,000 spindles on average counts 20s, whereas in India, for the same number of spindles, 30 to 31 operatives are required. In Japan 48 operatives look after 100 looms, while in India 98 operatives are required for the same number of looms. These figures are for 1926 in relation to spinning and for 1925 for the weaving section since which time the efficiency of the Japanese operative has been still further increased, as is evidenced from the information published in the *Economist* of 27th July, 1929, in which it is stated that, although, during the past three years, the total spindlage has been increased from 5,586,000 to 6,344,000 and the number of looms from 74,200 to 81,200, the number of operatives has decreased from 180,000 to 152,000. In addition, the average daily output in February, 1929, as compared with June, 1926, showed an increase of 5.5 per cent. per ring spindle and 8.5 per cent. per loom.

In a report recently published by the Secretary of the International Federation of Master Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Associations, Mr. Arno S. Pearse states that the average number of looms per operative in Japan is 5.5 as against 4 in England.

*As compared with England.*—It is stated in a report of the Cotton Yarn Association that India is obliged to engage three persons in place of one in Lancashire mills.

The comparison with China is not so disadvantageous to India, and it would appear from the report of the Cotton Yarn Association that the number of operatives employed corresponds fairly closely to the numbers employed in India, though, of course, the hours worked in China are considerably longer and wages are very much less than in India.

Perhaps it is out of the question to compare efficiency in India with efficiency in America, but it is interesting to note that a ring tenter in America on 30s looks after 1,500 to 2,200 ring spindles, whereas in India the average is less than 200 spindles per tenter.

114. (i) The comparisons which have been made in answer to the previous question are affected in Bombay by migration of labour which prevents the attainment of full efficiency and skill.

The output per operative in India is also affected to some extent by lack of education, climatic conditions, and a low standard of living which has not improved in spite of the increases in wages. But the extent of the reduction in output caused by these factors cannot be reduced to figures. All that can be said is that even taking the disadvantages enumerated above into consideration, there is very wide scope for improving the output per operative, but there is a noticeable lack of desire for self-improvement, and there has been strenuous opposition to all schemes aiming at increasing efficiency.

(ii) and (iii) No complaint can be substantiated against the Bombay mill industry in the matter of machinery and plant, but in certain instances lower speeds, with consequential loss in output, have to be adopted because of the lack of skill amongst the operatives.

(iv) As regards the efficiency of management as a reason for poor output per operative in Bombay mills, it may be stated that, in so far as the superior staff is concerned, their technical knowledge compares favourably with that of persons in similar capacities in most countries.

With an improvement in the standard of education, it may be that a changed outlook may arise, and a greater desire for self-improvement may be inculcated, which would reflect itself in increased production.

115. (i) As regards hours of work it may be stated that the reduction in hours which took place in 1920 did bring about a certain increase in the efficiency of weavers, but the production did not benefit to the extent of the reduction in hours in Bombay mills as a whole.

Separate enquiries would need to be made to ascertain the exact effect on production of any of the facts enumerated. All that can be said is that the improvements in working conditions, increased expenditure on health and sanitation, housing, alterations in methods of remuneration, increase in wages, improved ventilation, and protective legislation have so far brought very inappreciable returns in the way of increased production.

116. The possibilities in regard to ensuring increased efficiency have been partially investigated by the Tariff Board and the Fawcett Committee, and it may be stated with certainty that very little further progress can be made in the immediate future unless labour adopts a more reasonable attitude towards the introduction of efficiency schemes such as those introduced by Messrs. E. D. Sassoon and Co., Finlay's, and the Kohinoor Mills. The association has made strenuous efforts to carry into effect many of the suggestions made by the Tariff Board, but little real progress has been possible.

When standardized rates of wages and the efficiency scheme are introduced a further improvement in output may be expected.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (i) As far as the committee of this association are aware, the principal employers' associations in this country representing the cotton textile industry are :— (1) The Bombay Millowners' Association, (2) the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, (3) the Baroda Millowners' Association, (4) the Delhi Factory Owners' Association.

There was a proposal to start an association in Indore, but the committee are not aware whether it has materialized. Some time ago certain mills in the Madras Presidency organized an association, which subsequently ceased to function when the honorary secretary left India on leave.

*The Millowners' Association, Bombay.*—By far the oldest and most influential of all the above organizations is the Bombay Millowners' Association, which was established in the year 1875. The association probably owed its inception to the serious attempts that were being made at that time to remove the import duties on yarn when the millowners realized the urgent need of a central organization to guide the destinies and protect the interests of the infant industry.

*Membership of the Association.*—Out of a total number of 82 mills in Bombay 71 are members of the Association, but in all matters of general policy the Association's decisions are respected even by mills which are not members.

In addition to local membership the Association has members in Nagpur, Hathras, Calcutta, Sholapur, Mysore, Madura, Madras, and Coimbatore.

*Management of the Association's Affairs.*—The association is unique in India in having its affairs directed by a committee which includes Europeans, Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, and Jews, who have all alike contributed to the association's achievements, and whose work bears ample testimony to, and is an excellent example of the cordiality, unanimity and success with which men of different races, views and inclinations working for a common object can promote the common good.

*Activities of the Association.*—In its broad outlines the activities of the association may be grouped under the following heads :—(1) Collection and distribution of statistics concerning the Indian textile industry in general and the Bombay industry in particular. (2) Registration of trade marks of members. (3) Concerted action by members on matters affecting general policy. (4) Initiation of measures for the progressive development of the industry and reduction of production costs. (5) Protection of the industry's interests by promoting, supporting, or opposing all legislative and other measures which affect the trade, commerce, and manufactures of its members. (6) Collection and dissemination of information relating to the textile trade of other countries.

The standard and completeness of the statistics collected by the Bombay Millowners' Association are probably greater than those of any other organization in India, and compare favourably with those of more advanced Western countries. The Association's statistics stood them in good stead in establishing the industry's case for protection before the Government of India, and their utility survived the test of successive Committees and Commissions of Enquiry appointed by the Government of India. The system of registration of trade marks initiated and worked by the association is unique in this country and has been of great value to manufacturers and merchants alike. Concerted action has for many years been taken in regard to important questions like strikes, lock-outs, short-time working, wages and conditions of employment, and other questions affecting the working of the industry as a whole, and on all these questions the decision of the Association is respected and carried out. With a view to ensure the development of the industry the latest



methods of working and trading successfully adopted by other countries are carefully examined by a special standing sub-committee, who make recommendations for the benefit of the industry. In citing instances of the work of this sub-committee, mention might be made of the standardization and "efficiency" schemes recently formulated by the association, which received the approval of the Fawcett Committee. Another method of promoting the development of the industry for which the association is responsible is the collection and circulation of very detailed information regarding foreign markets.

In assisting the industry to maintain its production costs at a minimum, the association has at various periods in its history taken up the cause of the cotton textile industry to obtain fair treatment in regard to taxation and other charges levied by the Government of India, the Government of Bombay, the Bombay Municipality, the Fire Insurance Association, and other public bodies. It might be claimed that the removal of the Excise Duty in 1926 was largely due to the propaganda carried on by the association, who had behind them the Legislative Assembly and the public. In 1923, to discharge their responsibilities under the Workmen's Compensation Act at a minimum cost, the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association was formed, which now undertakes to cover members' risks at less than 40 per cent. of the premium originally demanded by insurance companies.

While working to retain production costs at a reasonable level the association has not lost sight of the interests and welfare of labour. For example, in 1920 they submitted to special taxation involving lakhs of rupees per year in the shape of town duties on cotton to provide improved housing accommodation to their workmen. From 1918 to 1922, when the industry was making considerable profits, bonuses to the extent of 2 crores of rupees were given to the workpeople over and above their wages. In addition, wages were raised from time to time to correspond to the increased cost of living. Moreover, wages have been retained at the level reached during the peak of the boom period though the cost of living has since gone down considerably. It might also be stated that long before Government themselves had reduced the working week to 60 hours the association had introduced a 60-hour week. The assistance given by the association to all official, demi-official, and private investigations into the conditions and working of the mill industry in India indicates the *bona fides* of the association in regard to the welfare of labour. The association willingly co-operated with Government in carrying out an investigation into ventilation and humidification of cotton mills, and have loyally carried out the obligations which were imposed on the industry as a result of this enquiry. In addition, they have done a large amount of experimental work at considerable cost in conjunction with the Factory Inspection Department with the object of improving the comfort of working conditions.

A separate statement showing the association's membership in Bombay and elsewhere will be found in Appendix 4.

In 1920, and again in 1924, attempts were made to form a Federation of Employers' Associations in India as the growing need for a more intimate union of employers was realized, and leading associations in India were addressed in the matter, but the response from other bodies was not sufficiently encouraging to enable the scheme to be proceeded with further at that time.

(ii) At the present time there are four unions of millworkers in Bombay, viz. :— (1) The Bombay Textile Labour Union, (2) The Bombay Girmi Kamgar Union, (3) The Bombay Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal, and (4) The Bombay Millworkers' Union. But it cannot be said that the workpeople themselves are really adequately or fully organized. The bulk of the operatives take little or no interest in the affairs of the unions, which are largely controlled by outsiders, though the provisions of the Trade Unions Act regarding the percentage of workers holding official positions are nominally complied with. In many cases these outsiders make a business of promoting and running trade unions connected with all manner of industries, and possess little or no knowledge of the cotton textile industry. Until the workers themselves take a more active part in controlling the policy and working of the unions the trade union movement in Bombay is not likely to be as effective in promoting the welfare of the workpeople as it is in other countries. Some of the defects in the workers' organizations will be apparent from a study of the findings of the Bombay Riot Enquiry Committee and the Court of Enquiry which recently investigated the causes of the recent strike in Bombay mills.

118. (i) From the answer to question 117 (i) it will be seen that the Millowners' Association has been of great assistance to the industry. One has only to turn to the part played by the association in getting the Excise Duty removed, and in obtaining for the industry some relief by the passage of the Yarn Bill and the consistent efforts made to secure a full measure of protection, to appreciate the nature of the service

rendered to the industry by the association. The association has now been in existence for over half a century and is recognized as being the most influential of employers' organizations in India to-day.

The association's efforts towards the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes between its members and the various trade unions which resulted in the formulation of the Mediation Rules embodied in the Fawcett Committee's report is another instance of the manner in which the association looks after the interests of the industry and adjusts its policy from time to time.

The effects of the recent activities of certain trade unions on the industry and those whom it employs have not at all been happy. Owing to a series of wanton strikes the savings of the workpeople have been dissipated and their material condition has been very adversely affected. At the same time heavy losses have been inflicted on the industry at a period when the co-operation of labour might have materially assisted the industry in tiding over its difficulties. It is obvious that a new spirit altogether must pervade the trade union movement in the future if the relations between labour and capital are to be placed on a sound footing and the interests of both the employers and the workers are to be protected.

(ii) The attitude of the association towards the operatives has been consistently fair and reasonable. Legislation for the betterment of conditions has been sympathetically considered and the progress towards better conditions of work has, on the whole, been assisted very materially by the existence of the association.

119. (i) Little, if any, active support, but plenty of lip service, has been given by trade unions to activities similar to those enumerated in the question. What has been done has been done by employers and not by trade unions, and the cost of all general welfare schemes which have been introduced has had to be borne entirely by the employers. It is, of course, recognized by the association that trade unionism in India is more or less in its infancy, and cannot be expected to accomplish work comparable with that done by trade unions in other countries. But, speaking generally, it may be said that hitherto it has not been wisely guided. The association would welcome the development of a strong union working on sound trade union lines, and would be prepared to foster its growth and co-operate whole-heartedly, with such a union provided that it realizes its responsibilities to the workers and to the industry.

120. (i) The Trade Union movement in Bombay had its origin in the general unrest that prevailed as an aftermath of the world war. The first serious general strike took place in January, 1919, attended by lawlessness and rioting. A settlement was ultimately brought about after a fortnight through the intervention of the then Governor, Sir George Lloyd. Those who were advising the men during this strike were not in close touch with the men and they had never been connected with the industry, and had little or no control over the men whom they were supposed to lead.

About this time two of the largest groups of mill companies (those managed by Messrs. Currimbhoys and Messrs. Tatas) entrusted the carrying out of welfare work in their mills to the Social Service League under the supervision of Mr. N. M. Joshi. Such welfare work comprised various activities like credit societies, grain shops, reading-rooms, schools, sports, medical relief, maternity and sickness benefits and crèches. This gave an opportunity to Mr. Joshi and his co-workers to come into close contact with the operatives and enabled them to turn their attention to various labour problems. When in the beginning of 1920, another general strike took place which lasted for a full month, a committee called the Labour Settlement League was formed with which was associated the late Sir Narayan Chandavarkar. Unfortunately some of the members of this committee took up an irreconcilable attitude which caused other members of the league to resign. During this strike also the men had ceased work without making any representations or formulating any grievances. This strike, like the one preceding it, was also settled after His Excellency the Governor had intervened in the matter. There was at that time no organization of labourers but outsiders intervened on behalf of the workpeople only after a strike had taken place. No attempt was made to organize labour on sound trade union lines.

During the following three years no strikes took place and nothing was heard about the Labour League or other organizations which had sprung up during the previous strikes. At the end of 1923, however, another dispute arose when no bonus was paid to the operatives for that year, as in previous years, owing to the fact that mills had been working at a loss and the days of high profits had definitely vanished. This led to a strike at the end of January, 1924, which terminated after a period of six weeks, when the matter was decided in favour of the employers by the Macleod Committee. About this time, the Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal (Chinchpokli Mandal) was formed. This mandal or union had only 182 members, as shown in the register on 1st March, 1928. According to the constitution of this mandal, no outsiders were admitted as members of its executive, which was confined to mill

workers only. The Millowners' Association did not even object to outsiders being elected as officials of trade unions and, in a letter to Government, even went so far as to say that it would be advisable, during the earlier years of the trade union movement, to form trade unions on proper lines, and the following remarks made by the chairman of the association at the Annual General Meeting, in February, 1925, will be found interesting in this connection :—

" We have never objected to outsiders interesting themselves in the trade union movement and helping our workers to form unions on right lines. We realize our workmen are incapable of forming unions unaided, and require the guiding hand of disinterested workers, but that by no means signifies that every political busybody should be encouraged to take a hand in inciting strikes. It is unfortunate for the cause of labour that some people should be determined to import into every question connected with our workers, the idea that capital and labour are hostile to one another and that the interests of the one are necessarily opposed to those of the other. Such an attitude is bound to come in the way of the healthy growth of a genuine labour movement in India. I hope such persons will realize in time that mutual good-will is essential for the furtherance of the objects which they themselves profess to have at heart and that capital and labour are natural friends and not enemies. Blind attacks on capital can lead us nowhere."

Subsequently in August, 1925, another union called the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal (Parbhadevi Mandal) was formed on the same lines as the existing mandal and in co-operation with it. Mr. A. A. Aive was appointed president and Mr. D. R. Mayekar secretary of the Parbhadevi Mandal whilst M. D. A. Bhatavedekar became the president of the Chinchpokli Mandal. The Parbhadevi Mandal had a membership of 1,270 on 1st March, 1928. The formation of the Parbhadevi Mandal coincided with another prolonged strike which commenced in the middle of September, 1925, and continued for 2½ months. The strike terminated when the proposed wage cut of 11½ per cent. was restored on the abolition of the Excise Duty on 1st December, 1925. After the strike ended, another mandal (Ghorupdeo) was started in December, 1925, and had 570 members on 1st March, 1928. All these were small unions and were not properly organized. It was in January, 1926, that a union with an executive composed entirely of outsiders under the presidentship of Mr. N. M. Joshi was formed with Mr. R. K. Bakhale of the Servants' of India Society as its general secretary. This union had a membership of 8,234 members on 1st March, 1928, and was the first union to be registered under the Trade Unions Act, the registration being effected on 23rd December, 1927. One of the vice-presidents of this union, Mr. S. H. Jhabwala, formed another union called the Bombay Millworkers' Union in March, 1928, with 300 members as a counter-move to Mr. Joshi's union because the executive of the latter did not call a general strike as desired by Mr. Jhabwala early in 1928. While labour was being organized during the years 1925, 1926, and 1927, the position of the industry went from bad to worse and the Textile Tariff Board was appointed by Government on June 10th, 1926, to enquire into the condition of the industry. Evidence was tendered before the board by various bodies including labour unions and others interested in the labour movement and the board issued its report in January, 1927, and this was published by Government in June. One of the important findings of the board was that, as stated on page 208, " By far the greatest disability in costs of manufacture from which Bombay suffers in comparison with Ahmedabad and other up-country centres is in its high costs of labour." The board therefore recommended (p. 209) that, " The only alternative to a reduction in wages in the Bombay mill industry is increased labour efficiency and it is in this direction that the true line of advance lies." They also made definite recommendations for improving the efficiency of workers and reducing labour charges. An attempt was made to put some of the reforms into practice gradually, and this led to unrest amongst the workers of certain mills. Co-operation on the part of the unions to help forward these reforms was wanting. A little later, the Workers' and Peasants' Party was organised, which the *Labour Gazette* for October, 1928, has characterized " a Communist organization." Its members, though not connected with any of the unions that existed before 1928, " began," as is stated on page 3 of the Fawcett Committee's report, " to take an active interest in the strikes during the earlier part of the year." The communist leaders of the Workers' and Peasants' Party saw their opportunity in the unrest due to the introduction of reforms and when trouble began in the mills under the agency of Messrs. Currimbhoys, they co-operated with the Bombay Millworkers' Union which, as stated above, was formed by Mr. Jhabwala, a member of the Workers' and Peasants' Party. They also succeeded in getting the help of Mr. Aive's union, the Parbhadevi Mandal. At first, the Bombay Textile Labour Union held aloof from this movement, as also Mr. Mayekar, the secretary of the Parbhadevi Mandal. On 18th April, 1928, a strike committee was formed composed of the managing committee of the Millworkers' Union and the Parbhadevi Mandal together with Messrs. Bradley, Nimbkar, Dange, and Mirajkar of the Workers' and Peasants' Party.

An "Inner Council" was formed consisting of Messrs. Alve, Nimbkar, Dange, Mirajkar, Ghate and Jhabwala. The Bombay Textile Labour Union appointed its own strike committee consisting of 11 members to formulate the grievances for the men who had already gone on strike. Suggestions were made that a combined strike committee should be formed, but no agreement was possible at first as Mr. N. M. Joshi insisted on a representation proportionate to the average paying membership of each union which would, of course, have given his own union a preponderating voice, and would have excluded the representatives of the Workers' and Peasants' Party, which was not a union of textile workers. About the end of April, His Excellency the Governor of Bombay had an interview with the representatives of the Millowners' Association who assured His Excellency that they were prepared to negotiate with registered trade unions. This move, it was supposed, would strengthen the hands of the executive of the Bombay Textile Labour Union which was the only organized registered trade union in Bombay. This opportunity to enter into negotiations direct with the Millowners' Association, leaving alone the communist element that was attempting to capture the trade union movement, was not grasped by the Bombay Textile Labour Union. Instead the executive of the union effected a compromise with the Communist extremists, and on May 2nd, a joint strike committee was constituted which consisted of 30 members, of which half were members of the Bombay Textile Labour Union and half were members of the Workers' and Peasants' Party. This compromise was unfortunate and opposed to the true interests of the trade union movement in India. It was a step in marked contrast to the measures adopted by trade unionists in England to keep out the communist element from the genuine trade union movement. Mr. Mayekar, the secretary of the Parbhadevi Mandal, rather than join hands with the communist element, elected a new managing committee for a combined union of the three mandals called the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal, and this union was registered on 21st May, 1928. Thereupon Mr. Alve formed a new union under the name of the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union, which soon became notorious as the Red Flag Union, with himself as president and Messrs. Jhabwala, Bradley, and Nimbkar as vice-presidents, and Dange as general secretary. This union was registered on 23rd May, 1928. It was the joint strike committee referred to above which represented the workers before the Fawcett Committee. The membership of the Red Flag Union, owing to its militant tactics and constant propaganda spreading disaffection amongst the men, rose very quickly and thousands were enrolled as members. This union overshadowed and controlled the labour movement in Bombay, mostly through terrorist tactics.

On March 20th, 1929, many of the leaders of the Girni Kamgar Union were arrested on a charge of conspiracy to deprive His Majesty the King of the sovereignty of British India, and on various other charges and new leaders were appointed who persisted in the policy laid down by the previous leaders, and called a general strike in April. The Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal considered such a strike unwarranted, and advised their members to remain at work. But in spite of this opposition and the conciliatory attitude of the Millowners' Association, the strike was persisted in, and the industry was seriously crippled for a period of five months. The strike was condemned at its outset by the British Trade Union Congress who stated that the Girni Kamgar Union was a communist organization. The unjustifiable character of the strike and the methods of the Girni Kamgar Union have been condemned in most emphatic terms by the Court of Enquiry and the Bombay Riots Enquiry Committee. The Riots Enquiry Committee held that the basic cause of the riots in February was due to the activities of the Red Flag Union leaders. Referring to the speeches made by the leaders of the union, the committee state: "The Red Flag Union leaders, moreover, were not merely making speeches, but they were also training and drilling Red Flag volunteers, and inciting the workers to take the law into their own hands." They were also of the opinion that the speeches made by leaders of the Red Flag Union were of an inflammatory and intimidating character, and they showed that the intention of the leaders of the union was to get the whole industry under their control, not merely to obtain certain pecuniary advantages for the labourers. The committee go on to observe "that the leaders were quite reckless and that their violent speeches found their expression in the differences of the two communities instead of in class hatred."

In the report published by Government setting forth the proceedings and findings of the Court of Enquiry, it is stated that "the leaders adopted an unconstitutional method of converting the mill committees from advisory into executive committees, . . . encouraged antagonism between the workers and the millowners . . . caused several lightning strikes without just cause prior to the declaration of the general strike for the purpose of fomenting unrest preparatory to the general strike which they had contemplated in October, 1928, and which they brought about at the stipulated time . . . the blame lies wholly at the door of the officials of the

union for the state of affairs which prevailed during the months of March and April resulting in the general strike . . . , and that the avowed object of the Girni Kamgar Union appears to be the destruction of capitalism." It was also held that its members violated one of the fundamental principles of trades union in calling a strike at the Wadia group of mills in violation of an express agreement. It is further stated that the mill workers of Bombay were misguided by the Girni Kamgar Union officials, that they were responsible for the improper propaganda which resulted in a misrepresentation of the Fawcett Committee's findings; and that the aggressive and mischievous propaganda and inflammatory appeals made by them to the workers was one of the main causes of the prolongation of the strike.

In his evidence before the Court, the Commissioner of Police stated that his experience in the past had been that the doctrines which the leaders of the Girni Kamgar Union preached were the sort of doctrines which lead to riots and murder, a view with which the Court apparently agreed.

The findings of the two committees, which have been briefly referred to above, amply prove the disastrous effects on the industry, the genuine trade union movement and the general life of the city which have followed owing to the baleful influence of the Girni Kamgar Union in the trade union movement. The growth of the trade union movement in India has already suffered considerably owing to its control by communist leaders who are mainly concerned in drilling men to strike on any flimsy pretext and the urgent need of the hour is to organize labour in Bombay on genuine trade union lines, with the help, if necessary, of an expert adviser from England as is recommended by the Fawcett Committee.

(ii) Labour in Bombay is generally apathetic in its attitude to trade unions, and the greatest difficulty has always been found in getting Bombay millworkers to pay union subscriptions during times of peace. Since October last year, it may be argued that the position has changed, for the Labour Office figures show that, at one time, The Girni Kamgar Union had 70,000 members. It is, however, extremely doubtful whether even the Girni Kamgar Union has ever had on its books anything like this number of members paying subscriptions regularly and it is still more doubtful whether most of the subscriptions were paid voluntarily.

121. (iii) In the Association's opinion, the Trade Unions Act, 1926, is in urgent need of amendment for the reason that, at present, it does not ensure that the unions registered under the Act follow recognized trade union methods; but merely protects, and that inadequately, the individual members of the union from being cheated by the executive of the union.

At present, although it is generally recognized that the Girni Kamgar Union has violated the fundamental principles of trade unionism and has adopted an unconstitutional method of converting its mill committees from advisory into executive committees, and has been found guilty of various other serious counts (see answer to question 120), it has so far escaped cancellation of its registration.

Among the amendments which the Association considers to be advisable are:—

(i) That it should be enacted that every registered trade union's rules should contain provisions for the conduct of negotiations both before and during the progress of strikes.

(ii) That picketing at or near a workman's house should be made illegal.

(iii) That picketing should cease when any dispute has been referred to a court or a board, or to any other independent tribunal set up by Government. (See answer to question 125.)

(iv) That the representation of workers in the managing committee of a union should be increased from one-half to two-thirds.

(v) That no person who has been found guilty of and has undergone imprisonment for an offence involving moral turpitude should be permitted to be on the executive of the union.

(vi) That minutes of proceedings of all meetings of the managing committee, or any other committee with executive powers, should be kept, and should be available for inspection by the registrar.

(vii) That it should be possible for the registrar to call for books of account of a union at any time for scrutiny.

(viii) That the grounds mentioned in the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1908, for declaring an association to be illegal should entitle the registrar to cancel registration of a union.

(ix) That proper registers of members of a union should be kept.

(x) That where it is clearly established that a union has brought about a strike without a genuine trade dispute, as contemplated by the Act, action may be taken against the union for cancellation of its registration.

122. (i) The individual workman has always been at liberty to approach his employer through the head of his department and present his grievances and this facility, until recently, was fully used. In a number of mills experiments were made some years ago in the direction of joint committees, but owing to lack of interest on the part of the workpeople themselves, these had to be discontinued.

It has been indicated above as to what used to be the procedure for bringing their grievances to the management by the men personally; but, of late there has been a distinct change inasmuch as the men having a grievance to represent, instead of approaching the management, report it to a union representative inside the mill, or to a member of the newly-constituted mill committees, who take it upon themselves, without even so much as a reference in many cases to the executive of their union, to decide the manner in which the alleged grievance is to be settled, failing a compliance with which by the management, there is no hesitation in declaring a strike without waiting to take any further steps for a possible settlement of the dispute. Volumes of evidence could be produced to show the detrimental effects upon discipline and efficiency which have followed from the unconstitutional activities of these self-appointed mill committees. A perusal of paragraphs 28-38 of the Report of the Court of Enquiry will convince the Commission of the impossibility of permitting such mill committees to continue, if the cotton mill industry is to survive. These mill committees are modelled on the factory "Soviets" which, until recently, functioned in Russia, but it should be noted that according to Reuter's telegram dated 10th September, 1929 (quoted below), mill committees will not, in future, be allowed to interfere in the management, and that personal management has now been restored.

"In order to restore discipline among workers and to raise the output of factories, the Soviet authorities have decided to invest one person only, namely the director, with full power and responsibility. His orders will be absolutely binding on the workers, who henceforth will not be allowed to interfere in the management. All organizations must ensure that 'the one-man-management principle' shall be carried out.

"It is hoped that this will cause an industrial recovery."

The Association maintains that the direct presentation of grievances by workpeople to the management should be the first step in the investigation and the possible settlement of any grievances that a worker may have. If the worker believes that his complaint has not been fairly dealt with, the union, on his behalf, should take the matter up with the managing agents. If, even then, no satisfactory arrangement is arrived at, the mediation rules provide the means for further investigation. Provision of adequate investigation of grievances is furnished in the Standing Orders drafted by the Fawcett Committee, and particular attention is drawn to Orders Nos. 3 and 21 in this connection.

(ii) The result of the attempts at co-operation between employers and their workpeople to increase efficiency in so far as the mill industry of Bombay is concerned have been somewhat disappointing. The chief reason for this has been the narrow angle of vision of labour and its present leaders, e.g., the principles of standardization and rationalization have been supported by the representatives of labour before the Fawcett Committee, but when put into practice, or when an attempt was made to put them into operation, these very same labour leaders have actively thwarted their introduction, done nothing to put the schemes before the workpeople in their true perspective, and have on many occasions grossly misrepresented their effects on wages and working conditions.

123. (i) and (ii) A record of the recent strikes in the Bombay mill industry during the last few years has been maintained by the Labour Office. The method of obtaining the information, however, does not appear to be satisfactory, and for the last year the record is by no means complete or accurate.

(iii) As regards the nature and method of settlement, strikes in individual mills have usually been settled by direct negotiations. In the case of general strikes, it may be stated that the strike of 1924 was brought to an end by the report of the Macleod Committee. The general strike of 1925 terminated when the owners gave up the contemplated cut in wages owing to the suspension of the excise duty. The general strike of 1928, on the other hand, came to an end when the Fawcett Committee was appointed by mutual agreement between the parties; and the 1929 strike collapsed. The appointment of the Court of Enquiry in this instance did not bring about a resumption of work.

During the last 12 months, a number of strikes have been called for political and other reasons unconnected with any economic grievances of workpeople (see statement attached: Appendix 5) by the leaders of the Girmi Kamgar Union for the furtherance of aims entirely unconnected with the welfare of labour, for the purpose of fomenting unrest and antagonizing workers against their employers (*vide* paragraph 72 of the Report of the Court of Enquiry).

(iv) No exact estimate of the losses which have been sustained by the industry and the workpeople owing to the strikes of the last 18 months can be made. But the loss in wages alone during the last 18 months has been considerably more than Rs. 8,50,00,000, and the loss in working days has exceeded 27,000,000. A considerable portion of the enormous losses sustained by the industry during this period can also be attributed to the strikes that have taken place during this period.

The association is not in a position to give exact information in respect of the loss sustained by the industry as a whole, but it is possible to arrive at a fairly correct estimate. It may be said that excluding the loss of profits, the loss to the industry in standing and other charges due to the prolonged labour troubles during the last 18 months amount approximately to Rs. 1,30,00,000.

124. *Conciliation and Arbitration Machinery*—(i) *Results of previous investigations*.—Copies of the reports issued by the Macleod and Fawcett Committees, and the Court of Enquiry of 1929 are enclosed. (Enclosures) "D", "E" and "F".\*

(ii) *Part played by official or non-official conciliators in settling disputes*.—See answer to question 120 (i).

(iii) No use, as far as the association is aware, has been made by either employers or employees in the Bombay cotton textile industry, of the Employers' and Workers' Disputes Act, 1860.

(iv) During the proceedings of the Fawcett Committee of Enquiry, the association submitted a scheme for the investigation of disputes in the industry by joint negotiations. The machinery proposed was agreed to by both parties, but has not yet been utilized owing to the failure of the employees to nominate their panels. These mediation rules will be found in Appendix XI, page 241 of the Fawcett Committee's report. They were discussed at several joint meetings, after the publication of the report, and during these discussions it was maintained by the association that a written agreement should be entered into, and that it would be advisable to insert an explanatory note providing that the notice referred to in the mediation rules should mean a notice of not less than 14 days. A copy of the draft agreement proposed by the association at the joint meeting held with the employees' representatives after the publication of the report is given below :—

"On behalf of the textile trade unions of Bombay, we hereby agree that to the Mediation Rules as published, should be added an explanatory note as follows : 'That the notice referred to in Rule 1, sub-clauses (i), (ii) and (iii) shall mean a notice of not less than 14 days, and that the words 'special proviso if only one union' at the commencement of clause 4 as printed on page 242 of the Fawcett Committee report, should be deleted, being obviously a printer's error.'

"Subject to these alterations, we agree to the immediate introduction of the Mediation Rules and will use every endeavour to prevent and discountenance any strike of operatives which has not been preceded by the notice herein agreed to."

The intention of the association was to make it clear that notice must be given before declaring a strike. This point was discussed at great length before the Fawcett Committee. It was held that this period depended upon the contract of service, and under existing conditions a month's notice has to be given. As, however, it was agreed by both sides to reduce the period of notice to be given both by employers and employees to a fortnight, a fortnight's notice would be ample. In paragraph 99 of the report it is held that it is wrong to assume that sub-section (1) of section 18 of the Indian Trade Unions Act protects the individual worker when he goes on strike without giving notice. Paragraphs 99-101 make the point quite clear. The committee also give an excellent reason why such a notice should be given, and in paragraph 81 they say "Among other things, this period (14 days) will have the advantage of ordinarily allowing a sufficient time for discussion which may settle disputes between the operatives and the mill management, and thus avoid strikes and lockouts."

The association feels that the utility of the mediation rules would be greatly increased if the provision regarding notice was definitely accepted by labour.

(v) *Opportunity afforded to Workpeople of making Representations*.—See answer to question 122 (i) above.

(vi) *Applicability to Indian Conditions of Industrial Courts, Trade Boards, Joint Industrial Councils*.—Detailed consideration has not been given by the association to the applicability or advisability of industrial courts, trade boards or joint industrial councils, but it would seem that a valuable aid to the introduction of any one of these would be the acceptance and application by labour of the joint mediation machinery laid down in the Fawcett Committee report.

125. The Trade Disputes Act is somewhat unsatisfactory since it makes no provision for the investigation of disputes between employers' associations and trade unions. Its utility is further impaired by reason of the fact that the findings of a court of enquiry or a board of conciliation are likely to be ignored if unfavourable to labour, owing to their inadequate organization and the lack of a sense of responsibility amongst certain trade union leaders. In two other important respects, the Act is defective, since it does not contain provisions for any restrictions on picketing after the inauguration of a court of enquiry or a board of conciliation. In these connections, certain suggestions were made when the Bill was framed. Extracts from the association's representation on the subject dated 7th January, 1929, are given below :—

" *Paragraph 5.*—In one particular, namely, picketing, my association considers the proposed legislation falls short of the present requirements in India. The absence of any special provisions regarding picketing, is probably accounted for by the fact that the Hon. Member for Industries and Labour recently stated that, in the opinion of the Government of India, the law against picketing in India is ample to prevent intimidation and that it is more severe than the corresponding law in the United Kingdom. My association holds a contrary view and desires to stress the necessity for the introduction of restrictions regarding picketing at or near a workman's house similar to those in the United Kingdom. My association also maintains that the Bill should contain provisions for the restriction of picketing of any kind whatsoever after the inauguration of either a court of enquiry or a board of conciliation for the reasons given below :—

" In 1924 when the Trade Union Registration Bill was on the anvil in the Assembly, my association made the following observations on the question of picketing : "Another matter on which my committee most emphatically differ from Government is the question of picketing. My committee are utterly at a loss to understand how Government could have been led into making the somewhat amazing statement that 'the experience of the last few years has not revealed any urgent necessity for imposing a greater restriction on picketing.' The acts of violence that took place during the last big mill strike in Bombay, resulting in very heavy loss to property, are a sufficient refutation of the above-quoted statement of Government. . . . "

" *Paragraph 7.*—Another important point which the Government of India apparently overlooked when framing the Bill is the necessity for measures to ensure that a court of enquiry shall report upon the facts brought before it within a reasonable space of time. Such a provision is especially necessary since the Bill makes no provision for the return to work upon the establishment of either a board of conciliation or a court of enquiry. My association holds that its utility will be vastly increased if the time within which the court of enquiry should submit its report were laid down in its terms of reference when appointed. Similarly, in respect of boards of conciliation, my association considers it advisable that any adjournment of the proceedings as indicated in clause 7 should be limited to a period of 14 days. At the end of that period the Board could again meet to receive reports as to the progress of direct negotiations, and if necessary, a further adjournment could be allowed. Such a procedure would, in the opinion of the association, tend to speed up a settlement by providing opportunities for the Board to use its good offices to overcome deadlocks likely to arise at critical stages."

The need for some further restriction on picketing as at present practised when a strike takes place in Bombay is given additional weight from the findings of the court of enquiry, who held that "picketing and intimidation by the strikers and acts of violence committed by them on non-strikers was one of the main causes of the prolongation of the strike." In paragraph 77 of the court's report, it is stated :—

" 77. There is no doubt that intimidation and acts of violence by the strikers have been an important factor in the prolongation of the strike. Mr. Kelly, the Commissioner of Police, has given evidence before us to prove that intimidation has been carried on by the strikers to a considerable extent both in the chawls and on the roads, and that picketing has by no means been peaceful. The order issued by the chief presidency magistrate under Section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code has been extended by Government indefinitely in consequence of the strike situation. Mr. Kelly himself has issued an order under the Bombay City Police Act prohibiting meetings of the Girmi Kamgar Union. To a question put to him by Mr. Deshpande, as to the reasons for his order, he replied 'because my experience in the past has been that the doctrines which the leaders of the Girmi Kamgar Union preach are the sort of doctrines which lead to riot and murder.' Evidence has been led of several specific instances of intimidation and assaults on the workers, and the measures taken by the millowners to avoid molestation of their workers by temporarily housing several of them in mill compounds and by providing escorts.



Mr. Bakhale also has deposed to the members of his union working in the Madanpura mills having complained to him that they were afraid of going to the mills, because they would be assaulted."

Under the present law, peaceful picketing is permissible, but as the association has stated on more than one occasion to Government, in India, this so-called peaceful picketing in almost all cases degenerates into active intimidation, though it is difficult to prove this in a court of law, owing to the fear which exists in the minds of persons intimidated that they would be marked out for further molestation.

In the report of the Bombay riots enquiry committee, it is definitely stated that "the Red Flag Union volunteers helped to intimidate loyal workers. The evidence shows that one at least of the Red Flag Union leaders incited his picketers to intimidate and abuse those who wanted to work at the oil installations." Intimidation has now been made a cognizable offence, but it is somewhat doubtful whether this will effectively put a stop to the evil effects of picketing at the residence of workpeople where intimidation could still be practised on a large scale without coming to the actual notice of the police.

#### XVIII.—Administration.

133. The association is of the opinion that legislation affecting industrial labour should be of an all-India character as far as possible. This salutary principle has been departed from on several occasions during recent years, and a recent example is furnished by the Bombay Maternity Benefits Act.

138. Every reasonable precaution has been taken to acquaint workpeople with the main provisions of factory legislation through the medium of vernacular translations posted in prominent places in mills.

139. (i) and (iii) Factory inspection is, on the whole, very effectively carried out in Bombay. The staff of the inspection department appears to be adequate for ordinary inspection work, but it is somewhat doubtful whether it is sufficient to enable it to undertake industrial research work of the kind which has been undertaken in western countries.

(iv) Very few prosecutions of Bombay mills have taken place during the last few years for the reason that the Act and the rules under the Act are usually very strictly adhered to.

143. The statistics collected from the mill industry of Bombay by the labour office, the factory inspection department, the Government of Bombay, the Government of India, the millowners' association, and the statistics collected during the recent investigations of the Fawcett Committee and the tariff board, are probably more complete than the statistics collected from any other industry in the world in a corresponding period.

The collection of these statistics has chiefly been of a voluntary character, and this has resulted in fuller information than would otherwise have been possible.

A great personal interest has been evinced in the compilation of information by the managements of the cotton mills in Bombay, and this accumulated information relating to the industry as a whole has been utilized to the fullest extent possible.

## APPENDIX I.

Comparative Statement of Wages per month (excluding Annual Bonus).

	Standard Muster 1st April 1913.	Standard Muster 1st Jan. 1918. including 15 Per cent.	Standard Muster 1st Jan. 1919. including 35 Per cent.	Standard Muster 1st Feb. 1920. including 55 and 75 Per cent.	Standard Muster 1st Nov. 1920. including 70 and 80 Per cent.	Standard Muster 1st May 1921. including 70 and 80 Per cent.	Standard Muster 1st April 1923. including 70 and 80 Per cent.	April 1928.	April 1929.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Blow Room Tenters .. .. .	14 0 0 (100)	17 4 0 (123)	20 4 0 (144)	23 4 0 (166)	25 8 0 (181)	25 8 0 (181)	29 0 0 (207)	Same as	April 1923.
Card Room .. .. .	11 8 0 (100)	15 0 0 (130)	17 8 0 (152)	20 0 0 (173)	22 0 0 (191)	23 12 0 (206)	27 4 0 (237)	Do.	
Speed Frame .. .. .	19 9 0 (100)	24 0 0 (122)	28 8 0 (145)	36 12 0 (187)	37 12 0 (193)	37 12 0 (193)	37 12 0 (193)	Do.	
Ring Frame Siders .. .. .	15 0 0 (100)	20 0 0 (134)	23 8 0 (157)	27 0 0 (181)	29 12 0 (199)	29 12 0 (199)	29 12 0 (199)	Do.	
Winders .. .. .	12 8 0 (100)	14 8 0 (116)	16 12 0 (134)	19 4 0 (154)	21 4 0 (170)	21 4 0 (170)	21 4 0 (170)	Do.	
Weavers .. .. .	22 0 0 (100)	27 8 0 (125)	32 0 0 (145)	41 8 0 (189)	42 12 0 (194)	47 12 0 (217)	47 12 0 (217)	Do.	

APPENDIX II.

Statement Showing the Profits or Losses made by the Bombay Cotton Mills, Depreciation on Machinery and Buildings, and Wages paid to millhands, etc.

* Year.	Profit or Loss with deductions for depreciation actually allowed	Net Profit or Loss after al- lowing for full depreciation.	Mill Labour.		No. of Mills.	Remarks.
			Wages.	Salaries.		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1917 .. .. .	3,02,06,860	3,14,00,946	2,36,22,571	26,24,730	63	
*1918 .. .. .	2,28,07,546	2,35,79,682	3,37,26,230	37,47,358	64	Strike for 1 week.
*1919 .. .. .	6,15,66,648	6,74,43,641	3,63,66,356	40,40,706	67	" " 1 month.
*1920 .. .. .	10,10,63,174	10,46,80,322	5,94,12,501	66,01,389	80	" " 1 ..
*1921 .. .. .	8,46,44,605	8,81,49,765	6,65,49,447	73,94,382	80	
*1922 .. .. .	3,87,51,591	3,57,98,890	6,94,29,915	77,14,435	80	
1923 .. .. .	33,12,933	1,22,13,117	5,76,03,297	64,00,366	81	
1924 .. .. .	91,69,863	2,42,77,106	5,45,55,046	66,88,010	79	Strike for 2 months.
1925 .. .. .	1,33,64,654	2,87,64,573	4,92,11,146	64,17,580	79	" " 2½ "
1926 .. .. .	50,24,463	1,92,94,273	5,94,25,527	62,09,737	77	
1927 .. .. .	95,06,248	11,53,028	6,12,58,455	61,06,258	75	

Note.—The figures in black type show losses.

\* Bonus years.

## APPENDIX III.

## STATEMENT OF BONUS PAID BY BOMBAY MILLS

Year.	Bonus Paid.	No. of Mills.
	Rs.	
1919 .. .. .	16,09,976	66
1920 .. .. .	30,41,841	77
1921 .. .. .	41,72,348	77
1922 .. .. .	47,59,950	77
1923 .. .. .	48,58,124	75

**APPENDIX 4**  
**COTTON MILL INDUSTRY OF BOMBAY CITY AND ISLAND.**  
**(FIGURES TAKEN FROM THE ASSOCIATION'S MILL STATEMENT FOR 1928.)**

Share Capital Paid-up.		Total Number of Spindles and Looms Installed.			
All Bombay Mills.	Mills affiliated to the Millowners' Association	All Bombay Mills.		Mills affiliated to the Millowners' Association.	
		Spindles.	Looms.	Spindles.	Looms.
Rs. 19,08,08,360	Rs. 17,67,98,670	3,451,176	74,825	3,123,054 or 90 per cent.	67,578 or 90 per cent.

APPENDIX 4—(contd.)

LIST OF UP-COUNTRY MEMBERS.

Name of Mill.	Situation.	Capital Paid up.	Number of Spindles installed.	Number of Looms installed.
1. Bengal Luxmi Cotton Mills, Ltd.	Maresh, Serampore District, Hooghly, Bengal.	Rs. 17,78,200	35,124	724
2. Bengal Nagpur Cotton Mills, Ltd.	Raj-Nandgaon, C.P.	12,00,000	31,652	625
3. Berar Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	Badnera .. .. .	5,50,000	19,908	369
4. Bhagirath Spg., Wvg. and Mfg. Co., Ltd.	Jalgaon .. .. .	20,10,200	7,200	200
5. Birla Cotton Spg. and Wvg. Mills Co., Ltd.	Subzimundi, Delhi .. .. .	13,75,000	17,920	493
6. Burhanpur-Tapti Mill, Ltd.	Burhanpur .. .. .	12,00,000	24,240	497
7. Central India Spg., Wvg. and Mfg. Co., Ltd.	Nagpur .. .. .	96,87,500	1,00,352	2,220
8. Ceylon Spg. and Wvg. Co., Ltd.	Colombo .. .. .	11,95,125	16,380	538
9. Coimbatore Spg. and Wvg. Co., Ltd.	Coimbatore .. .. .	12,00,000	57,832	302
10. David Mills (No. 2)	Hathras City (Branch of David Mills Ltd. of Bombay.)	39,04,700	71,944	—
11. Gokak Mills, Ltd.	Gokak Falls, Belgaum District.	7,00,000	17,520	275
12. Hyderabad (Deccan) Spg. and Wvg. Co., Ltd.	Hyderabad .. .. .	20,00,000	46,274	1,293
13. Indore-Malwa United Mills, Ltd.	Indore, Malwa .. .. .	7,77,000	20,560	340
14. Jam Shri Ranjitsinghi Spg. and Wvg. Mills Co., Ltd.	Sholapur .. .. .	7,50,000	22,664	459
15. Kandeish Spg. and Wvg. Mills Co., Ltd.	Jalgaon .. .. .	16,00,000	45,792	851
16. Laxmi Cotton Mfg. Co., Ltd.	Sholapur .. .. .	5,00,500	39,804	460
17. Madras United Spg. and Wvg. Mills Co., Ltd.	Madras .. .. .	73,560	—	—
18. Madura Mills Co., Ltd. Tuticorin	Tuticorin .. .. .	70,58,550	2,19,036	—
19. Do. Madura	Madura .. .. .	43,076	—	—
20. Do. Ambasamudram	Ambasamudram .. .. .	11,59,126	9,968	—
21. Pandyan Mill Co., Ltd.	Madura .. .. .	5,93,000	28,864	395
22. Mahaboob Shahi Gulbarga Mills Co., Ltd.	Gulbarga, Deccan .. .. .	93,34,250	52,408	1,020
23. Model Mills, Nagpur, Ltd.	Nagpur .. .. .	12,50,000	39,400	500
24. Mysore Spg. and Mfg. Co., Ltd.	Malleshwaram, Bangalore City.	9,99,250	18,336	225
25. Pulgaon Cotton Spg., Wvg. and Mfg. Co., Ltd.	Pulgaon .. .. .	—	30,628	394
26. Rai Bahadur Bansilal Abeerchand Spg. and Wvg. Mill	Hinghunghat .. .. .	8,95,373	17,888	—
27. Ramchand Gursahaimal Cotton Mills Co., Ltd.	Lucknow .. .. .	8,00,000	1,11,360	2,209
28. Sholapur Spg. and Wvg. Co., Ltd.	Sholapur .. .. .	—	14,514	160
29. Shri Shahu Chatrapati Mills	Shahupuri, Kolhapur .. .. .	24,00,000	48,308	1,254
30. Vishnu Cotton Mill, Ltd.	Sholapur .. .. .			

## APPENDIX V.

*Summary of the Results of the various Strikes in the Bombay Cotton Mills from 6th October to 26th April, 1929.*

	No. of strikes in favour of employers.	No. of strikes in favour of workers.	No. of strikes compromised, unsettled or indecisive.	Total No. of strikes.
Information as per <i>Labour Gazette</i> .. .. .	36	35	15	86
Our information about these 86 strikes .. .. .	52	17	17	86
Strikes not reported in the <i>Labour Gazette</i> but reported to us ..	15	2	7	24
The correct position therefore is .. .. .	67	19	24	110

*Notes.*—In addition to the above strikes there were in all 103 strikes due to the following causes :—

- (1) Kidnapping scare.
- (2) Riots.
- (3) Simon Commission.
- (4) Lala Lajpatrai Day.

In all these strikes, work was resumed unconditionally.

## APPENDIX.

*Absenteeism in the Tata Mills.*

We send herewith a statement showing the average number of substitute weavers engaged in the weaving shed during the last six years. It will be noticed that during March, April, and May, and again during October and November, absenteeism is obtained to the greatest extent, and consequently the greatest number of substitutes are engaged during these months. We notice from our daily records that absenteeism is generally less during the first half of the month until the pay-day than during the latter half, and this fact may be attributed to the general tendency among the workmen to absent themselves immediately after the pay-day. From enquiries among the jobbers and the men, we learn that the greater extent of absenteeism during March/May is due to the Shimga holidays which come off during this period. Further, this time of the year is considered to be more auspicious than any other for weddings, and workmen are anxious to depart to their native places for this reason as well as for agricultural purposes before the setting in of the monsoon, and before the coastal traffic of steamships is suspended. Similarly, the greater extent of absenteeism during October and November may be attributed to the Divali holidays which come off during this period. Moreover, workmen, who have been held up by the suspension of the traffic of steamships during the rainy season, avail themselves of the resumption of the traffic and go to their native places. Sickness which is said to prevail to a greater extent immediately after the close of the rainy season is also one of the reasons why workmen remain absent during these months.

We have no statistics to show the exact reasons which lead to absenteeism ; but besides the reasons given above we may mention casual illness and the necessity to attend to personal affairs as being among the reasons for the workmen's absence.

In the spinning department we had formerly a system of "Double Badli," by means of which a sider was made to attend to the work of his absent neighbour, and was given an extra allowance of about 50 per cent. for the additional work. This system prevailed till July, 1925, when we abandoned it, and instead engaged a few hands to take the place of absent workmen. In December, 1928, we dispensed with the service of the spare hands, and adopted the system of engaging substitutes, as in the weaving shed. The substitutes are paid on the usual pay-day, and not paid off daily.

*Table showing (A) number of Looms worked and (B) number of substitute Weavers employed for each month.*

Year		A.	B.	Year		A.	B.		
1924.	January ..	1650	135	1926—contd.	September ..	1800	180		
	April ..	1670	130		October ..	1800	210		
	May ..	1670	120		November ..	1800	190		
	June ..	1670	100		December ..	1800	150		
	July ..	1670	115		1927.	January ..	1800	110	
	August ..	1670	160			February ..	1800	120	
	September ..	1670	250			March ..	1800	200	
	October ..	1670	280			April ..	1800	210	
	November ..	1670	235			May ..	1800	190	
	December ..	1700	170			June ..	1800	100	
	1925.	January ..	1740			140	July ..	1800	100
		February ..	1740			180	August ..	1800	120
March ..		1788	235	September ..		1800	150		
April ..		1790	200	October ..		1800	180		
May ..		1790	180	November ..		1800	180		
June ..		1700	155	December ..		1800	145		
July ..		1222	100	1928.	January ..	1800	120		
August ..		1222	135		February ..	1800	170		
September ..		1222	150		March ..	1800	200		
1926.	January ..	1600	90		April ..	1800	160		
	February ..	1600	130		November ..	1800	70		
	March ..	1600	155		December ..	1800	60		
	April ..	1700	235	1929.	January ..	1800	55		
	May ..	1750	200		February ..	1800	160		
	June ..	1750	125		March ..	1800	150		
	July ..	1750	100		April ..	1800	145		
	August ..	1800	130		October ..	1800	270		



## THE COMMITTEE OF THE INDIAN MERCHANTS' CHAMBER.

1. The Indian Merchants' Chamber is a body constituted of various trading, commercial and industrial interests. Several groups of its members are interested in particular trades and industries and either they themselves individually or in groups collectively will have their say with regard to the technical aspect of the questions set forward in the memorandum of the Royal Commission on Labour. They will also be concerned with the details asked for in some of the items of the memorandum.

The chamber itself will, therefore, answer the memorandum on general lines and will concern itself mostly with general broad principles without going into the details.

2. The chamber has generally supported proposals for the improvement of labour. In so far as the workers in factories and in large establishments constitute perhaps the most intelligent section of the masses, every suggestion for improving their physical condition, their surroundings, their conditions of work and generally for bringing about their amelioration, will receive the support of the committee.

3. My committee regret the emphasis which is being constantly put in imitation of the western world on the conflict between the interests of labour and capital. This emphasis, perhaps, does not do much harm in the west where various social and political forces balance themselves. But in India where the labour community is backward in education and is not apprised of its interests and rights, a general disturbance which does not aim at a concrete result, cannot but produce harm. As an illustration of this, my committee would like to point out the recent strike in Bombay, which extended beyond all reasonable period, and the price paid by labour and industry as a whole is beyond all hopes of redemption within a reasonable period of time.

4. My committee would like to see genuine trade unionism established in this country. The organization of unions, as the Commission will discover, is on defective lines at present. A trade union should receive regular contribution from its members and its affairs should be managed on the basis of such contributions by men of the working classes or by regular trade union officials. My committee do not object to assistance being rendered to trade unions, as at present in some cases, by individuals from outside the labouring classes, whose desire is to guide labour in securing its true interests, but they would prefer to see unions formed on proper lines and run by the men themselves. A true sense of responsibility would then dawn on the unions, which is unfortunately not the case at present.

5. My committee would urge on the Commission to enquire how is it that what is regarded in the west as the ultimate weapon in a class conflict, is called into existence in this country in the very first instance. The expedient of a strike is resorted to in countries where trade unionism has advanced on proper lines as a last resort. In India we have known of strikes taking place and of men going on strike, not knowing what it is all about. The formulation of grievances comes about in India after the strike has been declared. Consultations with the management take place after the strike and in an atmosphere in which both parties are losing and are excited and, therefore, in an atmosphere in which, whatever the outcome of the strike may be, a certain amount of bitterness and bad feeling is left. When a reasonable settlement is reached regarding the old grievances, the final point of contention usually is the question of wages during the strike period. Again and again in India the phenomenon of a lightning strike at the instance of a few people led away by sentiment is seen, and this sort of activity on the part of labour has had adverse effect on the progress of the industry. Sympathetic strikes, in the opinion of my committee, do not always disclose the strength of the labour feeling, but the weakness. The real bargaining power of labour arises from a true union amongst themselves and from responsibility towards industry, which finds means for the workers. This sense of responsibility unfortunately has not been evinced on all occasions. Allowance may, however, be made for the fact that the labour movement has been in its infancy in India, but my committee would like to see in future these defects remedied. Labour's claim for improvement would have a much stronger moral as well as material basis when they evince the same tender thought for the preservation and the progress of industry.

6. The result of recent tendency amongst labour, in Bombay at all events, has been a desire to do as little work as possible and to neglect duties assigned to them except where wages are on piece-rate basis. Even here while production is attended to, due care for machinery and plant is not to be seen. My committee understand that discipline which is essential in the efficient organization of the industry has been greatly disturbed. The result is that on the basis of ordinary costs of cotton and cloth, the textile industry should in Bombay to-day be well-off, but it is notorious that it is losing. The policy of labour in not checking inefficiency and neglect and in adopting an attitude which requires increased supervision, is suicidal as it is likely to kill the goose which lays the golden eggs.

7. The most important need of the labour classes in India is education. In spite of the very heavy increased load of taxes being levied on the country during the last twelve years both by the Central Government and by Provincial Governments, the popular demand for compulsory education has not been met. It is unfortunate that education is not made available even to the children of the limited number of industrial workers who are going to constitute the next generation of labour. This defect is likely to perpetuate the present condition and the present mentality of labour. As a result of all this there is room for criticism regarding lack of elementary notions of citizenship on the part of labour. People come from their village homes without any idea as to the requirements of city life in the matter of their own health or their own safety. They are liable to panic. The education, which the chamber would like to see imparted, not only to children but to adults working in factories, ought to comprise elementary hygiene and elementary citizenship. The next important improvement in the matter of the condition of the labouring classes is to teach them the value of money and how to spend it. My committee would like to point out that either singly or in unions the labouring classes do not receive full value for their money from the shops to which they resort. They are also prone to get into debt either to the shopkeepers or to petty moneylenders and the evils, from which they themselves ultimately suffer at the hands of usurious moneylenders, are notorious. The last, but the most important notion, which they lack and which it would be most essential to instil into them, is the value of savings. There are no benefit societies in India working on the western model, and provision for old age or for any social or for any other contingency is rare indeed. The savings of the working classes are generally invested in ornaments which fetch them no interest and which, when converted, generally show a deficit both on account of wear and tear, making charges and on account of the alloy which is mixed with the precious metal. A feature of the life of the working classes is the loss of their savings arising out of an open hospitality to all relations, kinsmen, village folk and caste men. Whenever men are unemployed for any reasons, or when they choose deliberately to stay away from employment, whether it is for a short period or for a long period, they go and live with their relations, kinsmen, or villagers either in the industrial centre or in the village home. While this is a very useful social phenomenon of insurance in the absence of elaborate and adequate provision against unemployment, it eats away the savings of the working classes as a whole and we have no counterpart in India to the enormous funds which trade unions, benefit societies, building societies and other co-operative bodies have in western countries to the credit of the working classes.

8. The other exploitation to which the working classes are exposed, is also the result of their ignorance of their rights and opportunities and that is at the hands of jobbers, who are men arisen from their own ranks. The full extent and evil of this exploitation, my committee trust, the Commission would be able to unravel in the course of their investigation and hope they will be able to institute some effective punitive machinery against the exactions to which men are subjected in this manner.

9. The progress of education, of health conditions and of the social surroundings in which the workmen live, is desirable not only in their own interests but also in the interests of the community generally, and it is essential that the rights which labour has so far secured by legislation and administrative enactments, should be clearly understood by them individually and they should know how to stand out for such rights in a businesslike manner, i.e., in a manner which will not detract from their own interests or which will not hurt the fountain of their income and the source of their employment, viz., the industries in which they are engaged.

10. The improvement of labour conditions, the increase of wages and the bringing up of labour in India on the same basis as labour in other countries, have been constantly discussed and rightly given a chief place in the programme of the working classes in this country. My committee wish to point out that such a programme is perfectly legitimate and laudable. They would, however, point out that the result of these efforts would not depend merely on the strength of the labour struggle against what are called the capitalist classes. The ultimate limit of all amelioration of conditions of work and life is set by the price which can be realized for an article. This price is regulated by the price at which the article can be imported (subject, of course, to import duties) and also by the price at which a rival concern is prepared to sell. Internal competition and foreign imports, therefore, determine the selling price. From this price the industry has necessarily to pay for the raw material. The cost of raw material, it must be recognized, have generally increased on account of the increased transport and other costs as well as increased taxation. The industry has further to pay for the capital costs of the buildings, machineries and of the equipments and for the depreciation of these in order that when they wear out they can be replaced. All industries have further to pay interest

charges on borrowed capital and these have also increased in recent years. They have to pay insurance as well as posts, telegraphs, telephone and other charges, which have shown a marked increase. After all these legitimate out-of-pockets, the residue, from which labour and capital can claim their respective shares, is restricted to a particular amount and this very rigorous restriction is not generally realized by those who claim to speak for labour or in favour of labour. If this residual share is to increase, the production costs must diminish and one of the most important factors for diminishing the production costs is efficiency of labour. My committee desire to record that as compared with a generation ago, Indian labour has improved considerably in efficiency, but there is still a very big leeway to be made up before they attain the efficiency of the workmen in Western countries, and specially the American. If labour want similar conditions to those that prevail in the west, they must give the same kind of work as is given by their comrades in the west, because the products of western factories are coming in competition with the products of factories in which Indian labour is employed. The position is much worse in the matter of the Latin countries like Italy, where the standard of living is not as high as in the United Kingdom. But the matter becomes still more serious when we come to Japan where production is on the same basis as in the west with much lower wages and with an "esprit-de-corps" and a national feeling, which secures very efficient and careful work. The Japanese Government, my committee understand, follows a policy of close study of the vicissitudes of an industry and renders assistance to secure industries from any undue harm over a certain number of years. This policy my committee would like to see established in India.

11. My committee regret that the action taken by Government with regard to labour questions appears to be more or less one-sided, in that, while they have been very prompt with regard to ratifications of conventions and recommendations passed by the International Labour Conferences, they are slow to a fault in meeting with any situation which arises locally, necessitating their intervention either as regards labour disputes or as regards protection to industries. In Europe Government intervention in the time of a great labour crisis is prompt, the latest instance being in connection with the recent textile strike in Lancashire. In India, Government do not move so quickly. They have failed to protect workmen who are willing to work, and have been somewhat dilatory in putting on the statute book laws which would protect workmen against coercion. My committee have been a consistent critic of Government's policy towards industry and they feel that the weakness of India's industrial position must be recognized if labour's condition is to be permanently improved. This weakness arises from the fact that industries are isolated and are not linked together with the result that many things, which industry requires, have got to be imported including machinery. The filling up of these gaps cannot be done by private initiative, particularly as most of the large suppliers of imported articles have set up their own agencies here and are now offering competition of an unfair character to any local enterprise which comes into existence. My committee consider that an industry, which is threatened with extinction, is entitled at the hands of the Government of the country to immediate consideration and adjustment not merely in the matter of tariffs, but in the matter of transport charges and in various other matters such as patronage of Government purchases. In all these directions Government have shown themselves unwilling to move with the demands of public opinion. My committee would like to see labour realize that they are vitally interested in the progress of industry generally and in the increased scope of employment, because the sustenance of improved wages comes ultimately from continuous and progressive demand for labour. They would earnestly request the Commission to analyse this fundamental economic fact and the bearing which it must inevitably have on the fortune of labour in India.

12. Since measures of general improvement have to be adopted and when they are adopted, they impose an additional burden on the industry and since all industries cannot be in a prosperous condition at any particular moment or time, my committee feel that whenever such measures are adopted, it should be open to any industry, which is for the time being in distress, to prefer its case for special protection or encouragement in order to make up the deficits thus caused. The machinery for this purpose is at present extremely unsatisfactory. The protection asked for by any particular industry is going to benefit not only capital but labour and such an appeal would, it is hoped, generally receive the support of leading labour organizations concerned with that particular industry. My committee feel that there should be a national economic policy under which not sectional but general interests would be considered. A quick relief granted to an industry at the first symptom of difficulties arising not only from increased charges in connection with labour legislation, but from any other causes beyond their control, or from unfair and subsidized competition offered from abroad, is of vital importance to labour itself in so far as it saves the industry from a weak condition or from extinction and thus maintains the full scope of employment for that particular class of employee.

13. My committee would like to invite the notice of the Commission to the welfare activities of several employers all over India often unsolicited by the workmen. They recognize this merely as a symptom of class good will and as a clear negation of any bitter class antagonism, and would concede at once that such spasmodic activities do not suffice and that securing conditions, which are essential for the health of the employee or for his surroundings or for his livelihood, must be on a uniform basis and must be by regulation so as to prevent the worst employer having any advantage in competition with the best employer. They, therefore, favour the principle that recognized evils complained of by labour should be put right by means of legislation or by administrative measures. They would like such legislation or regulation to be enforced, but they must sound a note of warning against capricious interference by a body of miscellaneous inspectors of the kind that would find a flaw in the conduct of the management, or which would check the continuity of operations essential to an industry. In either event costs would be considerably increased and the failure of the output of Indian factories to withstand in the market with the imported article would re-act harmfully on the interests of the working classes themselves. With regard to legislation their proposals are that it should be carefully devised with reference to Indian conditions alone and should not be merely a copy of laws existing elsewhere. In general my committee desire that the advantage of any legislation in their favour should go to the working classes. It is undesirable for Government to launch on any legislation which has not been definitely asked for by the industry itself, i.e., either by the employers or by the employees. The solicitude shown by Government for the representation of labour as such ought to secure at all events the more outstanding demands of labour being formulated inside the council halls on the initiative of non-officials. It is also necessary to see that legislation of a complicated and advanced character in the interests of labour is not initiated without definite information as to whether such legislation has been adopted by other countries. Where it has been discovered that it has not been adopted by countries whose output enters India, definite tariff barriers ought to be raised. This again is a measure calculated to benefit the working classes themselves who share the fortunes of any industry in which they are engaged.

14. My committee favour fuller compilations of labour statistics and statistics of prices of commodities for working classes and every device which will help to secure better understanding of the issues by the employers and the employees, such as the conciliation committees and the facilities for the officials of a properly constituted union to lodge a complaint and to receive redress, where possible, and explanation. They would like some machinery to be instituted which would intervene before a strike is called in any industry, and which would lead to a clear examination of the issues. The machinery for conciliation has not been successful in India, as popularity of labour leaders unfortunately depends on the extreme measure of their demand and that of moderate labour leaders is generally at a discount. Having regard to the conditions of society in India and to the general backwardness of labour, what this machinery should be it is for the Commission to decide. But at least for some time it is necessary to have a permanent body constituted, or a court of enquiry with a judicial man of high standing at the head to whom references must be made compulsory before a strike or a lockout is called. My committee would go further and advocate the compulsory reference of all issues arising between employers and employees to such an impartial and competent court. They are aware that laws relating to such compulsory reference have not been successful in certain countries, but the experiment is one which may be made in India and if it is handled by proper men in the first instance for a few selected industries, there is every reason to hope that the procedure may come to be definitely recognized and respected and may come to be adopted. My committee have every reason to believe that, while it would do no harm to labour, it will be welcomed by the employers, as it will save the industry from the ruinous condition of intermittent work and disorganization which inevitably follows a strike or a lockout. The time lost during the strike and the loss of full and efficient work on resumption are so great a price paid that every one ought to strive for arbitration. The *raison d'être* of such independent tribunals lies not only in the grave consequences to either party of a breakdown but in the fact that a detailed and scientific examination of conditions of reduction of wages and prices cannot be conducted either by the employers themselves, much less by the employees or those benevolent well-meaning individuals connected with labour at present. The present position is that labour is content to go along the old rut and is, therefore, opposed to the reorganization of the industry on modern lines whenever it is called for, because it does not understand the full implications. It is well known that every reorganization in industry involves elimination of the least useful unit and the aim is to reduce costs. If every time when a demand is made to make an improvement in the internal organization, the cry is raised by a few parties misplaced and materially affected, and if this cry is taken up universally, industry would be at a standstill. The economic justification, therefore, of any such

reorganization could be only given in detail to a competent and authoritative party and hence the suggestion for the court of enquiry and ultimately of arbitration is not merely as the shortest way out of industrial difficulties, but as the best method of securing the interests of all the parties concerned.

15. My committee would draw the attention of the Royal Commission to an important and outstanding point regarding labour in India, which is, that employment in India is not continuous. In agriculture, able-bodied men have not got work the whole year round. In many places they have no work for at least four complete months in the year and in some cases for actually eight months. Even when they have the work they have not got sufficient work to go on for more than a few hours daily except at the time of sowing operations and harvesting. Employment is not therefore full. Hence the earnings of employment are not adequate. This is what accounts for the low standard of life and it works in a vicious circle, because the low earnings do not provide the wherewithal to buy all that the body needs, much less do they give opportunities for amusements or expanding the mind. In this great backwater of semi-employment and partial employment drift back those that are temporarily or permanently thrown out by the industrial system. There is no machinery in this country either from the labour movement or from Government or from employers which takes account of a large number of men who drift backwards and forwards in this manner. This is without any reference to the considerable amount of casual absenteeism that takes place. If an account was kept of men who had once been employed in the textile industry, but who are now thrown out and are obliged to seek another and possibly less remunerative job, it would be found that the number was very considerable. It would be the same with reference to every organized industry in which the wages are high. This unemployment is an evil, not only from the point of view of the workmen but from the point of view of the country.

16. *Housing.*—The provision of housing by employers has come to be recognized as a desirability. That the employer should in all cases find the necessary capital and organization to provide housing for his employees is a demand which would put a burden on industry which it cannot bear. No progress could be possible if money, which was intended and which falls into the hands of the entrepreneur class, were used in bricks and mortar instead of being employed for production. If the burden is not, therefore, to be placed directly on the industry, what is to be done with regard to housing is a legitimate question. The solution, in the mind of my committee, is the same as the solution everywhere in the world, viz., that rent must be on a basis which would give an adequate return to the capital put in housing and thus more money would be attracted in building houses and the accommodation would increase. But the difficulty in Bombay is that the workpeople with their present standard of life are averse to spending an adequate amount for housing. There was a special difficulty in the town and city of Bombay, because the price of land on which housing could be provided was inordinately high. My committee must point out that the methods of easing the situation so far as the city of Bombay is concerned have proved worse than the disease. Out of the 16,000 rooms provided by Government at Worli, between 4,000 and 5,000 were occupied till lately and there were more than 10,000 rooms locked up. It is claimed that these constructions are better than the houses in which workmen live at present, and if that is so, locking these rooms, which have been constructed from public money and the loss in which is borne by the taxpayer, is deplorable and must be ended. The representative of this chamber has urged that these rooms should be immediately thrown open at a rent which will attract workmen who are living in other crowded parts of Bombay, but the Government have for some reason or other not accepted the suggestion. There was a time in Bombay when chawls, which could be provided by employers, were popular. But since the era of big strikes has set in, there is a suspicion in the minds of the workers and any housing provided by the employer is looked upon with distrust. The difficulty is not that of finding houses for the workmen, but of inducing them to lead a regular life with their families and settle down where the industry is. Most workmen hailing from the interior come alone to the industrial centres and desire to go away for two or three months to spend their time with their families. When they are alone it is not unusual for three, four, five or a dozen of them to pool their resources together in respect of a room which is used mainly for cooking, the resting place being found by the inmates wherever available, sometimes in the open verandah and sometimes out in the open. The point, therefore, to consider is not merely whether the working classes could afford the rents which are asked for from them, but whether they desire to spend on rents for a house in the city on a reasonable scale. Generally it would be found by the Commission that the workmen desire to save their money in order to take it back to their agricultural homes or in order to send remittances to their parents and others, or, as it generally happens, in order to pay instalments of previous debts. The reduction of slums, which is a very desirable object from every point of view, is thus interfered with by the habit of the workmen themselves.

17. Among the general conditions in which improvement for labour is desirable, my committee would give a very high place to the abolition of drink. The amount of money spent by the working classes on drink has never been properly estimated but it is considerable, and there is no doubt that the bulk of it comes from the pockets of the working men. The policy of prohibition has been accepted by the Government of Bombay in principle, but their present financial straits appear to have compelled them to act in the other direction. The harm which the drink can do in India is not to be estimated by the harm which it may or may not do in Europe. Besides that in India, my committee find a tendency among the working classes not to be in moderation when they take to drink. If the working classes are saved from the expenses which they at present incur on drinks, their resources would *ipso facto* increase and their standard of living in other directions would go up. The beneficent results in the matter would be cumulated and they could be secured by a certain amount of stringency at the hands of Government. If the Royal Commission desire to do real good to the working classes in India, my committee trust that they will give the question of reduction or abolition of drink a leading place in their recommendations.

18. *Hours of Work.*—My committee would like to make a few general observations with regard to hours of work. The period fixed by Law for factories in this country is 10 hours a day. This is in accordance with the First Convention of the First International Labour Conference, which provided specifically different treatment to Asiatic countries like India, looking to the difference in climate, economic conditions, organization, etc.

My committee apprehend that efforts may be put forward both before the Commission and outside to get the hours of work reduced. Reduction of hours would only be possible if wages could be reduced or if there was a substantial increase in the efficiency of the workpeople. Reduction of wages is not a practical proposition and, therefore, the only alternative left is in the direction of increased efficiency. In comparison with all European countries and even with an Asiatic country like Japan, the efficiency of the workpeople in India is low and if a radical alteration could be effected in that direction, my committee would support the demand for a reduction of working hours. There is another consideration, however, which requires to be pointed out in this connection, and that is, that while advanced industrial countries which have got a reduced number of working hours, have got a favourable and effective tariff policy protecting their national industries and safeguarding the interests of both employers and employees, India at present cannot afford the luxury of shorter hours, because of the present stage of the development of her industries and the fact that she has no effective protective tariff policy but has only revenue duties and a diluted form of protection passing under the name of discriminating protection. It may not be out of place to remark that even some of these industrially advanced countries of the west have not been able to ratify the Convention referred to above even up to the present time.

Under these circumstances, my committee are firmly of opinion that no reduction should be effected in the hours of work.

19. With regard to the employment of women, my committee would like to see the scope for employment of women to be increased, as otherwise it will be a serious blow to the family budget of the working man, but the employments which would be open to women should be such as would not prove harmful to them, having regard to their special physical needs. In particular, my committee would like to see the employment of women underground put an end to as early as possible. It should not have been allowed and any temporary gain to industry out of this is to be strongly deprecated. The substitution of women for men above ground is, however, to be favoured wherever possible. The principle of equal pay for equal work, which prevails in the United Kingdom and which is admitted, is in the mind of my committee a very sound and righteous principle, but wages have a way of adjusting themselves according to demand and supply, and so long as the field for employment for women is restricted, the reward for them even for the same class of work is bound to be lower than what is paid to men. It is for the Commission in the course of their enquiry to find out what should be done to increase the scope of employment for women and to substitute them for lighter operations where men work at present.

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#### THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, BOMBAY.

2. In dealing with the headings of the schedule my committee have endeavoured to confine themselves to those questions which most obviously affect commerce. In their opinion the actual facts and statistics regarding labour can best be ascertained

either from Government departments, such as the Labour Office, Bombay, or from such representative bodies as the Millowners' Association, the Jute Mills Association and the Metallurgical Association, etc. My committee have therefore as far as possible dealt only with questions of policy and general principles.

3. The importance of the subject-matter of the Commission's enquiry requires no emphasis. As the Controller of Currency remarks in his recently issued report for the year 1928-29, there has been a general improvement in economic conditions in most countries of the world—an improvement which would have been more marked in India but for labour unrest. The Collector of Customs, reporting on the same period, refers to the "enormous economic loss" caused by the cotton mill strike and concludes that "with happier times in Bombay itself the year would have shown, in decided fashion, a welcome revival of trade." These statements are fully borne out by the experience of commercial firms in Bombay. During the past 18 months industrial disturbances has been almost continuous in one part of the country or another and in this respect Bombay has suffered more severely than any other province.

4. Bad as the situation has been in the past, there are those who think that Bombay has still more serious labour troubles ahead by reason of the increasing importance of the political factor. During the past decade or more the Indian labourer in Bombay has been gradually educated up to a higher standard of living, but the danger lies in the fact that neither his reasoning power nor his efficiency has increased in the same ratio as his standard of living. Communism has now stepped in and is busy encouraging him and organizing him to demand that which he cannot earn and is not worth in the industrial market of the world, while the Government under which he lives has applied to him all the privileges and safeguards which have been framed in countries where labour is much better able to realize its responsibilities. In most Western countries such safeguards have come with, or followed, the advance of education among the workers, whereas in India it appears to have been hoped that greater efficiency and a sense of responsibility would follow the safeguards. Whatever the cause of the present unrest may be, the sense of responsibility appears to be very limited in the office-bearers of most Unions and almost non-existent in some; a factor which has undoubtedly contributed in a large measure to Bombay's recent troubles. Unions, which a few years ago lived for a few brief months, when the trouble was merely economic, as a result of the rise in cost of essentials after the war, are steadily increasing in numbers and holding their members in political tutelage under leaders, who receive encouragement, if not much actual material support, from organizations outside their own sphere of activities. There are indications therefore that the situation will be worse rather than better for a number of years to come, unless labour realizes its responsibilities more quickly than appears likely at the moment. One of the principal tasks of the Commission will be to suggest measures for arousing in labour a sense of responsibility and placing the trade union movement on healthier lines. I am now to deal *seriatim* with those headings of the Schedule on which the Committee think they can usefully express an opinion.

3. (iii) My Committee consider that from the employers' point of view there is no necessity for public employment agencies. If such are established, presumably they will be maintained, and paid for by the State.

7. (iv) Unemployment insurance, if established, would become a charge on general revenues. My Committee consider that no system of unemployment insurance would be possible in this country, nor do they consider it necessary, since unemployment in the ordinary sense of the term does not exist except among Anglo-Indians and the clerical class for whom special measures of relief would have to be devised.

13. (iii) and (iv) The dislocation to trade and commerce resulting from prolonged industrial disputes is enormous and affects the whole well-being of the community. Works Committees and Works Councils provide a means of preventing such disturbance which, in the Chamber's opinion, is one of the principal subjects before the Commission. In 1920, this Chamber associated itself with the Bengal Chamber urging *inter alia* that early steps should be taken to test the possibility of developing in India a system of Works Joint Committees. My Committee are strongly of the opinion that these attempts should be renewed and persisted in.

29. (ii) My Committee desire to emphasize the necessity for enforcing the prevention of malaria in all big industrial organizations and indeed on the community generally. They consider the Bombay Corporation's neglect to adopt adequate anti-malarial measures deplorable, although from the information available, it would appear that the Bombay Corporation's efforts in this direction have been more effective and sustained than those of other public bodies in India.

37. My Committee are of the opinion that any provision for old age and premature retirement must, in the absence of legislation extending this to the entire community, be a charge on individual industries and as such must be voluntary.

38. My Committee consider co-operation most desirable and every possible effort should be made to extend the movement. It is recognized that Local Governments are striving to popularize co-operation but while their scope is limited and subject to definite drawbacks, these disabilities do not apply to industrial concerns, mills, railways and such like organizations, which are in a position to develop the movement enormously by the formation of Credit Societies, Co-operative Stores, grain shops, etc., and by generally encouraging thrift and self-help.

It is understood that much has been done in this direction, for instance, by the Railways, with most gratifying results. In a country like India where the majority of the workers are hopelessly in debt to Baniyas and money-lenders, co-operation offers vast opportunities and the establishment of Loan Societies by industrial organizations, with a view to making loans on favourable terms to their employees for the express purpose of liquidating debts running at exorbitant rates of interest with professional money-lenders, would prove of immense benefit.

40. My Committee are of the opinion that education is primarily a matter for the State. It is true that for a good many years past some employers have recognized a responsibility for the education of young employees and the dependents of the labourers. It is understood that various large organizations, *e.g.*, the railways, the Tata Iron and Steel Co. at Jamshedpur, etc. have devoted much attention to educational provision for the children of their employees. Such efforts should be encouraged by the State by means of Government grants, etc.

41. Technical and vocational education should also be the concern of the State though enlightened employers will doubtless provide facilities for those of their workmen who are able to profit by such training.

51, 52 and 53. Early this year the Committee were asked for their views on a proposal of the Government of India to examine the principles underlying the present Workmen's Compensation Act and its more important features. A copy of the Chamber's reply is appended for the information of the Commission. My Committee consider that there has not been sufficient experience of the working of the Act to enable them to say more on the subject for the present.

106. The Chamber in 1927, expressed the opinion that there was no necessity for legislative or other action to be taken in regard to the prevention of the infliction of fines on workmen in industrial concerns. My Committee have again considered this question in response to your questionnaire and have come to the conclusion that no circumstances have arisen since 1927 which would indicate that any modification in the opinion previously expressed by them is advisable.

107. In 1926 the Chamber opposed a proposal of the Government of India to set a statutory limit of time within which wages must be paid, and on re-consideration of this question they are still of the same opinion as they were in 1926.

117 to 126. Three strikes have occurred during the past year in India which inflicted great loss and suffering on the community generally. These are the strikes in the Bombay cotton mills engineered by the Girmi Kamgar Union, the strike at the steel works at Jamshedpur and lastly the recent strike in the jute mills in Calcutta. It is practically certain that the strike in Bombay was not a genuine trade dispute. That has been definitely declared by the Special Committee appointed by Government to investigate the matter. It is a matter of common talk that the other two strikes were either instigated or prolonged at the instance of speculators dealing in forward business in the shares of the companies concerned or the prices of raw materials or finished products. My Committee cannot assert that this is true but the impression certainly prevails and is widely believed. Sections 17, 18 and 19 of the Trade Unions Act No. XVI of 1926, afford special protection outside the ordinary common law to registered Trade Unions and officers or members of such registered Trade Unions. It is true that these sections contemplate that the act protected shall be done in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute. Presumably therefore, the protection would not apply in cases such as those we have mentioned. This is the theory. In practice, however, aggrieved persons would be deterred from seeking the ordinary remedies which they might obtain at common law by the existence of these sections. My Committee therefore, think that it is for consideration whether the law should not be so amended as to provide some ready means of withdrawing the protection afforded by these sections where it is clearly proved that any strike engineered by a Trade Union is not in furtherance of a genuine trade dispute and they suggest that it should be open to any aggrieved person to apply to some authority, either to Government direct or to some subordinate authority, complaining that a particular strike is not in furtherance of a trade dispute and requesting that the registration of the particular union contemplating or furthering such strike should be cancelled or suspended with the effect that the protection afforded by these sections should be withdrawn. My Committee are entirely in favour of Trade Unions as a



means of protecting labour and enabling it to employ collective bargaining in its dealing with employers. What they desire is to protect these institutions, which in India are in their infancy, from exploitation in the interest, whether pecuniary or political, of other persons.

143 to 146. The Chamber has no objection to the collection and compulsory supply of statistics with a view to providing a continuous record of the economic condition of the working classes. The Chamber considers that the collection of such statistics should be undertaken by the Central Government and not by the provincial Governments.

#### Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.

My Committee have carefully considered the questions contained in para 18 of letter No. 1125 of 30 November 1928 from the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, and they desire to submit replies as under:—

1. In regard to the industries in this Presidency the existing Act appears sufficiently comprehensive and its further extension to unorganized industries is not recommended at present.

2. The only provision for securing workmen against possible loss which occurs to the Committee, is some form of compulsory insurance and they are unable, in the present circumstances, to suggest any scheme of compulsory insurance which would be equitable alike to employer and employee.

3. The Committee consider that, at least from the employers' point of view, lump-sum payments are preferable to recurring payments but they suggest that the compensation should be payable to the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation who should have discretionary powers to issue it in instalments.

4. The present scale of compensation is considered sufficient.

5. The waiting period should remain at 10 days.

6. The list appears already rather long but the Committee suggest that widowed sisters and widowed daughters might reasonably be included provided effect can be given to their recommendation (7) *infra*.

7. The Committee are of the opinion that proof of dependence should be produced to substantiate every claim for compensation.

8. Compensation should be fixed irrespective of the number of dependents.

9. The Committee are in favour on the whole of keeping Section 12 as it stands.

10. The Committee think that some penalty should certainly be provided in the Act for failure to comply with the provisions of this section.

11. The Committee suggest that employers should be required to submit a return of accidents in respect of which compensation is due but has not been claimed or paid.

12. Dependents should have the alternative of applying to the Commissioner who should have power to initiate proceedings.

13 and 14. The Government of India state in paragraph 15 of their letter that it has been suggested that employers should be obliged to register the names and addresses of the nearest relatives of each of their workmen as soon as the workman is taken into employment. The Committee are strongly of the opinion that it would be impracticable for employers to keep such a register.

In this connection they would observe that few workmen appear to be ignorant of the fact that Workmen's Compensation is in operation, since their full rights are brought to their notice by claims settling agencies and trade unions. With regard to the former, the Committee consider that some provision should be made in the Workmen's Compensation Act to register and recognize these bodies and to limit the amount of commission they extract from the dependents of workmen for recovering compensation on their behalf. These agencies should be compelled by statute to lodge a return with the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation of all commissions received in respect of recovery of compensation.

15. The Committee see no objection to the Commissioner being empowered to call upon the employer depositing compensation in any particular case to show cause why he should not deposit an additional amount sufficient to bring the compensation up to the prescribed sum.

16. Where an appeal is lodged the Commissioner should have power to distribute the amount of compensation admitted by the employer as being due and to withhold the balance in dispute pending the disposal of the appeal.

## THE SOCIAL SERVICE LEAGUE, BOMBAY.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. The labour in Bombay is drawn from outside, there being among the workers of Bombay only a few people who may be called the descendants of the original inhabitants of Bombay. The history of the growth and development of the city of Bombay is the history of the commerce and industry in Bombay. Since Bombay became an industrial centre, some working class families have made their homes in Bombay permanently. The number of such families is, however, very small in comparison with the working class population which is fluid in character. A large number of workmen do not bring their families to Bombay, and even those who bring their families here return from time to time to their native villages. They look upon their life in Bombay as a temporary sojourn only, although in the case of some of them their fathers and grandfathers too may have been workers in Bombay.

The labour employed in mills, workshops, factories, docks, and in the building trade and other establishments and concerns is drawn from all parts of the country. There are persons from the up-country districts in the central and southern divisions of the Presidency and from the Konkan districts on the Western Coast. There are Hindus and Mahomedans from Northern India also. Dock labourers employed in loading and unloading work are Deccanis—men from Poona, Satara, Ahmednagar and other districts. In mills the Konkans from the southern talukas of the Ratnagiri district and the Zolas who are Mahomedans from Northern India are weavers, the Hindus from Northern India being generally, employed in the blow rooms. The spinners consist of Konkans in the northern talukas of Ratnagiri, Deccanis from the up-country districts and the persons belonging to the so-called untouchable castes. There is a constant flow into Bombay from the Telegu speaking districts outside the Presidency, of men and women who are employed in mills and in the building trades, mostly as unskilled workers. Turners, fitters, carpenters, etc., in workshops and engineering works are Hindus and Mahomedans from the Konkan, Bene-Israelis and even Parsees. Chinese carpenters are sometimes employed in the railway workshops. The most cosmopolitan labour in Bombay is that which is employed on the sea. It consists of the Goanese Christians who are generally saloon workers, the Kharwas (Hindus from Surat and Daman) who are deckworkers, the Konkani Mahomedans who are deckworkers or engine-room workers, and Mahomedans from the South Kanara, Malabar, Bengal and the Punjab, who are generally engine-room workers. A few of these seamen come from places outside India, such as Muscat and Aden. Excepting the Bombay Mahomedans, i.e. Mahomedans settled in the city of Bombay, all the seamen return to their native villages from time to time, especially when they are unemployed or when they return to Bombay after several months' continuous work on the sea.

The most important cause of migration is the fact that most of the village industries have disappeared. Agriculture alone cannot provide employment to all persons in a village and even those who are engaged in agriculture remain unemployed for several months in the year. Each village has to import from outside a number of articles and even necessaries of life, and they can be paid for either by selling off the agricultural produce in the village to outsiders, or by earning money outside the village. The exodus of labour from villages to industrial centres depends to some extent on the fertility of the soil. Even where the land is fairly fertile, the pressure on the land is too much, and those who have either no land of their own or a plot of land too small have to eke out their income from land by working in industrial towns or cities as factory workers or labourers. The number of peasant proprietors possessing land extensive and fertile enough to support the family throughout the year is very small in proportion to the total number of cultivators, and a large portion of the cultivators who raise sufficient food for themselves have no cash in their hands to satisfy their other needs, except those few who have surplus agricultural produce for sale or raise money-crops. Even those whose income from the land is sufficient to satisfy all ordinary requirements of existence have to find money for extraordinary purposes. When they have to celebrate marriages in the family or to meet the expenses of sickness, and even when they have to effect improvements in their land or repairs to their dwellings or to purchase bullocks for the plough or agricultural implements, they have to incur debts from the village moneylenders. These debts can only be paid by sending some members of the family to an industrial centre to earn wages. The debts are generally paid from the savings of these members. Thus agriculture is, not to a small extent, dependent on industry.

There are certain districts in the Presidency where famine conditions are, so to speak, chronic. The average rainfall in these districts is insufficient at least in some of the talukas every year. This adds to the ordinary exodus to the industrial centres like Bombay, Sholapur, etc. Failure of crops at times in other districts also is a factor in the migration of labour from the villages. The district of Ratnagiri supplies a vast army of labour to Bombay and Karachi. The poverty of the soil in

the district is proverbial, most of the land being rocky, sandy and hilly. The staple food of the district is rice and even that has to be imported in great quantities. The supply of labour from this district therefore greatly exceeds that from any other single district in the Presidency. The causes of migration may be summed up as follows:—(a) The disappearance of village industries; (b) the consequent too much pressure on land; (c) the insufficiency of income from agricultural sources; (d) the poverty of the soil in certain districts or tracts; (e) the subjection of certain districts to chronic famine conditions, owing to failure of rains continuously for years; (f) failure of crops owing to insufficiency of rainfall or destruction of crops or gardens through locusts, etc., driving the cultivators to industrial centres to seek livelihood; (g) the dependence of agriculture on income derived from industrial sources, in so far as small peasant proprietors and agricultural tenants and labourers are concerned.

2. The majority of the industrial workers are in touch with their villages, most of them returning to their villages from time to time. Even those who do not work in seasonal factories, but work in mills, factories, workshops and such other concerns as are open throughout the year, visit their homes in the villages annually, or every two years or some such periods, and return to Bombay after spending a few months there. In some cases the period of absence from Bombay is only a fortnight or a month. Some of these men while in their villages help the other members of the family in their agricultural operations. Of course, there are some men who along with their family have ceased to have anything to do with agriculture. Such men return to their villages frequently, only if they happen to have there a hut or house of their own. Otherwise they go there at long intervals, the object of the visit being change of climate or worship of the village deity, or the celebration of marriage of near relatives. The number of industrial workers who have lost contact altogether with their village is, however, small.

As regards the extent of permanent labour force, it must be stated that the periodic absence of a worker from the place of his industrial employment does not warrant the inference that he is a casual workman. Generally, when he returns from his native village, he seeks employment of the same kind as he had before, and if possible, in the same mill or factory, although in the absence of the system of granting long leave of absence to employees in mills the man is treated as a new hand when he returns to work.

3. The methods of recruitment are not uniform. They vary from industry to industry and also from concern to concern.

In textile mills, men are recruited through head jobbers and mukadams and women through *sakhins* (forewomen). In a few mills, instead of jobbers, mukadams and *naikins*, the assistants or the heads of the departments have the power to engage workers. In workshops it is in the hands of foremen to give employment. As regards docks, the mukadams collect the labourers in the *mofussil* and bring them to Bombay. In some departments of the Bombay Municipality it is generally the subordinate officers who engage workmen and women.

Naturally, the present system of recruitment in industrial concerns and works of public utility gives scope for bribery and corruption, which are rife, especially when unemployment is widespread.

The desirability of public employment agencies, at least in big cities, cannot be denied. That the success of such agencies will depend greatly on the schemes that will be adopted for the purpose, goes without saying. Given the co-operation of the heads of different concerns and establishments, representatives of labour, representatives of philanthropic institutions and other public spirited men and women, it should not be difficult to evolve practicable schemes of employment agencies.

4. So long as industries are centralised in cities, the disturbing effect on family life of the workers migrating from their native villages to the cities is inevitable. Either a scheme of industry planning must be devised aiming at decentralization of industries so as to provide agricultural workers with remunerative work at their very doors during their spare time and thus bringing about a *liaison* between agriculture and industry in the place of their present divorced condition, or it must be made possible and convenient for workers to live in cities where they get industrial employment, with their families. It is a fact that a large number of workmen in Bombay do not bring their families with them, and even those who bring them do not keep them here throughout the year, or for more than a year. The reasons are various, the most important reason being the inadequacy of wages in the case of a large number of workers. The families in which the women members are also wage-earners do not so often return to their native places as those in which the women are not earning hands. In the latter class of families, relatives, friends, caste-men or village-men are taken as boarders in order to supplement the earnings of the male members of the family.

Among the other reasons of a workman's living alone in Bombay the following may be included:—bad effect of continued residence in Bombay on health, period of unemployment, when a man is unable to support his family but has to stay in Bombay in search of employment, and the necessity of there being some one from the family to look after the property in the village, or to look after an old person in the family staying there. In the case of joint families all the brothers working in Bombay do not bring their families in Bombay, as it is found more economical and convenient for one or two brothers only to have their families here and to keep the wives of others at the village, by turns.

The effect of separation from their families on workmen is no doubt bad from moral as well as physical point of view.

5. One of the workers of the league made an enquiry into the condition of the seamen in Bombay and the results have been published in a pamphlet entitled "Seamen in Bombay." The system hitherto in force of recruiting seamen has given a good deal of scope for bribery and corruption resulting in intensifying the evils of unemployment. The appointment of a special officer for recruitment which has recently been made should ordinarily lead to a more even distribution of employment. It is, however, difficult to say just now how far the new system works satisfactorily. The Indian Seamen's Union which has been carrying on agitation for a better system of recruitment is in a better position to give a detailed evidence in this respect. So far as our information goes it seems that the special assistant to the shipping master has power only to appoint serangs and butlers, and also that authorities on individual ships can now select their crews as before. No considerable improvement can, therefore, be expected in the recruiting system under the present arrangements.

6. Now and again complaints are heard in this presidency about ignorant persons being taken to Assam to work in plantations there by the recruiting agents, who concealed the facts from the recruits, and misled them. Questions regarding unscrupulous methods in recruiting labour for Assam plantations were recently asked by a member for Gujerat in the Bombay Legislative Council. Also the Marathi newspapers in Goa (Portuguese territory on the west coast bounded by the Bombay Presidency on the north, south and east) published a few months ago a complaint of some men thus misled, who anyhow, succeeded in getting back to their native place. This shows the need for imposing restrictions on the recruiting agents' work, so that the possibility of ignorant persons being duped should be reduced to the minimum. Under the conditions obtaining at present in the plantations, it is the considered opinion of the League's managing committee that it is quite desirable in the interest of labour to discourage by every possible means the recruitment of labour for Assam plantations. If the recruits knew the real condition in Assam they would never consent to enlist themselves as labourers. It is, therefore, necessary that the labourers recruited for Assam plantations should not be taken to Assam, without first being taken to an officer appointed by the Government, whose duty should be to acquaint each recruit with actual conditions in the plantations. This officer should be in Bombay, and all the recruits from the Bombay Presidency should be passed by him, and he should be assisted in the work by a small committee consisting of labour representatives.

Every recruiting agent must supply the recruits before they agree to go to Assam, with printed and authorised terms of employment, viz., wages, housing concessions, etc.,

The Assam Emigration Act (VI of 1901, as amended later) should be so amended as to safeguard the interests of labour. Although some sections of this Act, especially the section giving power to the planter to arrest a labourer, have been withdrawn by executive notification, the Act still remains on the Statute Book and it is still within the power of the Government to cancel the notification and revive the most objectionable features of the Act without the sanction of the Legislature. Similarly though the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act has been fortunately repealed the employers can take advantage of section 492 of the Indian Penal Code for the purpose of maintaining their hold on the employees. This danger should be removed at an early date. The labourers must be guaranteed freedom of movement. The agreements signed by the members of the Planters' Association putting restrictions upon the employment of labourers should be declared illegal. The labour should be free and not indentured. If the terms of employment are made attractive there is no reason why there should be any shortage of labour in these days of wide spread unemployment. It is also necessary in the interest of the labourers' freedom that all residential areas on the tea-gardens and the roads leading thereto should be open to the public so that the labourers on the gardens may have intercourse with the outer world. Also, in view of the appalling illiteracy prevailing among the plantation labourers, and the helpless condition they find themselves in there owing to the long distance between the plantations and their native places, it is necessary to create a Welfare and Education Fund through a small cess levied on the tea-gardens.

7. It is extremely difficult to obtain figures about unemployment in this country owing to the absence of statistics on the subject and also on account of the fact that the number of people migrating to industrial towns and returning to their villages from time to time is far greater than that of those who are purely industrial workers. The enumeration of the unemployed in industrial towns alone will not give an adequate idea of the extent of unemployment in the country. After a fruitless search for employment in towns a number of men return to their villages, finding it impossible to pull on any longer in cities where the cost of living is much higher, also a number of men are dissuaded from going to industrial centres to seek employment by the consideration that the search is bound to be fruitless and that the expenses involved in going and staying there will go for nothing.

Retrenchment due to depression is undoubtedly an important factor in the widespread unemployment of the present day. The unemployment consequent upon the introduction of rationalization may be alleviated by the formation of an "Out of work Donation Fund" as suggested by the Fawcett Committee with regard to the textile mills in Bombay, following the recommendation in the resolution of the World Economic Conference on Rationalization held at Geneva in 1927.

Unemployment Insurance is one of the remedies to alleviate the distress caused by unemployment, but it must be borne in mind that it will be useful only in the case of those who are purely industrial workers and permanent residents in industrial towns. The problem of unemployment which is of a diffused character in the country can never be satisfactorily solved by adopting such measures as are mainly applicable to populations permanently settled in industrial towns.

8. Labour turnover in railway workshops is much less in comparison with that in mills, factories and other workshops. In the former not only the majority consists of skilled workmen but also there is a provident fund for the workers and they are given certain concessions under the service rules. Even in mills the labour turnover is much less than what appears on the face. When a man has to go to his native place he gets a discharge pass. But when he returns he tries to obtain employment in the same mill as far as possible. He is, however, considered a new man when he is given a job in the same mill after his return. Instances are not rare of men and women workers working in the same mill for a number of years.

As regards absenteeism it may be stated that it is mainly of two kinds: seasonal and casual. Seasonal absenteeism is due to the fact that workers employed in cities have sometimes to go to their villages to help the other members of their families in agricultural operations and also to the fact that they feel the necessity of going there for a change or sometimes they have to be present in their native villages at certain religious ceremonies, weddings in the family or to carry on litigations on behalf of the family. It is also common among the mill workers and other workers in Bombay who live alone to leave for their native place as soon as they are down with sickness. Being alone in Bombay they are afraid of being neglected in sickness and are anxious to be amongst their kith and kin. Casual absenteeism is due to sickness as well as to the necessity of seeking relief from the drudgery and monotony in the works, after the monthly wages are received. The conditions of work are so exacting and taxing that a few men remain absent from work even when they are not actually sick. The conditions of work are more to blame than the men.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

There is no provision for a scientific training of the managing staff. In mills and other joint stock industrial concerns appointments are often made mainly with a view to provide for the relatives or caste-fellows of the directors or agents. The training which is received by these men while serving apprenticeship is of only practical nature, and the result is that the men prove to be unprogressive. The methods of work and the notions of management under which these men are trained are believed by them to be perfect, and new methods and new ideas are looked upon with distrust, as if they were heresies to be studiously fought shy of. In short, it cannot be said about the majority of industrial concerns that the selections of the managing and supervising staff, superior and subordinate, are made on any fixed principles, nor that the men selected are given regular training along scientific lines. Scientific management is nearly unknown. Subjects like industrial fatigue and industrial psychology are totally neglected.

As regards facilities for training and promotion of workmen, it may be stated that whatever facilities exist are not available to all persons desirous of availing themselves of them. There are no schools for the training of ordinary industrial workers. Promotion of workmen does not depend so much upon their qualifications as trained workers as on the recommendation by their immediate superiors.

The Social Service League has been maintaining at its Working Men's Institute at Parel a textile technical school, which is meant for the training of ordinary mill-workers—spinners and weavers. The original idea when it was started was to make

it both a day and night school. But as day students must be maintained by paying them scholarships sufficient to cover the maintenance charges, and as the millowners showed indifference in supporting such a scholarship scheme, the school consists at present of only night classes. Instruction in these classes is imparted through the vernacular. Some of the millowners helped the League in starting the school by providing funds for a school-building and by giving machinery for practical training. The school receives grant-in-aid from the Bombay Municipality and the Committee of Direction for Technical Education (Bombay Presidency). The League pays a monthly scholarship of Rs. 3 to each student for regular attendance. The students are examined by experts deputed by the Committee of Direction for Technical Education. The course is not, however, yet recognized by the millowners for giving promotion to workmen, although some of the students passed through the course have succeeded in securing good jobs through merit. It is necessary to give encouragement to the young workers by assuring them of improvement in their prospects in employment. In the absence of any such definite assurance on the part of the employers very few young men think it worth their while to undergo the course of training.

At present there are no definite qualifications for the posts of assistants, head-jobbers and jobbers in the different departments of the mills. In not a few cases the sole qualification of a head-jobber is that he is able to bring in a certain number of operatives to work under him. Technical qualifications count for very little in such cases. This naturally results in jobberies and corruptions, and spoils the moral tone of the works.

The system of employing jobbers and head-jobbers and *naikins* as obtains at present in the mills is full of defects, and is, therefore, responsible for a good deal of mischief. The qualifications for these posts being indeterminate, the appointments leave ample scope for underhand dealing. In many mills the head-jobbers wield the power of dismissing men under them, although nominally the dismissal orders are issued by the head of the department or the manager of the mill. The fact invariably is that a head-jobber or an assistant orders a dismissal and it is afterwards blindly confirmed by the departmental head or the manager. Practically no investigation is made as to the real facts of the complaint against the worker. That this power of dismissal is open to serious objection goes without saying. The same power is used by the foremen and mukadams in factories, workshops, and in concerns or departments where labour is employed. In times of severe unemployment the petty officials who have the power to appoint and dismiss workmen have the temptation to use it unjustly and arbitrarily. Vacancies caused through dismissals offer them opportunities to obtain fresh bribes from persons in need of employment. Also it is often complained in respect of certain departments of several mills and factories that the spoils are divided among all the officers of the department, and that the jobbers act as intermediaries between the officer who has the power to give employment and the persons who are willing to offer bribe for securing it. This points to the existence of defects in organization and unless these defects are remedied efficiency and discipline cannot be expected to reach the desired level.

Jobbers have more power especially in those mills in which the wages of piece-workers are on an average lower owing to the used-up machinery and bad material. It is natural for workmen to prefer the mills in which they can earn higher wages at the end of the month with the same exertion, and the mills of the former type do not get a supply of steady workmen. The main duty of jobbers in such mills is, therefore, to keep a steady supply of labour. The jobbers resort to various methods to have a sufficient number of workmen at their beck and call, e.g., by advancing them money or standing surety for them at the moneylenders'. This enables them to gain a hold over the men who in their turn prefer to have such relations with the jobbers, knowing that the latter being interested in their employment for the recovery of the loans advanced by or through them would connive at irregularities and never sack them. There are also other more objectionable methods used by some jobbers for exerting control over the men working under them. The influence of such jobbers is unwholesome and undesirable both on the management and the rank and file of workmen.

The *naikins* (forewomen) have autocratic powers over the reelers and winders with the result that the latter have to suffer most from corruption and tyranny in the mills.

*Works Committees.*—The League had prevailed upon Messrs. Tata and Sons, and Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim and Sons to introduce works committees in the mills under their agency. The experiment was tried for some time, the welfare superintendent of each group acting as secretary of each works committee. It was a joint committee, consisting of members representing workmen employed in the different departments as well as of the heads of the departments, with the manager of the mill as chairman. Questions regarding wages and hours of work were excluded from the

scope of discussion. The grievances, complaints, suggestions, etc., were formulated among the workers' representatives and whenever it was found necessary to collect facts from and ascertain the views of the majority of the workmen themselves, all the men in a department used to be called together. The secretary did his best to learn the workers' point of view and also satisfied himself as to the reasonableness of the proposals, grievances, etc., brought forward by the workmen or their representatives. The agenda was then prepared and circulated through the manager among the officers representing the employers on the committee, before the joint committee met for discussion.

The League's experience in this matter has not been, it must be regretfully stated, encouraging. Given the right spirit on the side of the management, there was no reason why the joint works committees should not succeed in achieving the object for which they were designed, viz., bringing together the management and the workers to discuss in a friendly spirit matters affecting the workers with a view to clearing misunderstanding and removing causes of grievances in time. It seemed, however, that although the agents appreciated the idea underlying the joint works committees, the managers and the departmental heads did not take kindly to it. In one mill, one of the officers resented the idea so much that he prevailed upon the manager and other officers to make it a failure. The very idea of workmen sitting in the same meeting and discussing their grievances with the officers was nothing short of a revolutionary idea to that officer's mind and the result was that the joint works committee in that mill came to an end soon after its establishment. The agents were not prepared to displease the officer, although they had themselves sanctioned the introduction of the works committees. The manager of another mill thought the scheme was superfluous in that he alone could dispose of all the matters without the ado of discussion. In some mills the committees were given a trial. But the experiment proved a failure in the end. The responsibility for the failure lay with the management more than with the workmen. Complaints about unequal wages for the same kind of work and changes unfavourable to workers in piece rates were disallowed by the managements and also workers' representatives complained of victimization on account of the part played by them in the joint committees. If works committees are to be successful the employers must convince the men that a works committee is a real measure of reform and not a sham. The employers being the more enlightened and powerful party it is for them to win the confidence of the workers by showing by their attitude and actions that they are ever prepared for a square deal and that they are always open to reason. If a grievance or demand brought by the workmen's representatives before the joint works committee is decided against the workers, and if the same grievance is redressed or the same demand granted after the workers have given a threat of strike, the workers can have little confidence in the joint works committee. It is natural for most of the managers and officers to look upon works committees as an encroachment on their rights and privilege which they have considered absolutely necessary to maintain order and discipline in the works. Unless there is a change of heart on the part of the employers and their representatives in the works—the managers and officers—works committees can never be successful. It is not the mechanism of the committees but the *spirit* that matters most. If this spirit is forthcoming and where there are unions, the mill or factory or departmental committees of unions are recognised for representing the workers' side, the works committees should prove very useful in minimizing friction between the employers and the employees.

The question is to be considered whether it would be more desirable to have works councils by statutory provision as in Germany than to have them on a voluntary basis on the lines of works committees in Great Britain. The League's committee is more inclined to the former, since very few of the employers would take an initiative in the matter if it is left to their option. The existence of works councils on German lines presupposes the existence of conciliation boards and labour courts, and these will be helpful in checking arbitrary dismissals, which is the greatest industrial evil in this country.

### III.—Housing.

16. In Bombay there are chawls (tenements) built by some employers for their employees, but this housing accommodation forms only a very small portion of the housing accommodation required for the labouring population in the city. The Bombay Development Department, which is a Government department, has built several chawls for the working class people, but some of these chawls are still vacant, mainly owing to their out-of-the-way situation. Also the City Improvement Trust has provided housing accommodation. With all this, the housing conditions in general are far from satisfactory. Much remains to be done in clearing the slums and making better sanitary arrangements.

It is not possible in the present circumstances for workers to have houses of their own. Firstly, workers are not certain of their employment and if they are thrown out of employment and see no immediate prospect of getting another job they prefer leaving for their native place to staying here, as the cost of living in Bombay is much higher than in the mofussil. Secondly, even a co-operative housing scheme partially financed by Government and enjoying certain concessions requires some investment by the members and few workers have savings for such investment. Whatever savings are possible are generally sent to the villages where the workers hope to retire in old age.

20. The rent rates in Bombay range between Rs. 5 and Rs. 10 or more. Almost all the working class families live in single rooms. There are thousands of workers whose monthly wages are Rs. 20 or Rs. 22 or less than Rs. 25 each. For such a worker, Rs. 5 or Rs. 6 as monthly rent is too much and the evil of sub-letting is due to this inadequacy of wages.

21. It is true that complaints are heard from employers who have built houses for their employees that some of the tenants in those houses are outsiders, i.e., not their own employees. The fact is that sometimes the employees discharged by their employers and subsequently engaged elsewhere continue to stay in the same place. Those who remain at a place for some years get attached to it owing to friendly relations with the neighbours and are naturally unwilling to change it even for a better one.

It is the opinion of the League's committee that housing accommodation should be provided by public bodies and not by employers, except in those places where no alternative to housing provided by the employer is possible. Housing accommodation provided by employers interferes with the workers' freedom.

22. There can be no doubt about the evil moral effects on workers of bad housing conditions. They deaden the sense of decency, encourage promiscuity, stifle love of cleanliness, lower the standard of life and keep away the workers from higher aspirations.

In the case of new industrial centres, town-planning should be made compulsory, with a view to avoiding future problems of congestion and insanitation.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (iii) Conditions at work places especially in textile mills are not conducive to health. But the conditions in slums are sometimes worse than those in a few mills of a better type in that respect.

(iv) The usual diet of some classes of workers is very poor in quality. This is partly due to low wages and partly to habits and conditions of city life. The staple food of the *Konkanis* workers is rice and the milled rice which is used in Bombay is deprived of vitamins and nutritive elements. The deficiency is not sufficiently made up by the use of other articles in dietary. The *Konkanis* being the inhabitants of coastal districts are also accustomed to eating fish which they get cheaply in their villages. In Bombay fish is a costly article of diet and its dietary value is not at all commensurate with the money spent on it. Adulteration and artificial substitution also deprive a good many articles of much of their real food value.

(v) The *Konkanis* form the majority of skilled workers, but their physique is very poor. In addition to the poverty of nutrition and want of balance in their daily diet these people are more given to drinking than the other classes. Liquor has played a havoc with their constitution. The policy of prohibition alone will stop this evil.

(vi) The effects of disturbance of sex ratio and the relation between housing and morality are beyond doubt.

24. The medical facilities provided by employers are neither adequate nor satisfactory. In most of the mills the dispensaries and the doctors in charge of them are not popular. The dispensaries are popular only where the doctors are sympathetic, careful and efficient. Moreover, workers who cannot attend their work owing to sickness are unable to take advantage of the mill dispensaries. And they are greatly in need of medical aid. Lady doctors are required for women workers who do not as a rule like to be examined by a male doctor. Health visiting and talks on pre-natal and post-natal care will be very useful among women workers. At present this kind of work is very limited.

The Nowrosji Wadia Maternity Hospital at Parel has been very popular among the working class women. Such hospitals on a smaller scale are needed in other working class localities. The success of these hospitals and dispensaries depends mainly on the tact and sympathy displayed by the medical staff. The Social Service League maintains at Parel in the Working Men's Institute a dispensary for women and children and the popularity of the dispensary clearly shows that too much is made of the prejudices of the working class people, especially women, against western



medicine. No doubt some years ago the prejudice was stronger, but during the last ten years or so it has considerably waned. The fact is that in many of the hospitals and public dispensaries the poor class patients do not receive sufficient sympathy and attention and they have not the means of availing themselves of the hospitals and dispensaries privately conducted. At private practitioners' the charge for medicine is not less than eight or ten annas daily and the visiting fee of a qualified doctor is not less than Rs. 3 plus taxi-hire. This expense is too much for an ordinary workman to bear. Of course, it cannot be denied that much ignorance prevails among the working class people in this matter and also one comes across instances in which it will be found that more money is spent for engaging the services of a quack than would have been necessary to pay the charges of a qualified doctor. But the fact that the expenses involved in undergoing treatment at a qualified doctor's are heavy in view of the very limited means of the ordinary workers, is also undeniable.

It is a complaint frequently heard from doctors practising in working class localities that their work is often undone by the ignorance on the part of the patients and their relatives, by want of proper nursing and by want of a sickroom. Medicine alone cannot be efficacious in the absence of proper nursing and proper accommodation for the sick and not a few cases are spoilt by ignorance. Those who live in one-room tenements use the same room as kitchen, sitting room and bedroom, and the same also serves as a sick room. Besides, the tenements are so insanitary that the effects of sickness are sure to be aggravated if the patient is kept there. The League's Committee, therefore, are of opinion that free nursing homes are necessary in working class localities if medical aid is to be really useful to these classes.

30. Sickness insurance schemes are possible in those industries in which skilled and literate labour is employed and where there is some stability in service as, for example, in railway workshops.

31. In March of this year the Bombay Legislative Council passed the Maternity Benefits Bill introduced by Mr. R. S. Asavle. A similar attempt in the form of a resolution had been made by Mr. S. K. Bole, in the local Legislative Council, some five years back, but it had failed. With a view to having an All-India measure, Mr. N. M. Joshi had introduced a Maternity Benefits Bill in the Legislative Assembly some five years ago, but the Bill was defeated.

The League was instrumental in preparing and getting introduced a maternity benefits scheme through its Welfare Institutes, viz., Tata Sons Workmen's Institute and the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute, in several mills under the agency of Tatas and Currimbhoys. It has been found that the burden consequent on the introduction of a maternity benefits scheme is inconsiderable on the employers while it provides a badly needed relief to women workers who are generally poorly paid. The number of women who become entitled to this benefit in a year is small in proportion to the total number of women employed in the same mill.

The League's Committee would urge an all-India measure for providing maternity benefits to women employed in industries.

## V.—Welfare.

### (Other than Health and Housing, but including Education.)

32. From 1918 the Social Service League, Bombay, was carrying on welfare work for the employees of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons and Messrs. Tata Sons in their mills in Bombay for about five years. The work was undertaken by the League at the request of the respective firms who offered to bear all the expenses of the welfare work done for their employees. The League, therefore, started two separate institutes, viz., the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute and the Tata Sons Workmen's Institute. This welfare work consisted of day schools for half-time workers, reading rooms and libraries, night schools for adults, educational classes for women, co-operative credit societies, co-operative stores, cheap grain shops, cheap cloth shops, gymnasia, etc., health visiting, provision of wholesome refreshment at cheap rates during the recess time, joint works committees, etc. The League also succeeded in getting introduced a maternity benefit scheme, and also workers' provident funds. At the League's initiative an all-India Industrial Welfare Conference was held in Bombay in 1922. It was presided over by Mr. A. C. Chatterji (now Sir Aful Chatterji, High Commissioner for India in London) and welfare workers from the different parts of the country together with the representatives of provincial governments and social work institutions took part in the proceedings. The main object of the conference was to bring about a co-ordination in the efforts of, and co-operation between, the various agencies working for the welfare of labour in this country. A permanent organization was also established and this was represented in the first International Welfare (Personnel) Work Conference held in France.

Unfortunately soon after this the trade depression set in and the employers who had introduced welfare work in their works curtailed expenditure in that behalf and also the League was unable to continue its industrial welfare activities financed by the employers, owing to certain reasons. The League, however, continues to be in touch with labour through its independent activities.

Although the welfare work carried on with the financial help of the employers for their employees has been considerably affected by the trade depression, some welfare activities are still continued in several industrial concerns in the various parts of the country, either departmentally or through other agencies financed by the employers. It cannot, however, be said that these activities are the outcome of a well thought out plan aiming at increased efficiency of and contentment amongst the workers. The employers who went in for these activities seem to be dissatisfied with the result achieved hitherto and the employees, on the other hand, also seem to have grown more and more suspicious of these activities. Widespread and acute labour unrest has pushed back welfare work, and it is not a matter for surprise. The fact is that the essentials for success are generally lacking in the welfare work carried on by the employers whether it is carried on departmentally or through other agencies. Welfare work can never be a substitute for fair wages, reasonable hours, stability of employment, just and fair treatment and sympathetic attitude in actual relations. It is too much to expect the workmen to appreciate the welfare activities in the absence of these essentials. Even when the directors and the agents are willing to spend money on welfare work, some of the managers and other officers look upon the expenditure as sheer waste of money and believe that welfare work pampers the workmen who ought not to be encouraged to expect anything from the owners beyond bare wages. And also those who are not so hard hearted seem to believe that welfare work is nothing but charity or philanthropy, and that the workmen must be grateful for these things. The price demanded or expected for this philanthropy is that the workmen should never protest against the treatment they receive in the works; howsoever unfair and unjust it may be.

Welfare work can never be successful and popular amongst the work-people unless the employers realize that it is neither a luxury, nor a philanthropy, nor a means to divert the minds of the workers from the trade union movement, and that it can only be successful as a superstructure on the foundation of justice and fair play. It does not appear that there is such realization on the part of the employers who spend some money on welfare work for their employees. In Bombay welfare activities are carried on departmentally in some mills. A detailed account of these activities may be supplied by the Labour Office. The Y.M.C.A. is carrying on some welfare activities for the employees of some municipal departments. In addition to these, independent welfare activities are carried on in the working class districts as Parel, Naigaon, Chinchpokli, Worli, Tardeo, etc., by the Social Service League, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., the Infant Welfare Society, the Nagpada Neighbourhood, the Arya Mahila Samaj, etc.

35. It is difficult to assess the results hitherto achieved of the welfare work carried on by the employers or by other agencies on their behalf and the work of institutions for the working classes in general. Firstly, because only a fringe of the working class population has been touched by this work; and secondly, because most of the results are intangible and diffused in character. The fact, however, cannot be denied that the work has not gone in vain, although the expectations of the employers, welfare workers, and social workers in general may not have been fulfilled to their satisfaction. The working classes have become familiar with some new useful ideas and that is not a small gain. The welfare workers of the League had an uphill task when they began their work in Bombay. They had to fight strong prejudices on the part of both the officers and the workers. Most of the prejudices on part of the workers have been since overcome. The welfare workers' path from that point of view has now become smoother. Now a greater number of workmen and women go in for rational medical treatment when they are sick, while formerly many of them avoided going to a doctor. When the League opened its first *creche* in one of the mills entrusted to it for welfare work, the women were unwilling to bring their babies to it, considering it to be a kind of hospital, which connoted a number of horrors to their mind. After a few months the *creche* was full of babies and the other *creches* which followed found no difficulty in attracting babies to themselves. The working class women had a strong prejudice against lying-in hospitals some years ago. When the Wadia Maternity Hospital was started, the main difficulty was how to get patients to take advantage of it. The League's workers helped the doctors in charge of the hospital to persuade the workers to send their wives for confinement to the hospital, and owing to the tact and sympathy shown by the doctors and the matron who showed themselves to be sincere social servants, the prejudice against the use of lying-in hospitals was overcome. In a few years it became very popular. The original accommodation proved insufficient and now it is one of the largest hospitals in the city of Bombay. Similarly the

co-operative movement though confined to credit societies is no longer an unfamiliar thing to the workers. Some of the experiments in welfare work have, no doubt, failed. It was inevitable that in the initial stage there should be some failures. These have, however, served to afford those who are interested in labour a deeper insight into the conditions in which workmen have to work and live.

36. So far as Bombay is concerned the provision of educational facilities by employers is inconsiderable. In textile mills half-time workers are not employed at present. Apart from the fact that millowners have become even more indifferent on such matters than they were a few years back, owing to the labour unrest, there is the difficulty of providing educational facilities for the employees of a particular mill, factory, or workshop, due to the scattered condition of the workmen so far as their residential places are concerned. The workmen of a mill do not live in the same locality.

37 There can be no doubt about the desirability of providing for old age and premature retirement. At present the Indian workers except those employed in railway workshops and a few other concerns are unprovided for in this respect. The condition of unskilled workers is still more deplorable in old age, or after premature retirement, than that of the skilled workers. A very few of the workers are able to save enough which they can fall back on in time of need. Many have to depend upon their relatives and not a few have to spend the remaining years of their life in misery. The joint family system has, however, in this respect, proved useful. But the joint family system is disappearing and the necessity of provision for old age is being felt. It must, however, be borne in mind that so long as there is no stability of employment and workers are arbitrarily dismissed, no provident fund or pension scheme can be popular among the workers. Workers in most of the industrial concerns are uncertain of their employment and also they do not like any portion of their wages to be in the hands of their employers, whom they distrust. They are afraid of losing their independence by entrusting their contributions to the employers. Even if the old age and premature retirement pensions scheme is not to be on a contributory basis and the pension is to be paid solely from the employers' pockets it is doubtful in the present conditions how far the scheme will be successful. In the absence of continuity of service, due to want of stability and the absence of leave rules and system of granting and recording leave; proper investigation into cases of dismissal for indiscipline, loitering, inefficiency, etc., very few workmen are likely to qualify themselves for the benefits intended. It is the opinion of the League's committee that in view of the conditions prevailing at present which are not likely to improve in the near future, and also in view of the desirability of leaving the independence of labour untouched, the provision for old age and premature retirement should be made through the State on the lines of the Old Age Pension scheme in Great Britain.

38. The League has till now organized over a hundred co-operative societies, the majority being credit societies consisting of members belonging to the working class. The co-operative credit societies of which the unit of organization is a mill or workshop or a particular department thereof, have special advantages as well as disadvantages. As it is not possible to deal with this question at length here, it may be briefly stated that the number of defaulters can be reduced only by an arrangement to have the amount of monthly instalments of repayment of loans deducted from the wages. When the employers refuse to help in this way, not only the number of defaulters increases, but also the men who stand as surety have to suffer unnecessarily. The want of stability of employment is also a fact which renders the recoveries of loans difficult. Besides, the credit societies forming a part of a welfare scheme financed by employers are of no use to the workmen during the period of strike when a workman needs a loan very badly, for during the time of strike or lockout the societies automatically cease to function. The credit societies, consisting of members from the mill-workers class, have suffered a good deal during the last two years owing to two prolonged general strikes and a number of small ones. The danger to welfare credit societies is still greater owing to the change of workers that occurs after a prolonged strike. In short, although the welfare credit societies have saved a number of workmen from the clutches of professional money-lenders and thus have served to some extent the purpose for which they were intended, the fact cannot be denied that the societies organized on the basis of locality, community, or the native village, especially the last, are better than welfare societies in many respects. They tend to foster the spirit of co-operation and thrift, while the welfare credit societies tend to be mechanical.

Co-operative production is out of the question in welfare work. Co-operative distribution in the form of stores was tried, but it did not prove successful. The greatest difficulty in the way is the habit of the people of making purchases on credit, which is allowed by grain-dealers and also by other traders. The temptation offered in the form of credit facilities is too much in the case of most of the workers, although these facilities cost them much in the end.

Lastly, co-operation whether in credit or distribution cannot be expected to yield considerable results in the case of those workers whose wages are insufficient for bare maintenance.

39. *Possibility and Desirability of a Statutory Miners' Welfare Fund.*—The desirability of such a fund is manifest in view of the conditions of the workers employed in mines, especially those in which no provision is made for the education of workers' children, maternity benefits, medical relief, housing, sanitation, etc. There is no reason why such a fund should not be possible in this country on the lines of the same kind of fund in Great Britain. Also, the principle underlying a statutory Miners' Welfare Fund may be extended to all organized industries.

## VI. Education.

40. The Bombay municipality has made primary education free and compulsory in F and G wards of the city, which contain a large working class population. Although actual compulsion is rarely resorted to, the number of school-going children has increased since the element of compulsion was introduced. There is also a large number of working class people in E and B wards of the city, and although the Municipal Corporation has seen the necessity of introducing free and compulsory education in those wards, it has not yet been possible to carry out the scheme owing to paucity of funds. At the present rate of progress it will take several years to make primary education free and compulsory throughout the city.

In Bombay the employment of persons in factories and mills below the age of 15 years is now very rare and consequently there is no provision for education of such children.

There are some night schools for adults. The Social Service League is one of the institutions in the city that are conducting night schools. The league was conducting night-schools for millworkers when it was carrying on welfare work for employees of several mills. It has been the League's experience that although the night-schools for imparting education to adults are useful to some extent, the actual results achieved are not commensurate with the money and labour spent on them. Of course, instances of men having taken advantage of a night-school and becoming literates can be shown, but there is a good deal of waste. The attendance is irregular and the average period during which a student takes advantage of a night-school is too short to become of any practical use to him. No wonder many of these lapse into illiteracy again after a few months. The fact is that most of the adults attending primary schools find it tedious to follow the instructions. On the other hand those who have gone through the primary course in childhood stick to the night-school if they go there when grown up.

The league has been conducting night-schools for importing secondary education and it has been found that there is very little waste. The attendance is much more regular and the average period during which a student takes advantage of such school is much longer. The league maintains a night high school in a working class locality, which is registered with the University of Bombay for sending up students for the matriculation and School Leaving Certificate Examinations. The students taking advantage of this high school, together with the middle school attached to it, are peons, workmen, office-boys and others.

Adult education will become much more popular and widespread when primary education becomes universal. The illiteracy of the working classes in Bombay City will not be fully liquidated, even if primary education is made free and compulsory throughout the city, unless the same educational progress is made in the mofussil, for there is a constant flow of adult population into Bombay City from the mofussil.

41. Facilities for industrial and vocational training are very limited. And even if they existed on a more liberal scale only a few boys from the working class families could take advantage of them, since a systematic training requires acquaintance with the three R's on the part of the students. Besides, there is the difficulty of maintaining the boys for a few years while at industrial schools. This is not possible for the majority of workers. If these schools are to be useful to the working class boys, a maintenance scholarship scheme will have to be devised. Also, nearly the same results can be achieved by introducing a paid apprenticeship scheme in which the boys will be required to work for a few hours in the works and to attend the classes attached to the works, where it is possible to start such classes in connection with a workshop, a mill, or a factory. It will, however, be more convenient to start in working class localities, schools having morning, afternoon and night-classes where boys working in different mills, factories and workshops may be given industrial and vocational training. The night-class will be useful for adults working whole time at the place of their employment and the boys will be half-time workers, those working in the morning attending the classes in the afternoon and *vice versa*.

42. There can be no doubt that the spread of education will help to raise the standard of living and also the level of efficiency.

### VII. Safety.

46. For accident prevention there is no "Safety First" propaganda by employers who have not, it seems, yet realized the importance of such a propaganda even from the selfish point of view. The millowners of Bombay have started a mutual insurance company for paying compensation to workers for accidental injuries, which can easily carry on a safety first propaganda in the mills and thus succeed in saving much more money than that will have to be spent on the propaganda and also saving human lives and preventing a number of accidents involving claims for compensation. In respect of first aid and medical relief much can be done in mills, factories, and workshops. It is not that first aid is available in all mills and factories, and owing to the want of first aid and the necessary instructions to the injured, injuries are likely to develop into serious ones and even to end fatally.

49. That the inspecting staff is not able to visit all the factories in the Presidency regularly is clear from the Factories Inspectors' Annual Report. Some factories remain unvisited by a factory inspector throughout a year. Naturally factory inspection is not stringent enough and the regulations are not strictly enforced in a number of factories. Some factory-owners try to evade the provisions of the Factory Act by showing a less number of employees on the muster than the minimum number necessary to constitute a factory under the Act, although the number actually employed by them is over the said minimum. Such factory owners try to avoid the responsibility of paying compensation to the workmen who have received injury through accident in the course of their employment.

50. There can be no doubt as to the adverse effects of safety of excessive hours, poor health (rendering a man nervous), defective light and unsatisfactory working conditions easily bringing about fatigue.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. Owing to the illiteracy and ignorance that prevail among the Indian workers, although some years have passed since the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act came into force, some workers are still unaware of the fact, and that a number of claims may remain unrepresented and unsatisfied. The league's workers have come across cases in which the injured workmen came to know that they were entitled to compensation after the period of six months, within which claims must be filed had elapsed. This shows that provisions of the Act are still unknown to some workmen, especially to those employed in construction work and in factories in the mofussil. It is, however, difficult to estimate the percentage of claims remaining unrepresented, owing to the ignorance of workers.

The effects on industry of the Compensation Act are negligible and the financial burden due to the Act can still be lightened by a safety first propaganda. That the Bombay Millowners' Mutual Insurance Company has been able to show profits is a point that should be noted in this connection.

The millowners have formed an insurance company of their own and there are other insurance companies for this purpose. Insurance is desirable from the workers' point of view, since the employer is not directly interested in opposing a claim. When the employer is directly interested in opposing a claim he is naturally inclined to make use of all the means—fair or foul—at his disposal for disproving the claim. He can suppress evidence as the witnesses are his employees, whom he can intimidate and prevent from telling the truth.

52. The Workmen's Compensation Act needs to be extended to some industrial concerns and business establishments which do not come within the purview of the present Act. Accidents on the Cotton Green and in large warehouses outside the docks ought to be covered by the Act. In these establishments, cotton bales and other big loads have to be handled by the workers, cranes are also used, and accidents ending fatally or in permanent disability frequently occur. The employers are rich enough to bear the compensation charges. Soda-water factories and flour mills must also be brought under the Act, accidents being common in them, especially in the former. Many of these factories and mills are not covered by the Act, since the number of workers employed in them is less than that is necessary to constitute a factory under the Factory Act. Of course, these mills and factories are small concerns, but by resorting to insurance they can avoid the possibility of having to pay large sums in lump by way of compensation.

53. (i) The league's committee thinks that the maximum amount of compensation allowed in this Act should be increased in the cases of permanent disability from Rs. 3,500 to Rs. 4,500, and in fatal cases from Rs. 2,500 to Rs. 3,500, so that the object of the Act may be adequately fulfilled.

(ii) As regards the conditions governing grant of compensation, it is the opinion of the league's committee that in a case of fatal accident the claim should not be allowed to be contested on the ground of negligence on the part of the deceased,

since nobody wants to lose his life for nothing. In this respect it is necessary that the Indian Act should be brought into line with the English law. Also the plea that an employee fatally injured was not attending to his or her legitimate duty should not be allowed to prevail. The dependents of an employee who has thus lost his or her life are in a helpless position and it is very easy for the employer whom the other employees who alone are eyewitnesses in the cases cannot afford to displease by telling the truth, to establish by producing evidence that the deceased worker was not doing his or her legitimate work at the time of the accident or that the accident was due to negligence on his or her part.

(iii) Claims for compensation in cases of industrial diseases are very few; firstly, because most of the workers engaged in industries in which workers are liable to be affected with certain diseases, do not know that they are entitled to compensation should they be so affected; secondly, because it is difficult to prove a claim of this nature.

(iv) The present Commissioner for Bombay Presidency is not a whole-time officer for compensation work, having also other duties to perform. A whole-time officer would be better able to devote his attention to this work.

(v) The league's committee would like to suggest that in all cases, even in those in which workmen or their dependents agree to receive amounts in settlement of their claims, compensation amounts should be paid through the commissioner, and all the agreements should be registered with the commissioner, so that employers may not take undue advantage of the claimants' ignorance, illiteracy, and helplessness. Under the present Act it is open to workmen to repudiate agreements if they are not registered with the commissioner, but the majority of workmen do not know that they can do so. Also it should be made compulsory on the part of employers to inform the commissioner as soon as an accident occurs, and failure to do so should be made a criminal offence. This arrangement will enable the commissioner to find out the cases in which the workmen have not received compensation.

In view of the main object of the Compensation Act, viz., that the victim of an industrial accident resulting in permanent disability may not be rendered destitute and thus be a burden on the community, and that the dependents of a worker fatally injured through accident or fatally affected with an industrial disease may not be rendered totally helpless and dependent on the charity of their relatives or the community, it is necessary to see that the amounts paid by employers by way of compensation are properly utilized. Generally speaking, the workers do not know how to make a safe investment when they get a lump sum and often the result is that they are deceived by interested persons among their relatives, caste people, or villagers, and ultimately they become destitute. Especially this is so with regard to women receiving compensation as dependents. Where minors are concerned, it should be made a rule that the amount should be paid by instalments through the commissioner or in the mofussil through the Mamlatdar of the Taluka in which the village is situated. In the case of young widows also it is necessary that the amount should be paid by instalments and should a widow remarry the remaining amount should be paid to the dependents of the deceased coming next in order.

*Business Agencies for Compensation.*—Since the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act came into force business agencies have been started for helping workmen or their dependents to obtain compensation. Many of the workmen or workmen's dependents entitled to compensation under the Act, no doubt, need help. But the ignorance and illiteracy which prevent the working-class people from obtaining compensation due to them, unaided, are likely to be exploited by unscrupulous agents for their own benefit and the object of the Act is thus likely to be partially defeated. It is, therefore, quite necessary in the interest of the claimants under the Act to subject the transactions of these business agencies to some restrictions. The Social Service League can speak on this matter with some authority, since it was carrying on the work of helping workmen or their dependents to obtain compensation. This work was under the supervision of a sub-committee, the chairman of which was Mr. K. M. Javeri, late Chief Judge of the Court of Small Causes, who was also for some time an acting Judge in the Bombay High Court. A certain percentage was charged on the amount of compensation secured, but the department started for this activity never paid its way and ultimately it had to be closed. It is nearly impossible for a respectable public institution successfully to compete with business agencies, the latter being free to resort to any devices and methods. Almost all the cases of fatal accidents coming within the purview of the Act went to business agencies, and only cases of permanent or temporary, total or partial disability had to be undertaken by the league. Cases of the latter sort are generally expensive, since such claims are often contested by employers and the fees of lawyers and medical experts are to be paid. The league charged commission at a flat rate, so that claims involving small sums, but contested by the employers, should not result even if successful in depriving the

claimants of a large portion of the amount. Claims in fatal accidents are easier to prove and had the league got such cases also in sufficient number along with cases requiring extra expenditure, the league would not have been forced to discontinue this useful activity.

It has also been found that a business agency which generally undertakes compensation cases on behalf of workmen has no scruples to undertake to fight workmen's claims on behalf of employers. This should not be allowed. The plea that a lawyer can take any side which pays his fees is no argument in this matter. Agencies are allowed to represent workers' side, not as lawyers but as a special concession in the interest of the workers. The employers must always be represented by professional lawyers or their own representatives.

The league's committee, therefore, thinks that there should be a provision in the Act or in the Rules under the Act for safeguarding the interests of claimants for compensation against profiteering by business agencies.

54. It is but just and reasonable that workmen should be free to take action under the Employers' Liability Act which would entitle them to a larger amount of compensation than what is allowed under the Workmen's Compensation Act, since the amount of compensation in cases of injuries due to an employer's negligence must be considerably larger than the amount in such cases of injuries as may be considered incidental to the industry itself.

In this connection my committee would like to point out that the Government of India had included in the draft of the Workmen's Compensation Bill which was first introduced in the Legislative Assembly in 1922, certain provisions on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act and that those provisions were subsequently deleted by the Select Committee.

#### IX.—Hours.

Even the hours allowed at present under the Factories Act, are, in the opinion of the league's committee, excessive and eight hours' system should be introduced at an early date. Should eight hours' work be made universal, there would be more efficiency and the employers would also be compelled to adopt labour-saving and time-saving devices, giving up their present indifference. Side by side with this reform, facilities for utilizing leisure in a better and healthier way should be provided to the working-class people.

#### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

81. It cannot be said that the effect of the 1922 Act has been in any way undesirable on employment.

In Bombay, juvenile labour was not much used in the mills, and at present there are practically no half-time workers in Bombay mills. Also infants were never admitted in mills here, even where there was not a single mill crèche. The practice has been prevalent only in the mills in Ahmedabad.

86. There are no facilities for a systematic training of young adults in many of the industries.

88. Although the question about double shift system does not arise so far as the industries in Bombay are concerned, it may be laid down that night-work should be prohibited for women, young adults and children.

89. In building and other construction work, women are employed in large numbers. Some of them are required to lift and carry loads up and down ladders. It is, therefore, necessary that the employment of women in carrying heavy loads should be prohibited and for that purpose the Act may be extended to building and other construction work. The use by local governments of Section 2 (3) (b) appears to be very rare. The bidi-making industry (industry of making cigarettes of uncured tobacco) in Bombay is one of the industries to which the Act needs to be extended. The bidi shopkeepers employ a number of persons, the majority of whom are women, and they are required to work in insanitary, ill-ventilated places which are crowded with workers. It has been found that the percentage of patients suffering from tuberculosis is very high among women employed in bidi-making.)

#### XI.—Special Question relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.

No race discrimination should be observed in the treatment of seamen in respect of rations and accommodation.

#### XII.—Wages.

97. There has been an all-round increase in wages since the Great War, owing to the increase in the cost of living. The wages were not, however, increased by the employers voluntarily. In Bombay, especially in the textile industry, the workers

had to resort to strike to wrest an increase every time. This meant that wages did not keep pace with the cost of living and that the workers had to suffer from high prices as well as from strikes involving loss of wages. The cost of living is shown to have decreased, but on the whole house rent has increased and so far as the mill industry is concerned, the workers have ceased to receive annual bonuses, which being over and above the wages, enabled the lowest-paid class of workers to meet the higher cost of living. Moreover, owing to the depression of trade there has been recently much unemployment, not a few of the workers having to remain idle now and again. If the average earnings of an average worker are spread over the last three or four years, it will be found that the average monthly earnings have been much less than the average monthly earnings when the cost of living had reached its peak.

Although in the mill industry, which is the premier industry of Bombay, the wages have nominally stood at the same level, the average monthly earning of piece-workers, who form the better-paid portion of mill operatives, have decreased owing to manipulation of piece-rates.

(iv) When the employers had to increase wages in response to the workers' demand when prices of the necessaries of life were soaring high, the increase in wages bore no relation to the profits which were then fabulous. It is, therefore, not fair to bring in the relation of wages to profits now. Some of the employers had set apart a fund out of the profits for the equalization of dividends, but none of them thought of having a similar fund for the equalization of wages.

100. The system of payment through contractors, sub-contractors, or headmen, is still prevalent in certain kinds of work especially in building and construction, excavation, and loading and unloading work. Sometimes workers have to suffer on account of this system. The wages are kept in arrears and at the end the workers have to lose the wages earned by them owing to the refusal of the sub-contractor or indefinite delay in payment, or his evasive replies. The former being illiterate and unorganized are unable to recover their wages. Especially is this so when the sub-contractor is a mere adventurer, having no reputation to lose and also having no assets that can be attached. The interest of these workers ought to be protected by requiring the owner of the building, etc., or the concern or establishment for which the contractor or head man is engaged, to receive a deposit from the latter as guarantee for due payment of the wages to the persons engaged by him, the main responsibility being the owner's, and the contractor's in the case of a defaulting sub-contractor. Or each contractor or sub-contractor may be required by law to take out a licence to carry on such business providing sureties for due payment of wages to the workers. This will save the workers from unscrupulous or insolvent contractors and sub-contractors.

101. Wages are fixed by negotiated agreements between the employers and the employees only in those industries the workers in which are organized to some extent. But there are many industries, concerns, and establishments in which the workers are not at all organized. Especially in the case of unskilled workers, the wages are fixed on the principle of demand and supply. The number of organized workers is very small as compared with the total number of workers. It is, therefore, necessary to have some machinery on the lines of the Trade Boards in England for fixing minimum wages in such industries as are not organized on the workers' sides. There can be no doubt as to the advisability of a statutory establishment for fixing minimum wages. Also it should not be found impossible to devise such machinery for fixing and revising minimum wages and rates in different industries and localities from time to time.

106. Fines are very common and in some cases they are excessive. Even where they are not excessive the workers do not get an opportunity to prove the injustice done to them through imposition of fines by their immediate superiors. In some mills and factories the fines have to be confirmed by the manager, but that procedure is merely formal and no real investigation is made by the manager before an order for fine is confirmed. Other deductions consist of recovering the price of a spoiled article from the workman, recovering housing rent or price of grain supplied through the cheap grain shop; the last being unobjectionable as generally the grain is supplied at cost price and it is left to the option of each worker whether he should take advantage of the concession or not. The most objectionable is the deduction of wages for spoilt articles. In some mills the practice of handing over the spoilt cloth to the weaver and deducting the price from his wages is prevalent. The piece of cloth thus handed over to a weaver has to be disposed of by him, and he gets much less than what has been deducted from his wages by way of its price. Also in the case of house accommodation provided by employers, sometimes the rent charged to the workers is excessive in consideration of the accommodation of which the workers are forced to avail themselves if they have to retain the job. In some out-of-the-way places there is no other housing accommodation and that provided by the employer



is wretched. In such cases the employers should be required to provide sanitary houses and the rent should bear a certain proportion to the wages of each worker. The fines must be utilized for the welfare of the workers themselves. Employers should be required to keep a separate account of fines and their utilization.

Legislation on the lines of the Truck Acts in England is quite necessary in India.

107. Wages as a rule are paid monthly. The exception is found in the case of casual labour. Even those workmen who are considered as engaged on daily wages are paid monthly; and each time the wages are kept in arrears for a week or more. In the textile mills, payment of wages is not made before a period of from 10 days to a fortnight of the following month elapses. This means that each worker's wages for 10 days on an average are kept in arrears. A new worker has to wait for the payment of his wages for about a month and a half. Thus a new worker, unless he stays with his relatives and is helped by them, has to begin his life in Bombay in indebtedness. Certainly this is bad for him both morally and economically, morally bad because he becomes used to the habit of contracting debts at the threshold of his career as a wage-earner.

The system of weekly payment will be beneficial to workers in many ways. They will not have to begin their life in Bombay with the handicap of indebtedness, and also afterwards they will better realize the proportion of their expenditure to their earnings. Also it is very likely that the habit of purchasing grain, etc., on credit will be considerably checked since the grain dealer himself will have to recover his dues weekly instead of monthly as at present. It is, however, a fact that some of the leaders of workmen are opposed to the system of weekly payment. Their main objection is that more money will be spent on liquor. Liquor shops are crowded on pay-days of mill-workers and under the weekly payment system there will be four pay-days in a month instead of one as at present. There is, no doubt, some truth in this objection. The fear is not quite groundless. The League's Committee is, however, inclined to think that the fear is rather exaggerated, because the recklessness in expenditure fostered by the monthly payment system is bound to be checked by the weekly payment system. All the same, the present excise policy of the Government is undeniably responsible to a great extent for the economic degradation of the working-classes.

(iv) The so-called unclaimed wages is a scandal, so far at least as the Bombay mills are concerned. These unclaimed wages are in fact not so much unclaimed as unpaid. In some cases the payment is often put off from time to time and the worker concerned becomes tired of going to the mill again and again, if the wages are due for a few days only and he has to waste time and take the risk of losing his new employment. Also a discharged worker is flatly refused the wages due to him for a few days. Again, the millowners have made a rule not to pay wages when six months have elapsed after they become due. This is an arbitrary rule, and a number of workmen who go to their native place and remain there on account of domestic difficulties for over six months, have to find on return that their wages have been forfeited. At present there is no legal obligation on the part of employers to utilize the "unclaimed" wages in a particular way. But the employers are not at all entitled to appropriate these amounts and must be compelled to spend them on the workers' welfare.

108. Indebtedness is common both in villages and industrial areas. However, the rate of interest charged on loans by money-lenders is as a rule much higher in industrial areas than in villages. Some classes of workers in cities are perpetually in debt. The rate of interest charged by professional money-lenders in Bombay, ranges between 75 and 300 per cent. per annum. The result is that the person who contracts debts from a professional money-lender is able to pay the interest at the most, and goes on paying interest for years together without ever being able to pay off the original amount of loan. Only a few working-class families will be found who are free from indebtedness. The League's Committee would suggest the establishment of municipal pawnshops as in Germany. This will save a large number of workers from usurious interest and shady accounts.

109. So far as the League's Committee is aware no employer has yet gone in for a profit-sharing scheme. The millworkers received an annual bonus for a few years during the boom period. The bonus was stopped as soon as the profits began to dwindle. The maximum amount of the annual bonus was equal to a worker's average monthly wage during the year, and the amount was proportionately reduced if the worker worked for nine months or six months only during the year. The amount of bonus each worker received at the end of the year had no relation to the amount of profits realized by the employer. During the period when the bonus system was in practice, it was found that the workers were more regular and steady in attendance so that they should be able to earn the bonus. Thus they did sometimes at the cost of their health, as they did not leave Bombay even when it was advisable for them to go out for a change of climate and when rest was absolutely necessary.

Another bad effect from the labour point of view was that the workers had meekly to submit to any kind of treatment at the hands of their superiors. It was, however, a much needed relief from a purely economic point of view inasmuch as those who had contracted debts could pay them off, and those who were able to save nothing during the year with all economy could have something to lay by when they received a lump sum.

110. In mill industry which is the premier industry of Bombay, the workers are not entitled to any privilege leave even when they have put in several years' service, nor can they get sick leave on full or partial wages. The general practice for a worker is to get discharge from service when he has to go to his native place, and when he returns to work he is considered a new employee. There is no regular system of sanctioning and recording leave. Since continuous service does not confer any special privileges on the workers they also are indifferent in this matter.

111. Undoubtedly a Fair Wages Clause in public contracts is necessary, but for the determination of "Fair Wages" it is necessary also to have a Minimum Wage legislation.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112 to 114. In the absence of a scientific study of and statistics bearing on efficiency in the past continuing up to the present, it is not possible to make an accurate estimate of increase or decrease in efficiency of Indian workers in recent years. Opinions are, therefore, likely to differ on this point even among the employers. It is often asserted by the employers that there has not been any considerable improvement in the efficiency of workers. Supposing it is a fact, one ought to hesitate before pronouncing a verdict. Efficiency is not an independent thing; so many factors contribute to it. Many of these factors are to be provided by the employers, the State and public bodies. Labour alone cannot increase its efficiency. It must be induced and helped to do so.

As regards comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers, the League's Committee is not prepared to admit that the Indian worker is so less efficient than the workers in other countries as represented by the employers and those who are misled by superficial comparisons. This question had been incidentally considered by the Indian Factory Labour Commission of 1908. At that time the late Dr. T. M. Nair, one of the members of the Commission, had pointed out in connection with labour efficiency in English and Indian textile mills, that *for the same money the Indian millowner got nearly double the work that an English millowner did*. Mr. C. B. Simpson, of Messrs. Binny & Co. of Madras, had shown by calculation that 2.62 Indian employees were equal to 1 English worker, but he was not prepared to say that if 982 Lancashire workers came to India they would run a mill worked by 2,622 Indian operatives. Comparisons are useless and misleading unless conditions are identical. Mr. Rajani Kant Das in his book on "Factory Labour in India" refutes the prevailing notion that three factory employees in India are equal to one in Great Britain, on the ground that there does not exist the equality of working conditions for such comparison. This argument is reinforced in "Hindustani Workers on the Pacific Coast" by the same author, by the evidence of American and Canadian employers showing that Indian workers in California and British Columbia are as good as Chinese, Japanese, American, and Canadian workers.

Comparisons in efficiency are no doubt affected by the factors enumerated in the questionnaire, viz., migration of workers, use of machinery, comparative efficiency of plant, comparative efficiency of management, physique, health, education, standard of living, and climate. The League's Committee would add to these the quality of the raw material supplied to the workers. As regards migration of workers, the League's Committee would like to point out that Indian labour is not migratory in the strictest sense of the word. Though an Indian worker goes to his native village from time to time, he returns to the same industrial work in the city, and follows the same occupation for a number of years. The change of climate resorted to by the Indian workman once in a year or two results in benefit to his health, and he returns to his work in a fitter condition than that in which he generally leaves for his native village.

It is not that the Indian worker is naturally inefficient but that very little has been done to improve his efficiency. He is ill-paid, ill-fed, ill-housed and illiterate; and also what results from bad management, bad or out-of-date machinery, bad material and bad business organization is attributed to his inefficiency. The following remarks of the late Dr. T. M. Nair expressed in his minute of dissent on the Report of the Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1908, are as true to-day as they were over 20 years ago:—"In my humble opinion, in India it is the worker who suffers from bad management and not the management that suffers from bad workers."

115. Changes in working hours, changes in other working conditions, expenditure on health and sanitation, housing, alterations in methods of remuneration, movements in wage levels, legislative enactments, dietary, alcohol and drugs, and industrial fatigue are sure to affect production to a more or less extent. Most of the employers in India and their managers are conservative to a degree and do not care to know what has been achieved in other industrially advanced countries in these matters. Their patent excuse for not going in for an experiment is that the conditions in India are altogether different and that what has been possible elsewhere would not be possible in this country. Hence, experiments and studies of their results are very rare. Time and motion study, study of industrial psychology and scientific management, are nearly unknown.

Alcohol is responsible to a great extent for the want of required standard of efficiency. Among certain communities of the working classes addiction to drink is widespread and the result is physical deterioration and economic degradation which must necessarily tell on efficiency. In short, it may be stated without fear of contradiction that the Government reaps excise revenue at the cost of the efficiency of those who are the real producers of wealth.

116. Increased efficiency can be obtained if the State, the employers, public bodies and the general public will do their duty by introducing the necessary reforms and removing the present handicaps on efficiency.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. Employers in many of the large industries are organized while workers in many industries are still unorganized, and the workers' organizations that are in existence are not strong enough to put up a successful fight against the employers when the interests of the workers are to be protected. The membership of a number of workers' trade unions is very small as compared with the number of workers employed in those trades or industries. Also the workers' movement suffers from multiplicity of unions in the same trade or industry. The employers are naturally in a much stronger position, their associations being compact and well supplied with funds. The effect of employers' organizations should not necessarily be adverse on the conditions of workers in their employment. Both the industry concerned and the workers engaged in it should benefit from an employers' organization if it is guided by a progressive spirit and enlightened self-interest. But unfortunately the general tendency of these organisations is reactionary. It is found that the least competent among the employers set the pace, with the result that industry and workers suffer alike.

119. The trade union movement in this country is only ten or eleven years old and some of the unions have been only recently started. Most of the unions have not yet been able to undertake schemes for unemployment benefit, old age pensions or strike pay.

120. The illiteracy prevalent among the working classes is a serious handicap on the trade union movement in this country. There is dissatisfaction among the workers and the discontent breaks out in strikes from time to time, but it is very difficult to make the majority of workers understand the principles of trade union movement. Before the trade unions came into existence the workers had their own methods to get their grievances redressed. Those methods were also successful sometimes, although they were crude. The trade union methods have not yet won the workers' faith, since the employers have not shown that they are open to reason. The employers' attitude as a rule is hostile to the trade union movement and the constitutional methods of trade unionism impose some disadvantages in strategy and tactics of the warfare between the employers and the employees. The employers are quick to exploit those disadvantages for making their position stronger.

The employers look with disfavour on trade unions and complaints about victimisation of workmen taking a prominent part in the trade union movement are frequently heard. Some employers refuse to recognize unions of their workers and to deal with them. This naturally tends to destroy the faith of workers in constitutional methods.

121. *Trade Unions Act, 1926.*—Registered trade unions have to be conducted in such a way that a good deal of clerical, accountancy and correspondence work is to be done. This renders the workers much dependent on outside help, and in the case of small unions the expenses of engaging efficient outside help are nearly prohibitive. The League's Committee would, therefore, suggest the advisability of the Government's issuing instructions to the registrars of trade unions to avoid red-tapeism as much as possible. The registrars of the trade unions and their staff should consider themselves as belonging to a department of social service.

122. *Miscellaneous Questions Regarding Trade Unions.*—Employers complain of lightning strikes occurring even where the workers are organized into a trade union. In this connection it must be remembered firstly, that in a mill, workshop, factory

or concern, or a department thereof, all the workers are not members of the union concerned; secondly, that the procedure to get the workers' grievances redressed before deciding to resort to strike, is such as enables the employer to adopt dilator tactics and thus to subject the workers' enthusiasm for concerted action to cold douches and also to gain time for causing breaches in the ranks of the workers by intimidation or promises of personal gain.

In order to be able to secure the workers' co-operation for increasing efficiency of production the employers must first take them into their confidence, must show by their acts that they deserve the workers' confidence, must lay all the cards on the table and must be prepared for a square deal. Workers should not be expected to extend their co-operation unless they are satisfied that they too will be benefitted by increased efficiency and the proposals from the employers are not made simply for increasing the latter's profits.

The position of employees in State industrial concerns in relation to general trade union movement cannot be said to be much better than that of employees in capitalist industrial concerns. As a case in point the railwaymen's unions may be mentioned.

### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. The causes of industrial disputes are various. Sometimes they are really very serious, and when they are apparently trivial, it is the result of accumulated grievances remaining unredressed. The serious causes include proposals for reduction of wages by employers, demands for increased wages by workers, dissatisfaction among the workers owing to the introduction of new systems of work without the consultation of workers, quarrels between the parties over piece work rates, fines, assaults, victimization, excessive hours of work, rate of wages for overtime work, etc.

Naturally strikes and lockouts result in loss to industry and workers. Some disputes during the last two or three years affecting thousands of workers continued in the form of strikes or lockouts for months together. A few of the disputes were settled though not before both the parties had suffered a good deal, but in most disputes it was a trial of strength between the employers and the employees amounting to a war of attrition. Even in those cases in which strikes were settled they left embittered feelings on both sides.

Recrudescence of labour trouble has, therefore, been the order of the day. The employers are generally in a better position in that there is widespread unemployment among the workers. Moreover, the former know for certain that the workers on strike must yield sooner or later through sheer economic exhaustion.

124. The Government of Bombay had appointed in 1921 a committee under the chairmanship of Sir Stanley Reed to enquire into the causes of industrial disputes and to suggest measures for bringing about speedy settlements thereof. On the recommendations of this committee the Bombay Government decided to introduce a Trade Dispute Bill in the local legislature but when the Government of India was asked to grant permission for the introduction of that Bill, the permission was withheld on the ground that it must be an all-India measure and that the Government of India was contemplating the introduction of a similar Bill in the central legislature. Several years, however, elapsed before the Government of India could bring forward a Trade Disputes Bill in the Legislative Assembly. Had the measure come into existence without much loss of time, much loss to industry, and workers would have been avoided and much experience would have been gained by this time for amending the measure for its more satisfactory working.

Providing machinery for regulation of relations between employers and the workers can be possible only when workmen's unions are freely recognized and treated and accepted as a necessary part of industrial organization.

Let the from same India to his village. It has been done, and also in material in as remarks consider of the India 20 years again of bad management factory

Opportunity must be afforded to workpeople of making representations and such representations must be sympathetically considered. It is inherent in Indian conditions to render impossible the application of Trade Boards, Trade Boards and Joint Industrial Councils in this country. The right spirit on the part of the employers' and workers' organizations is the former.

125. The League's Committee would like to point out in such cases liabilities imposed on workers employed in public utility services proposed in the public interest, have not been compensated. The workers in public utility services are deprived of the protection of authorities or officials knowing this full well are sure to be treated with indifference. The workers employed in such services are deprived of the weapon of strike they must be assured that their grievances are promptly redressed. The workers employed in such services should be allowed to form their unions and to formulate

their grievances, a suitable machinery must be devised for investigation and redress of their grievances and it must be made compulsory for the authorities concerned to follow the procedure laid down in the interest of labour. Otherwise to be employed in a public utility service will be a penalty for the workers.

126. The attitude of Government towards trade combinations is not sufficiently sympathetic, Government in this country being itself a great employer of labour. Government has not shown readiness to recognize the unions of workers employed under it. As regards the attitude of the Government in connection with industrial disputes complaints have been heard from trade unionists about partiality being shown to employers by local officers during workmen's strikes although these strikes were due purely to industrial causes and there was not the least suspicion of political motives. Such partial attitude of the Government officials creates the impression on the minds of the workers that the Government is ever on the side of the capitalists and consequently the belief is strengthened that the condition of labour will never really improve so long as the present system of Government continues.

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

Laws like Madras Planters' Act, 1903, which punishes a breach of contract of service as a criminal offence, should, in the opinion of the League's Committee, not be allowed to remain on the statute book.

#### XVII.—Administration.

133. The attitude of the Central and Provincial Legislatures is not quite sympathetic on labour questions. The majority of the members of legislatures consists of capitalists and their henchmen, landlords, middle class men having little acquaintance with the conditions of labour and official bureaucrats. Several Bills in the interest of labour including the Maternity Bill have been defeated in the Legislative Assembly. Some urgent and useful Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference have not yet been ratified. An important measure like the Trade Disputes Act contains some seriously objectionable features from the labour point of view, and they were retained in spite of strong opposition from the representatives of labour. As regards the Bombay Legislative Council the general attitude of the majority of members may be judged from the facts that recently the Goonda Bill was passed and the proposal to lower the municipal franchise in Bombay was rejected. The Goonda Act has placed arbitrary power in the hands of the executive in such a way that labourers might be summarily dealt with as if they were little better than hooligans, during the time of labour crisis. The lowering of the municipal franchise as proposed last time in the Bombay Legislative Council would have removed the anomaly of keeping the City Municipal franchise as high as for the Provincial Legislature and the bulk of the working class people who are now voteless would have been able to vote at municipal elections. The Bombay Municipal Corporation is at present dominated by capitalists with the result that the interests of labour are neglected. This state of things would have been remedied to some extent had the proposal to lower the franchise been accepted.

It is necessary that there should be a separate portfolio for the Ministry of Labour in the Central Government just as it is in Great Britain. As for Labour Offices in the Provinces they should have Advisory Councils consisting of representatives of labour employed in different industries and establishments.

137. In small Indian States Factories Acts are non-existent and in the larger states they are nominal or very liberal in the capitalists' interests. The enforcement of the Factories Act in Indian States is very lax. Under autocratic rule the interests of the working class naturally suffer, the capitalists having personal relations and influence with the chiefs and their ministers. Some capitalists from Bombay have started mills and factories in Indian States simply with a view to exploiting labour. In addition to cheapness of labour in the States the capitalists find the advantage of having less restrictions to observe than in British India in the matter of hours of work, employment of women and children, compensation for accidents, etc. The introduction of maternity benefits, provident funds, old age pensions and other reforms will be further incentives for the capitalists in British India to turn their attention towards exploiting the facilities in Indian States in respect of labour. It is, therefore, quite essential that Indian States should be brought into line with British India in the matter of labour legislation, so that conditions respecting labour are equalised. This equalisation will be in the interests of workers in Indian States and in British India alike.

138. Owing to the illiteracy and ignorance of workers their acquaintance with the factory legislation is extremely meagre and this state of things enables employers to evade some of the provisions made in factory legislation and other labour measures.

Even if some measures urgently called for are passed, labour will not be able to reap the benefits arising from them in full measure so long as the present illiteracy of the masses continues.

139. The fact that every year some factories remain unvisited by the Factory Inspector shows that factory inspection is not satisfactory. If it is proved that the inspecting staff is inadequate it must be adequately increased.

141. Railways owned by the State can do much to set examples to private employers in other industries and establishments and also to other public or semi-public bodies, in solving problems affecting personnel. The discontent among the employees of State-owned railways is as acute as or perhaps more acute than that among other classes of employees in the country. The main cause of this deplorable state of affairs is dead routine, want of contact between the higher officials and the employees, want of confidence on the part of employees in the authorities and the unsympathetic attitude of the authorities towards the unions of workers. The present staff Councils have not been able to win the confidence of the workers. The railway workers' unions must be recognized and the representatives of labour in the Staff Councils must be elected by the unions. State-owned railways can demonstrate the possibility of success of the principles underlying the Joint Works Committees. The administration of the nationalized railways and the treatment meted out to their employees should serve as models to show how industries can be carried on in a spirit of service to the community with a willing co-operation of the workers.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

It was proposed by Government to introduce a Statistics Bill, but the outcry raised by employers against the proposed measure made the Government drop it. A measure of that kind is, in the opinion of the League's Committee, necessary for collecting statistics useful in judging the condition of workers and in arriving at right decisions in industrial disputes.

### THE COMMITTEE OF THE BOMBAY SHAREHOLDERS' ASSOCIATION.

#### I.—Recruitment.

In connection with industry all over India the industrial commission of 1918 refers to the scarcity of labour. In Bombay this scarcity is particularly felt. The primary cause of this scarcity is no doubt the want of proper organization on the part of our industrial managers and millowners throughout. There should be a central bureau in each province to keep up a continuous propaganda amongst the agricultural classes with a view to attract them towards industrial centres. Our Bombay labour is mostly made up of agriculturists who are extremely poor, and it is frequently urged on their behalf that they hardly get one square meal a day, there is no reason why we should not have abundant labour in local industries if steps are taken to scientifically recruit same. At present the millowners mostly rely on jobbers for such recruitment generally at the gates of the mills. This system is open to considerable objection apart from its apparent defect to meet the normal requirements of the industry in busy periods owing to the scarcity we have already alluded to. As far as labour at the gates or available within the city is concerned, it should be engaged directly by the officer in charge of the mills, as is done in the centres outside Bombay. Again, the agricultural operations are carried out in our country with much less efficiency and economy of human labour than other civilized countries. The cause is abject illiteracy of the masses and absence of power driven machinery and other modern implements of agriculture. If some method could be employed by which the agriculturists could be made to employ modern methods, a large amount of surplus labour would be available for industry. This would bring about conditions under which not only we should have abundant labour supply but would also make it possible for us to work out a system of maintaining a labour reserve against absenteeism as recommended by the Indian Tariff Board (cotton textile industry enquiry) in its recommendation No. 46. The greatest impediment here is the woeful illiteracy of the masses and unless that problem is tackled boldly and on much larger basis, we shall be continuously handicapped in this and many other directions as we shall show later. According to the industrial commission's findings in their report issued in 1918 the area under cultivation was approximately 250,000,000 acres of which 40,000,000 acres are, for the time being, fallow and unworked. The total agricultural population of the country according to census returns of the times was approximately 80,000,000, thus approximately those directly employed on land worked up to one person to every 2.6 acres of cultivated land.

In European countries the figure works out at about 17 acres per person. These figures could not have much increased since the date the said report was written, and they clearly indicate the wastage in human labour on agriculture which could be advantageously attracted towards industry through the use of improved methods of cultivation, particularly when Indian soil and climate are, generally speaking, more favourable as compared to European countries. A good portion of labour which comes to Bombay from the Deccan and Konkan, or those who migrate to the Bengal coalfields from Chhota Nagpur, or the labourers from Behar and the eastern districts of the United Provinces who try their luck at mill centres in Calcutta, keep one eye on their agricultural holdings under cultivation, and the other on the factory and mines where they go during certain times of the year to make extra money. As far as Bombay is concerned, migration of this character takes place in April and between April and October there is great scarcity in industrial labour, particularly during active times and our mills have to work short-handed to the great loss and detriment of industry. Unemployment therefore, as far as industrial labour is concerned, is unknown in our city except among the incapables and undesirables. The question of unemployment insurance therefore, on the basis of anything like that which prevails in the United Kingdom, is out of the question.

### High Wages.

The one result of this general scarcity is that our workmen are in a position to dictate their own terms on questions of wages, particularly at the time when the industry happens to be in a favourable condition. In times of depression, the wages which have thus been raised under pressure of activity during flourishing times, cannot be easily reduced. This is clearly proved by the findings of the Textile Tariff Board in their report in which they show how wages steadily rose from July of 1917 right up to November, 1920, and that, excepting the case of yearly bonus of one month's wages, the abnormally increased rate prevails in spite of the depressed condition of the industry. (See paragraphs 49 and 59.)

There is general disinclination on the part of labour to adjust itself to changing conditions in the industry. It is commonplace that in these days of keen competition reduction in the costs of production is very necessary. If for this purpose wages are reduced or retrenchments are made in the number of men employed, a hue and cry is raised by labour without fully appreciating the necessity for the action; it is therefore of paramount importance that in the present state of our industries labour should realize the necessity of adjusting itself to changing conditions in the interest of the economic welfare of the country. In this connection we would suggest the employment of technical experts both by the employers and the workmen who could watch and safeguard in mutual co-operation the interests of both parties and bring about a settlement whenever any question of readjustment of wages arose in consequence of the introduction of improved machinery or production of a new quality. We also suggest that the Government should help in the establishment of technical schools as suggested by the Textile Tariff Board in paragraph 68 of their report.

In the managing agents' firm as well, there should be at least one member who should have technical training and experience.

Paragraph 60 of the same report (Textile Tariff Board) deals with absenteeism among the operatives in Bombay, though they say that in Ahmedabad where also this ill exists, the percentage is much lower than that in Bombay. The general complaint of absenteeism, which is a drag on the industry, is due to the fact that workmen in Bombay are particularly overpaid in comparison to their normal standard of living which is very low. The other factor which encourages this is the joint family system (as well as the chummary system which applies to those without family) under which brothers with their wives and children, all earning units, live together and the total budget of receipts in their case is large enough in comparison with their standard of living with the resultant wide margin for taking alternate holidays without much inconvenience. There are some who try to explain away this phenomenon on the ground of "fatigue" and climatic conditions to which the obvious answer is that climate of Ahmedabad is in no way superior to that of Bombay and hours of work at both these centres are uniform.

Drunkenness is also one of the principal weaknesses of our labouring classes which in a measure conduces to absenteeism. The policy of the excise department up to now in selling licences by auction had forced the liquor vendors to increase their sale by various means which naturally result in increased drunkenness. A large number of men keep away soon after the pay-day simply because of this reason. We should therefore strongly urge the commission to recommend that immediate steps be taken with a view to reduce liquor shops in factory areas as far as possible.

### The Average Bombay Wage.

The average wage paid to the workmen in our factories in spite of his illiteracy, even as far as his own vernacular is concerned, works out at a figure which is much higher than the standard of living would justify. For example, a jobber in Bombay mills earns from Rs. 125 to Rs. 225 per month, a weaver from Rs. 45 to Rs. 75 per month and a spinner from Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 per month, whereas the ordinary peons, even of a superior class who not only know their own vernaculars but know something of English do not earn more than Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 per month, even after a service of some years. Even the domestic servants drawn from the same class earn not more than the peons. Compare with them even the average clerk in Bombay who earns a pay of Rs. 60 to Rs. 150 and manages to live on that pay in healthier surroundings as well as in greater comforts as to dress, etc. The above wages are paid in spite of the fact that technical knowledge both among the operatives and even the jobbers is of a very poor character. (This technical training for these operatives in some organized form is absolutely necessary. There is no effort made even to furnish booklets and leaflets in vernaculars containing explanations for those of the operatives who can profit by same.) These mill workmen as already stated live together on the joint family system and practically speaking all adults and grown-up children, male and female, constitute earning units with the result that the family budget runs into large figures. In spite of all that they live in the same chawl as the ordinary peons. Even a jobber who earns, as we have stated above, from Rs. 125 to Rs. 225, also lives in the same chawls in the same condition as the lower paid mill-hand. With reference to the first indication of overpaid condition, viz., absenteeism referred to above, it may be added that during the favourable days of the war, for the industry, the employer was particularly anxious to keep his factory working with full complement of his hands and paid extra bonuses with a view to encourage same, he failed to reduce absenteeism. The average absenteeism, according to the Tariff Board report of all Bombay mills came to 10.38 per cent. and in this connection Ahmedabad workmen were more favourable for the simple reason that Ahmedabad workmen are drawn from a class which is given to thrift and saving habits, whereas the Konkan workman is more extravagant and inclined to be easy-going. The remedy therefore does not lie in the raising of wages but in efforts being made with a view to raise the standard of living of these workmen by the spread of primary education, improvement of their intellectual calibre on the outlook of life, impressing them with the advantages of healthy living and generally adopting measures which would inculcate healthy ambition among them and make them aspire to a higher level generally while at the same time making them appreciate the fact that higher wages can only be paid by an industry which can earn them through efforts of labour in co-operation with employers. We should then arrive at what the Americans call "low labour cost in spite of high wages". The bonus and profit sharing schemes under conditions such as now prevail with an illiterate labour failing to appreciate the value of the higher standard of living are not likely to improve the position. The present period of wage payment at the end of every month may advantageously be replaced by weekly payments, if possible.

### Welfare Work and Protection.

The industry expects to be assisted by adequate protection against foreign competition by properly adjusted tariff walls. In the present state of depression such assistance, in our opinion, is absolutely necessary. We should add that in case the industry manages to get into better times, with the assistance of protective tariff, the excess gains, should, in appropriate measure, be utilized towards welfare work and improvement of labour efficiency instead of being paid out as additional wages to an already overpaid labour under conditions we have referred to. The advantages of welfare work which is more apparent in the mofussil are dealt with in para. 67 of the Textile Tariff Board report and are as follows:—

"Direct contact between employer and employee is much easier in up-country centres than it is in Bombay, and, in most cases ample space is available for the provision of such amenities as creches, hospitals, both general and maternity, recreation grounds, schools, canteens and co-operative stores. Our inspections have shown that the most efficient mills in up-country centres fully realize the effect which the provision of such amenities has on the efficiency and contentment of labour, and we consider that it would be in the interests of the Bombay Industry to follow their example in this respect."

The fact that during the period of present labour troubles and lightning strikes the up-country mills are working overtime to advantage emphasises the necessity of an early move in this direction on the part of the millowners of Bombay.



In Bombay the mill area is of manageable size, where, besides the welfare work of usual type, collective propaganda of an educational character can be carried on and directed easily through the co-operation of the labour unions by the millowners through their association. Instead of each mill dissipating its efforts on this work, central recreation grounds, clubs and theatres attached should be provided for all employees under the association. Cinemas with the help of criers may be used for illiterate labour for instructing and explaining to them the various operations which their vocations require them to perform efficiently. Also the modes of life on a higher standard among labouring classes on the continent and the U.S.A. may be demonstrated, teaching them how to live well and attempt to rise to higher grades of life as in advanced countries where, according to Dr. Shadwell in his work on Industrial Efficiency, "the development of manufacturing industries was chiefly a process of workmen rising to be employers." It is said that in the U.S.A. communistic doctrines have not made much headway because there, every workman expects to rise and become a capitalist as his many compatriots have done. Whatever is spent here is an investment of great value instead of a burden and would amply repay the industry through the improved efficiency, increased production, lower relative cost and contentment and loyalty of labour.

### Works Councils or Works Committees.

In our opinion works councils or works committees are most desirable. Here, in every factory, mill or workshop, if we had a works committee of the type they have in Germany and Sweden, where representatives both of the employers, i.e., management, and of the work people take counsel in conference on all questions of common interest, it would be of great advantage. In this connection, it is interesting to quote from "Britain's Industrial Future," being the report of the Liberal Industrial Enquiry, 1928 :—

"We sent investigators to Germany to report upon the working of the scheme there; they reported that the workpeople regarded it as of real value, and would not willingly part with it; and that while some employers made little of it, many spoke warmly in its favour. It is held by many in this country that to make such a system compulsory would be unwise, since its effectiveness must depend upon the readiness of the management to use it, and an indifferent management can reduce it to futility. Those who take this view believe that the application of compulsion may retard rather than assist the practice of consultation. We recognize that there is some force in this connection. There are two purposes for which a works council can be used; the first is the ventilation of grievances, and the assurance of an opportunity of expressing the workpeople's view with regard to the rules under which they have to work; the second is the pooling of ideas, and the enlisting of workpeople's help in securing efficiency. The latter can be made of no avail by a hostile and indifferent management, but the former, can certainly be secured if regular meetings are bound to take place. We conclude therefore—and our opinion is fortified by German experience—that the advantages of a compulsory establishment of works councils outweigh any defects which may attend it."

We ourselves think that the compulsory establishment of such councils will be for the benefit of all concerned. Of course, as far as the workmen's representatives are concerned it would be best if it is insisted upon that outsiders should not represent them but that only wage earning units should be returned on such councils. The actual proportion in which they should be represented is a question on which there may be some difference of opinion. The Whitley Committee of 1916, recommended 50 per cent. representation on either side and we believe that that would be a proper data of representation in order to inspire confidence in the working classes as to the efficacy of their representation. Of course, the function of the council will be more or less of a consultative nature and if conducted sympathetically might promote good relations between the employers and the employees. They may be consulted for example (i) on the working rules of a factory as well as those (ii) in connection with dismissals. In this connection special rules if created in consultation on both these heads, particularly the latter would tend to avoid ill-feeling which is the chief cause of many industrial troubles. Dismissals may be due to either inefficiency insubordination, or slackness at the factory and in either of these cases a council such as the one we are suggesting will be of great assistance tending as it is sure to do towards smoothness in place of unpleasantness. In connection with welfare work also these joint councils connected with each factory will also be of great help. In this connection it is advantageous to quote here a passage from the excellent book published only this year (1929), of Prof. Henry Clay of the University of Manchester, entitled, the "Problems of Industrial Relations" where the working of the industrial councils as recommended by the report of the Whitley Committee for the past ten years comes in for close criticism.

The author has to admit that "The experience of the industries that did adopt the Whitley scheme points to the same conclusion, that the continuous contact and co-operation over non-controversial business, which an industrial council involves, are an aid to the peaceful settlement of differences, even if they cannot offer a complete guarantee of peace."

### Hours of Work.

The reduction from 12 hours to a 10 hours shift has not materially reduced production as is admitted on all hands. This encourages us to recommend the experiment of a further reduction by at least half-an-hour which ultimately may lead to a "nine hours' shift." We agree with the recommendation of the Fawcett Committee on this question, as given in para. No. 42 of their report, on the "extreme desirability of extra recess" through the reduction of working hours. In our opinion it may be given a fair trial and if the experiment succeeds in "reducing loitering and absenteeism and results in no material loss of production" it may be converted into a permanent arrangement. We of course realize that much will depend on the co-operation of the workmen here with the management, but as the above recommendation of the Fawcett Committee was due to the earnest pleading on the part of labour leaders themselves, who assured the committee that the same would be successful on the footing we have stated above, we are inclined to suggest the experiment.

### Industrial Disputes.

*Trade Disputes Act.*—We are strongly of the opinion that the Act should be amended so as to prohibit picketing. Any one who is familiar with the recent events in connection with industrial disputes in the country, especially in Bombay, will agree that this amendment is absolutely necessary. Para. 88 of the report of the Court of Enquiry recently appointed by the Government of Bombay under the Trade Disputes Act shows that picketing and intimidation by the strikers and acts of violence committed by them on those who declined to go on strike, resulted, among other causes, in the prolongation of the April, 1929, strike in Bombay. In para. 77 of its report, the Court has held, on the evidence of the Commissioner of Police, that intimidation had been carried on by the strikers to a considerable extent both in the chawls and on the roads and that picketting was by no means peaceful. The Court also refers to a statement made by Mr. Bakhale, a well-known labour leader, that the members of his union working in the Madanpura mills had complained to him that they were afraid of going to the mills, because they would be assaulted. Para. 72 of the report of the Percival Committee recently appointed by the Government of Bombay, also refers to intimidation of loyal workers and their families; in view of these findings there is no course open but to stop picketting; It has been argued that the right to strike being the birth right of every worker and being the essence of the Trade Union Movement, it follows that the right to persuade another peacefully to withhold service is equally legitimate. This argument overlooks the fact that those who are willing to work have a right to be protected from those on strike. This was the principal point made by the Hon. Member in charge of the Trade Disputes Bill while speaking in the Assembly in connection with an amendment prohibiting picketting. He actually quoted a passage from a book entitled "Freedom of Associations" Vol. I which stated that "the right to work, however implies that those willing to work have the right to be protected against strikers and that picketting is prohibited." (See Legislative Assembly Debates dated 6th April, 1929, Vol. I page 2,950). We should further point out that under the present industrial conditions in force in India, peaceful picketting is only a vision. This is due to the fact that an illiterate labourer can seldom be expected to act peacefully in times of excitement. This aspect of the question also came in for careful consideration at the conference convened by H.E. the Governor of Bombay in June last, in connection with the strike situation which resulted in His Excellency's decision to introduce a Bill in the Local Legislative Council for prohibiting picketting. The idea had unfortunately to be dropped for causes beyond the control of the Local Government, but we take this opportunity to quote from the speech of His Excellency at the time of the opening of the local Legislative Council in July, 1929.

"In addition it was found to be the general opinion of the bodies represented at the conference that picketting as now practised is often only another work for terrorization of the workers, especially at their homes and that a measure to control picketting during industrial disputes was necessary. As I indicated in my announcement to the conference in Bombay it was originally intended to frame such a measure on the lines of the English Act as it then stood, but as it is understood that this Act is now being reviewed, Government have decided not to introduce a Government measure on the subject for the present."

We trust we have made out a sufficiently strong case for anti-picketing legislation in India; we hope therefore that the Royal Commission will make recommendations on the subject bearing in mind that Indian Legislation should proceed along the lines of special Indian Conditions.

*Industrial Disputes (Causes).*—One of the causes of industrial disputes is the lack of contact between the employers and employed which tells heavily on their relations. In this matter the most important factor is the human factor. The healthy development of this factor depends, among other things, on the frequency with which employers come into direct personal touch with the workmen. With our illiterate labour, the problem of labour presents special difficulties of our own in India. This makes it all the more necessary for employers that personal contact should be brought about as far as possible between them. We have already suggested works councils as a remedial measure in this direction. The managing agency system, as it is being worked at present, is also responsible for this want of contact. Under it, a managing agent can go on adding company after company to its list in addition to carrying on various businesses in as many lines as it pleases. The heads of the firms concerned are thus too busy; their energies are directed towards so many channels that there is scarcely any time for them to come into contact with the workmen; that work is often left to inexperienced and unsympathetic assistants. A kind word, a sympathetic pat from the agent which goes a long way towards bringing about an atmosphere for loyalty and respect is thus conspicuously absent. In this view it is interesting to note that this question of the lack of contact was raised at the conference of representatives of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, The Bombay Chamber of Commerce and the European Association which the Millowners' Association had called on the 12th June, 1929, to consider the strike situation when Mr. H. P. Mody, the chairman of the association, observed as follows:—(See "Times of India" of 12th June, 1929).

"Coming to the question of the want of touch between the employers and the workers, I will not deny it; all I will say is that there have been excuses for it. The ignorance and illiteracy of the men and the classes from whom they have been drawn have not made it possible for employers of labour to get into the skins of the workpeople but whether something or other should be done in the near future is a matter which must engage the earnest attention of all employers of labour. My Association would observe that the excuse suggested is hardly convincing. The truth of the matter is that our mill agents have neither the time nor the inclination to establish personal contact with their workmen with the result that wrong impressions and distrust of the management exists among the workmen."

In view, therefore, of the importance of the point we hope that the Commission will be good enough to investigate to what extent the managing agency system as it is being worked at present is capable of bringing about personal contact between employers and workmen as a system or how far it is possible under the system to bring about this most essential factor for industrial peace and well being.

### Trade Combinations.

*Trade Unions Act, 1926—Possible amendments.*—That the imperfections of the Trade Unions Act have left the door open to a number of abuses is illustrated by the reports of the Court of Enquiry and the Percival Committee. The court has held that some of the leaders of the Girmi Kamgar Union took an unfair advantage of the conditions prevailing in October, 1928, and adopted the unconstitutional method of converting mill committees from advisory into executive bodies; that their policy was to encourage individual actions among the officers of a mill committee even to the extent of declaring a strike although such procedure was against the rules. The court has further held that these leaders encouraged antagonism between the workers and millowners and caused several lightning strikes without just cause, that the officials of the union unjustifiably broke off the negotiations with the millowners then pending, and took the extreme step of declaring a general strike, that the dispute which resulted in the general strike did not exist between the workers as a body and the millowners, but between the officials of the union on the one hand, and the millowners on the other. As to the main causes of the prolongation of the strike, the court has held that they were due to (a) the aggressive and mischievous propaganda of the officials of the union and inflammatory appeals made by them to the workers, and to (b) picketing and intimidation by the strikers and acts of violence committed by them on non-strikers. The court also found that the officers of the union did not act according to recognised rules of trade unionism, and that important documentary evidence bearing on the strike was not available.

The Riots Enquiry Committee (Percival Committee) has held that the union was the basic cause of the riots and that the intention of the leaders was to get the whole industry under their control, not merely to obtain pecuniary advantage for the,

labourers. These findings and conclusions show that there is an urgent necessity for a drastic amendment of the Indian Trade Unions Act, if the labour movement in this country is to be saved from going into the hands of undesirable persons. It will be seen that there is no provision in the Act prohibiting sudden or lightning strikes without notice, in countries where trade unionism has advanced on sound lines, strikes are a last resort. In India they have become a normal feature. This we submit is most unsatisfactory. It will be also seen that the Act does not provide for any machinery whereby those who are not genuine friends of labour can be prevented from being honorary officers of a union under Section 22. Similarly, the Act does not contain any provision whereby any honorary officer can be turned out if found to be indulging in excesses or working contrary to the constitution of the union. The select committee to which the Trade Union Act, 1926, was referred observed in Clause 6 (e) "we propose the admission of honorary and temporary members as the assistance of experienced labour leaders will be of considerable value to trade unions, while the movement is in its infancy." The facts disclosed show that this right has been grossly abused and that safeguards are needed as regards the qualifications and appointments of honorary or temporary members. The Act also does not provide a procedure to be followed in connection with the calling and the conducting of a strike or for dealing with a strike which is called and conducted in violation of the rules of the union; it is submitted that in such cases the certificate of registration should be cancelled. The Act is also silent about many matters, e.g., the nature of the books to be kept, inspection of accounts by inspectors appointed by the Government on requisition of members or those interested, the manner in which the alterations, variations or modifications in the rules are to be carried out, the appointment and removal of officers, the number of such officers, the minimum number of members required for a trade union, and the minimum subscription payable. In short, there is considerable need for control and supervision on the working of a Registered Trade Union. An enquiry should also be made as to how far the power to admit honorary members under Section 22 of the Act is being abused by multiplication of trade unions in the same industry and in the same area. Under regulation 22 of the Bombay Trade Unions Regulations, 1927, the right of the public to take inspection extends only to the register kept in accordance with regulation 5, but it is submitted that this right should be extended to all documents filed before the Registrar.

## GIRNI KAMGAR MAHAMANDAL.

### I. Recruitment.

1. 20 per cent. of the Textile labourers are local; the rest come from outside. Out of these  $\frac{1}{4}$  are Mahomedans and the rest are Hindus, Christians, Jews and others. Most of the Mahomedans are working in the weaving department and the Hindus in drawing department, mechanical line of the weaving department and carpentry. The Marathas, men and women, come from Poona, Sholapur, Satara, Belgaon, Nasik, Ahmednagr, Kolaba and Ratnagiri district and their distribution on work in several mills is as follows :—

Men from the southern part of the Ratnagiri district and from Poona and Satara district work chiefly in the weaving department, those from the Kolaba and other districts in the spinning department, men from Ratnagiri district work also in framing and roving departments. Women from the southern part of Ratnagiri district work in winding, dyeing and reeling and the Ghati (Kokan) women work in Safet (white) winding, frame ring and carding departments. Mahomedan women work in colourwinding department. The Bhayyas from northern India work in the blow-room and carding departments, the low caste people such as Mahars, Mangs and others work in the sweeping department and in roving, carding, framing and ring departments also. The pardeshis and Bayyhas who come from U. P. are included in the  $\frac{1}{4}$  part of the Hindu community. In the bleaching and dyeing departments men from Ratnagiri district and the Mahomedans work equally together.

2. In proportion of service in the city of Bombay the number of labourers coming from abroad and adjacent villages and that of men out of employment is far greater than the requirements, such unemployed staff of people get work only in the absence of leave of the permanent incumbents on account of sickness, performance of marriage ceremonies, and affairs of their landed properties at home. Some of the men from Konkan and southern India (Deccan) who work in Bombay mills go to their native places to look after their fields there, soon after the setting in of the monsoons, and return to their duties in summer every year but those from northern India go to their native places once in three or four years as their motherland is far away from Bombay and going so far is most expensive.

After all the Hindusthani Bhayyas work in the departments of little importance such as carding and blow-room while men from Konkan work in the much more important department of weaving and they are found fully experienced and expert in that art.

3. As stated in the para. above, men from Konkan Deccan and other adjacent villages, come for service in Bombay being compelled to do so by their inability to pay off the Government assessment of their own lands which produce nothing on account of shortage of timely rainfall and get themselves employed in the absence of men on leave. Such men are found at hand when necessity for additional hands is felt by the millowners.

7. In Bombay many men are seen without employment.

The reasons are :—(a) Men of profession such as ironsmiths, carpenters and others, who used to supply landowners in their own villages, with ploughs and other implements of peasantry which now have been supplied ready-made by foreign countries, have lost their own profession and have therefore been compelled to come to cities like Bombay in search of employment in some of the firms. (b) In view of curtailment of expenses particularly reduction of low paid working hands has lately been taken in hand by the employees. (c) Five or 6 mills in Bombay have lately been closed and 10,000 or 12,000 workpeople have been thereby left without employment.

In this way the number of unemployed has been increasing day by day.

8 (ii) It seems that there is no system of engaging temporary hands. Had there been permanency in the employment of the working staff, the temporary employment could have found its way in that system. The men employed here are not sure that they will have to serve for life, getting higher ranks of proficiency nor could they entertain hopes of promotions in pay with the increase of members in their families, are not willing to work on the same pay and post through the long run of their future life and in cases when a new officer resumes duties, several changes recur and under such a transitory system of employment one can scarcely find labourers (work-people) of long-standing. Hence temporary system of employment might not have been introduced.

9. The benefit of the Apprentices' Act of 1850, although it is very important, has been enjoyed only by men in authority or by men highly favoured by the agents and the superintendents, their relations or people of their own caste. The Act is not in the least beneficial to any other working hand.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

10. The agents' duties are :—To purchase raw materials, to sell ready made cloth and keep accounts of the profits and loss of the mills and his subordinate officer, the manager has to look after the management of the mill.

11. The manager and the superintendent have power to appoint departmental supervising subordinate staff, while the agent alone is empowered to appoint chief superintending superior staff of several departments in the mill.

12. The system of recruitment is already mentioned above. No mill has managed to give preliminary education of processes and machines. Those who have been raised to the rank of jobbers and head jobbers have tried their best to pick out knowledge of their own duties only through their long standing experience in the department.

There is a technical institute in Bombay but only men who know English are admitted into it. No benefit of the institute has been derived by many others who know not English, as the education there is not imparted in Marathi or other native language. No steps have been taken by the millowners as regards preliminary education. In some of the mills, schools were opened to educate half-time boys, but that was only a farce and no more importance could be given to it, but now half-time system has been put a stop to and consequently the so-called schools have been closed.

The Bombay Municipal Corporation have started compulsory Primary education, but the boys are not able enough to take the benefit of that education as their guardians have no stability of their professional services and that the wages they receive are too small to meet their own wants.

In many of the mills, the vacancies of jobbers and head jobbers are filled up by outsiders under favour or recommendation of men in high repute setting aside the claims of the qualified lower subordinates already working in the department.

13 (i) Generally the work-people and their supervising head officers are on friendly terms with each other, but now for a year or two there is a friction between

them because the leaders of the working staff are outsiders and quite ignorant of the mill matters and in fact vagabonds, and through the teachings of the newspapers of selfish attitude.

(ii) *Jobbers* bring men for work. They know how to repair machines and supervise the working staff and their work. Hence it is quite necessary to keep jobbers. In the absence of jobbers the work will suffer.

(iii) *Work Committees*.—Nothing can be said more satisfactorily about the unity of the labour party in the mill area of Bombay because of the opposition of the supervising head officers. Notwithstanding all such opposition, the Girni Kamgar Maha Mandal—a union of the workpeople—has alone survived for 4 years past.

(iv) *Work Councils and Industrial Councils*.—No such councils are in existence here.

14 (i) In every mill, a timekeeper is appointed to keep attendance of the work-people and accounts of their pay. The clerk in the department prepares accounts of the workers on piece-work and sends them to the timekeeper who checks them and enters them in the muster roll. The timekeeper prepares pay-tickets and distributes them amongst the work-people one day previous to the pay-day and the pay is distributed the next day after the distribution of pay-tickets.

The system of keeping attendance is as under :—There are tin and punched tickets provided for all the departments except the weaving. A box is kept at the entrance door of the mill, wherein given tickets are to be put in, and the ticket boy takes them out from the box and puts them on the Board kept for the purpose. The timekeeper then checks the tickets on the board with the report of the present working hands from each department, and fills in the attendance register of those that are present on work and prepares the accounts of pay at the end of each month. Besides the timekeeper has to submit reports of the occurrences of accidents, injuries or any mishap to any of the working hands. Thus the timekeeper has to work very hard. He has to look after the welfare of about 1,000 work-people.

(ii) Cashiers or pay-masters come from the agents' office to distribute pay to workers. The pay is distributed in the presence of the timekeeper and in accordance with the entry made in the muster roll against each and every worker. Gangs after gangs of workers come from several departments of the mill, to receive their pay.

15. *Contractors and Intermediators*.—There is no system of contractors in the Bombay mills.

### III.—Housing.

16 (i) Owners of some of the mills have erected chawls for housing the workers as also the development and improvement trust department have erected chawls for housing them into rooms of 10 ft. by 10 ft. Accommodation for free ventilation and water has not been properly attended to but all rent charge there is very high.

(ii) Government and wealthy people have built chawls for work-people. Rents of rooms in the Government chawls erected by the development department vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 9-8 annas according to the area of the unoccupied rooms in different parts of the building.

(iii) Workers have no chawls of their own.

18 (i) The present and most urgent demands of the workers are, education and housing with suitable accommodations with tolerable rents.

19. According to the present style of building a house, the millowners have built houses of a common nature for the millhands and the rents charged thereupon are also considerably less than other buildings of the same standing and structure but the accommodation for free ventilation and light is not properly attended to in erecting them. In all they are like other buildings of the same style.

The development department of Government have also built several chawls in various parts of the mill-area, but they are as if they were pigeon-holes and the tenants living there generally suffer from malarious fever still there is no cheapness in the rate of rents charged and almost all of these chawls are therefore, left unoccupied.

20. Caste distinction is given particular attention to in the living of the work-people in the mills and the rates of rent are generally the same throughout the whole area.

### IV.—Health.

23. The health of the millhands is very bad owing to the thick population in the city, want of free ventilation and the nasty air they have to inhale in the mill compounds and in the occurrence of any epidemic, the first of its attack is on the workers in the mills and on account of various inconveniences they are not able to face the danger of the epidemic.

(ii) Average death-proportion amongst children of the workpeople is far greater than any other country in the world. The municipal report itself proves that the average is more than half of the average death proportion of children in any other country.

(iii) No precaution has been taken about the unhealthy condition of the workpeople in the mills.

The owners of houses always look after the recovery of monthly rents from the tenants. They do not care at all for the inconveniences of the tenants nor do they get the dirt removed from the different quarters in the chawl, they do not look to white washing and colouring, get the gutters drains and privies cleaned. Not only this, but even the municipality here is quite careless about cleaning gutters and roads in the habitation of the workpeople.

(iv) The workpeople have to buy articles of very poor food owing to their scanty means of subsistence allowance.

24. (i) The owners have opened dispensaries for giving medicines to workpeople, but it is a mere show. The workpeople have no confidence in the treatment and medicines given there, because they fully well believe that there will be very little or no improvement at all.

(ii) Government hospitals have been opened, but how far the patients going there have improved is a most serious question to be solved.

(iii) Charitable dispensaries have been opened, but they require much more improvement in them.

(iv) Female doctors, passed nurses and midwives have now-a-days come forward to prescribe their medicines, but the workpeople cannot take the benefit of their medical help as the fees charged by these female doctors are abnormally very high.

26. (i) Latrines are provided for workpeople, but they are extremely dirty at either of the places.

(ii) Provision of drinking water is not sufficient at all.

(iii) Where there is not sufficient provision of drinking water it is not difficult to ascertain what arrangements could be there for bathing and washing purposes.

27. There is no management or supervision in the mill.

29. Cold and malarious fevers are generally harbouring at the doors of the millhands, besides cholera and other epidemics prevail oft-times, and seriously endanger the lives of the millhands.

30. *Sickness Insurance*.—No such course has up to now been followed by any of the mills.

31. *Maternity Benefits*.—Millowners have now begun to bring into force this practice for the last two or three months because of the arrival of the Whitley Commission here, but not otherwise.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. Tennis-grounds have been prepared and are ready for the enjoyment of officers but no arrangements of the nature have been made for the millhands.

34 (i) Tea shops on contract have been maintained in the mills for the supply of refreshments to the millhands as also sheltered accommodation is provided for the workpeople to take their meals and creches for children.

(ii) There is no necessity of any physical exercise as the workpeople are so much tired of the laborious work of the day that they need only rest after such horrible work of 10 continuous hours.

35. These above provisions of welfare if available, are beneficial to the millhands.

36. The practice of providing schools for half-time boys has long since been discontinued by the millowners. Now there is not such educational facility in existence.

37. In some mills grants or pensions, not as a right, are received by certain numbers of old employees, but in almost all the mills even when the workers do not receive their pays for the work done, how could they expect to get the pension scheme introduced?

38. Nature of co-operation could not be understood. It will be better if the peculiarity for co-operation be explained in a wider sense of its application.

#### VI.—Education.

40. No facilities of education have been given by the millowners but there are some municipal schools in the industrial areas which serve the purpose for the time being.

41. The millowners have done nothing in respect of industrial and vocational training.

42. As the millowners have not devoted their attention to the training of the millhands nothing can be said about its good or bad effects upon the millworkers.

#### VII.—Safety.

44. There is no register kept for the purpose to find the number and nature of accidents occurring in the mills but some of the workers who suffered from serious injuries in the accidents, got small amounts as compensation.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. It is better if the compulsory insurance comes in force.

52. Possibility of providing against insolvency of employers who might be so covered.

No action has been taken in this respect by the millowners.

#### IX.—Hours.

55. The hours of work in Bombay mills are 10 per day and 60 per week. These 10 hours are split up into two periods of 5 hours each with a break of 1 hour from 12 to 1.

56. In Bombay mills a week of six days is adopted.

60. The present system of allowing recess hour at mid-day from 12 to 1 is agreeable as the workpeople take their meals and amuse themselves awhile in the interval.

61. In Bombay it is a practice to give a holiday on Sunday but when a holiday falls on any other day in the week, Sunday stands as a working day.

#### X.—Women, Young Adults and Children.

81. *Effect of 1922 Act on Employment.*—This act has reduced the number of half-time operatives, the number of working hands employed on overtime and the work on Sundays.

82. Infants are not admitted to the mills in Bombay, but in mills where creches (rooms) have been provided for, their mothers are allowed to take the infants with them and keep them in creches. In some mills the infants in the creches are provided with milk and biscuits free of charge.

83. Women are compelled to work 10 hours a day. It is better if the working hours in the case of women be changed from 10 to 8 hours a day.

85. The system of double employment of children does not exist in Bombay mills.

87. Children are not allowed to work in the mill soon after the introduction of 1922 Act which reduced the number of half-time operatives but when a newcomer comes in for work in the mills, he is promoted from lower grade to the higher according to his proficiency in the execution of work done.

88. Women and children are not allowed to work at night, because such a system is not agreeable to workpeople.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. Prevailing rates of wages are from 28 to 35 Rs. per month but they are quite insufficient. It is true that rates of pay have been increased by 70 per cent. to 80 per cent. but rates of food grains and other articles of family requirements have an increase of 150 per cent.

97. After much debate about the present pay, the millowners have submitted to the Fawcett Committee, a statement showing average rate of pay from which it appears that there is an increase in the pay of the workpeople in some of the departments of the mill establishment, but there is a reduction at the same time of one quarter of the staff of working hands in those departments and consequently the work there has increased 33 per cent.

99. Seventy-seven per cent. to timeworkers and 80 per cent. to pieceworkers are paid in excess of their present pays to cover the rise in the cost of living, and although the rates of staple food grains have been reduced a little for the last four years, the excessive dearness in the rates of rents of hired rooms and still further increase in the rates of articles of food and other requirements in the family, the so-called apparent increase in pay is not even sufficient to cover the expenses and make the two ends meet.



101. Wages have been fixed according to the nature of work done, with due regard to the wages paid in the neighbouring mills.

No contracts or agreements are entered into with individual workers, but the wages are fixed by the heads of departments according to their own choice.

102. As the system of employing persons on overtime has been discontinued by the enactment of 1922 Act, there seems no necessity now to think of the average scale of wages paid to workers.

103. In the year 1928, an attempt was made to standardize wages throughout the mill industry but the same has not come in force up to now and that the principle of standardization was not properly understood by the workpeople.

104. There is no source to know what effect changes in wages was on labour supply.

105. If the minimum standard of wages be fixed at Rs. 40 in the case of males and at Rs. 30 in the case of females, the workers can pull on precariously in the present days of scarcity and want.

106. (i) The maximum limit of fining should be 2 per cent. of the pay received.

(ii) When the heads of departments are displeased with any worker, they get him dismissed without any reason. It is desirable that they should make proper inquiries into the matter before issuing order for dismissal.

107. Payments of wages are made monthly and the millworkers approve of the system now in force.

108. When a workman comes from his native place to Bombay for work, he owes nothing to anyone in Bombay, but he is after some time found fully engrossed with debts.

109. In Bombay there is no system of giving bonus or profit share to millhands.

110. Leave on full pay is not at all granted to any worker because of his sudden illness or any other emergency. They get leave without pay and it is granted by the head of the department to which he belongs.

#### XIII.—Efficiency of Workers.

112 and 113. The Rt. Hon. Thomas Shaw has fairly admitted in 1925 that the Indian mill operative has a very interesting comparison with any other workers in the efficiency of work.

114. Almost all the workers come from villages. They, therefore, require time to commence with the work on machines as they require necessary instructions in the use of machinery. The Bombay millhand has to work through unsuitable state of circumstances such as inefficiency of plant and management, physique, health, education, standard of living and climate and he, not minding the unsuitability of circumstances, tries to improve himself in the conduct of his business matters, but he has to keep his proficiency in work confined to himself as he entertains no hope of getting higher posts of rank or increment in pay.

115. (i) By changes in working hours there is a slight increase in the piecework.

(iv) When a working man lives in the chawls erected by the owner of the mill in which he works, is discharged from his duties he has to submit to the oppression of the millowner to vacate the rented rooms occupied by him.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

119. (i) The intention of forming a trade union is to try to give requisite compensation to any of the workers found in a serious and sudden accident, to make provision for unemployed, to help the sick with medical help and the old, with money.

(ii) They have to look after health, education, economy in expenditure industrial education, improvement in the construction of buildings and persuasion of millhands to build houses of their own by economical means through co-operation.

120. (i) The Girmi Kamgar Mahamandal is a union conducted by the millworkers themselves. It is the first union established in Bombay. It also stands first of all other unions in India. Outsiders, ignorant of the mill matters, are not allowed to take part in it. The reason is that although there are many learned men in Bombay, they are not conversant with mill affairs and therefore not able enough to deal with the manners of behaviour between the millowners and the millworkers. They do not know the system of work in the mills and do not understand what the difficulties are nor do they try to understand them. They give their advice one way or the other, whether right or wrong, as they like in order to make much ado about nothing and make their name famous in the public by hook or by crook. It has long been experienced that their advice of the nature mentioned above is not at all beneficial to the millworkers but on the contrary it is worthless. It ruins the interests of the workpeople. Hence such men did not find their way in this union.

While the union was in progress, the millowners proposed a cut of 11½ per cent. in the wages of the workpeople but this union did not move an inch from strike, but kept it on. The result was that it proved very successful in the end. The workers got their full wages without the slightest cut. Leaders from outside such as Messrs. Joshi, Bakhle and others who had come with a view to help the Mahamandal, but as the whole work of the union was taken in hand by the workers themselves, they did not succeed in their attempts and the union worked on uninterruptedly. In 1928, another strike was proclaimed, but as it was untimely and without any cause the Mahamandal was not for it. But Messrs. Bakhle, Joshi and other leaders of the communist party commenced a general strike and kept it on through the help of rich people in the foreign countries such as England and Russia and others. The Mahamandal, finding that the interests of the workpeople are ruined in the general strike, kept aloof from the general strike. The leaders of the communist party understood that they are going a wrong way, but they, instead of coming to the right, path of virtue, tried to crush down the Mahamandal altogether, but as it was consisted of workpeople alone, they could not do so. The Mahamandal fully well believed from the beginning that these outsiders will certainly spread disaffection amongst the workpeople and ruin their interests and their belief was fully well confirmed by the decision of the Court of Enquiry and that of the Riot Enquiry Committee in 1929.

(ii) The union can exercise control over its members in the execution of its business matters.

(iii) The union can increase the extent of co-operation between the master and the servant and confirm their relations with each other.

122. (i) *Methods of negotiations between Employers and Employed.*—It is possible to observe such a method.

(ii) The co-operation between employers and employed can increase the production.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. In order to bring the strikers to terms, the millowners closed the mills altogether.

(i) The millhands do not get requisite compensation in return for their efficiency in work, the oppressive policy of the head officers towards the workpeople, and unusual cut in their wages.

(ii) Every strike lasts longer than its previous one. The second strike lasted for six months but there was no fighting in any other strike than that of 1928.

There was fighting in the strike of 1928, not because it lasted for a long time, but because the speeches made by the leaders of the red flag union were of an inflammatory and intimidating character producing discontent in the minds of the workpeople.

(iii) Settlement can easily be made on such conditions as are approved by the employees.

(iv) It cannot be understood to what extent the machines have been kept without use and thereby have become useless as also the workers extremely suffer in the strike.

124. (i) We do not know what are the results of the investigation.

(ii) There is no objection to appoint conciliators.

(iii) The Act of 1860 is beneficial to the millowners.

(iv) There is no joint standing machinery.

(v) His Excellency the late Governor Sir Lealie Wilson had paid a visit to the Mahamandal in 1924. No other opportunity was afforded to the workpeople to represent their cause.

(vi) No representative of workers association has been admitted in any council assembly, trade board or joint industrial association.

The representatives that have now come forth and appointed as leaders are qualified, but they know nothing of the mill work nor have they any knowledge of other mill affairs. The reason why they are appointed is that the millworkers do not know English.

125. *Trade Disputes Act.*—The act has just come in force but from its apparent attitude it seems to be very troublesome to the workpeople.

126. The Government always keeps itself neutral.

## XVII.—Administration.

133. *Central and Provincial Legislatures. Action and attitude on labour question.*—Please refer to reply to 124 (vi).

The qualified solve the question as they think better. No opinion of the work-people has been taken into consideration up to now.

134. By the movement of international organization some points have been referred to legislative councils and action has been taken to bring them in force but by slow degrees.

136. The Government have opened a Labour office and it has some concern with the labour party.

146. There are so many developments sought for and they can be brought into effect but the millowners are quite against the development scheme.

## BOMBAY PORT TRUST.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. The bulk of the labour, skilled or unskilled, employed in the Bombay Port Trust Docks and Workshops comes from villages and coast towns in the Bombay Presidency. Most of the casual labour in the docks comes from the districts of Ahmednagar, Nasik, Poona and Satara. A fair number of semi-skilled employees in the workshops such as firemen, greasers, etc., come from the United Provinces and a small number of Pathans are also employed. About 60 per cent. of the labour employed on the Port Trust Railway comes from outside the Presidency.

The majority of employees recruited from outside Bombay visit their homes once a year.

*Engineering Department.*—Many of the Workshops hands leave during or before the monsoon to attend to cultivation of their fields or repairs to their homes in their native villages and rejoin afresh on their return to Bombay after an absence of two to three months. Besides the practice of leaving work during the monsoon the staff also avail themselves of the 14 days' leave on full pay allowed them per year.

2. The average number of workmen employed in the chief engineer's department is 6,600 per month and this figure does not vary appreciably. Of these, approximately 2,700 men have been admitted to the Provident Fund after 3 years' continuous service and may therefore be considered permanent.

*Docks Department.*—The labour force employed in the docks by the Port Trust averages some 3,500 daily with minima and maxima on ordinary working days of 1,800 and 5,000 respectively. Of this number, about 80 per cent. are casual and the remaining 20 per cent. are "permanent" in so much as the latter are paid monthly at daily rates and enjoy the privilege of contributing to the Trustees' Provident Fund and of being granted annual leave.

*Railway Department.*—The permanent labour force is 470, or 512 including locomotive drivers and firemen.

3. *Engineering Department.*—It used to be the practice some years ago to send Muccadams to the villages to recruit labour but there is now no necessity for this as men offer themselves for employment at the works in sufficient numbers. When new men are required they are selected according to their experience and general suitability.

The supply of labour is generally greater than the demand and no improvements can be suggested. The need for public employment agencies does not exist as far as this department is concerned.

*Docks Department.*—About 80 per cent. of the labour employed in the docks are engaged in gangs through headmen called "Toliwallas" who recruit a standing nucleus from their villages and secure the balance in the City as required from day to day. The toliwallas or gangmen are not necessarily headmen in their villages in early life, but are frequently enterprising and intelligent coolies who have become gang leaders by common consent of their fellow-workers. These toliwallas function as bankers to their regular gangs and generally care for their well-being. Payment of wages is made through the toliwallas who may be considered as small agents or contractors with the advantage of having a personal interest in and some measure of the confidence of the men. When disputes arise, the Port Trust Officer in charge of labour is usually called upon by both parties to adjudicate, and his advice is generally accepted. As these toliwallas and their permanent nucleus of labourers serve for many years in the docks, the relations between employer and employed are

generally speaking of a more intimate nature than would be possible if labour were recruited through Employment Agencies. At present the dock labourers are no members of any union; should they become so, it is possible that the present relations will undergo considerable change. Under existing labour conditions in India it is considered that the substitution of employment agencies for the present system of recruiting through *toliwallas* would be disadvantageous to all concerned.

*Railway Department.*—There is always an ample supply of applicants on the spot to meet all demands.

The need for public employment agencies is not felt nor are they considered to be a very reliable source of recruitment.

7. *Engineering Department.*—In the case of coolies and the less skilled men the question of unemployment in the true sense does not arise as they can generally return to their villages and maintain themselves and their families by working on the land.

In the case of men in more regular employment, such as crane drivers, etc., an effort is made to mitigate the hardship of temporary unemployment owing to slackness of work by a system of compulsory leave without pay, apportioned as equitably as possible among the staff.

8. (i) Workmen in the shops and on general maintenance work are allowed to work up to an age limit of 65 years provided they continue physically fit, and many workmen who have done good service in the past are retained on light work to an advanced age.

*Docks Department.*—Owing to the method of recruitment and employment through *toliwallas*, muster rolls of individual casual labourers are not maintained. The average duration of service as coolies in the docks is about ten years and is about the same for the permanent or monthly-paid hands, the majority of whom are in the Conservancy Establishment. When age prohibits heavy manual labour, the majority retire to their village holdings giving way to younger men who take their places. Their old age is therefore automatically provided for by the custom of the country.

*Railway Department.*—Since the Bombay Port Trust Railway was opened 14½ years ago, the duration of employment among inferior grades has been as follows:—8 per cent. over 10 years, 34 per cent. over 5 years, 58 per cent. under 5 years.

Among the drivers and firemen the figures are:—61 per cent. over 10 years, 31 per cent. over 5 years, 8 per cent. under 5 years.

(ii) *Engineering Department.*—In the case of construction works men are generally engaged temporarily for the duration of the work. In the case of maintenance work employment is generally regular and permanent. In the workshops the number of men employed naturally varies according to the amount of work in hand but to mitigate the hardship of unemployment among the regular workers, a certain proportion are placed on compulsory leave at intervals when the work is slack. This system is however resorted to as little as possible.

*Docks Department.*—Casual employment in its application to the docks is taken to mean daily engagements as required. About 80 per cent. or say an average of 2,000 men are casual.

*Railway Department.*—During the busy season, November to April, 12½ per cent. additional staff are employed on casual basis.

(iii) *Engineering Department.*—The average of absenteeism is about 7 per cent. during the year.

*Docks Department.*—The percentage of absenteeism among the permanent monthly-paid labourers consisting of conservancy branch, water lascars and general purposes coolies, is about 11 per cent. which increases to about 14 per cent. during the two months of seasonal exodus just before till just after the monsoon. Regarding casual labour no figures are available but during these same two months some shortage of docks labour is liable to occur. The causes in both cases are: (a) the marriage season, and (b) the demands of village agriculture. It is to be noted that these seasonal migrations are common to domestic servants and most classes of labour in Bombay.

*Railway Department.*—The extent of absenteeism, i.e., absence without leave amounts to about 6,000 days per annum among 470 men, the causes being chiefly due to temporary sickness and family affairs. Absenteeism in this Department cannot be said to be seasonal as absences due to seasonal occupations are generally covered by sanctioned leave. About 50 per cent. of the above 6,000 days are without pay involving a loss of about 2·1 per cent. on the total annual wages bill.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

The central administration of the Port Trust is vested in a Chairman and a Board of 20 Trustees, under whom are the Deputy Chairman and the Heads of the various Departments of the Trust.

10. *Engineering Department.*—There is one head of the department and under him are 1 deputy, 3 executive and 6 assistant engineers, a number of sub-engineers, a mechanical superintendent and 4 assistant superintendents, foremen, chargemen, supervisors, overseers, muccadams, etc.

*Docks Department.*—The docks are under the constant personal supervision and inspection of the trustees' docks manager and his deputy and assistant managers. They are also frequently inspected by the chairman of the board of trustees. Each of the three docks has a deputy manager in immediate control and each dock is subdivided into sections under an assistant manager. Each of the transit sheds has a superintendent; the gate checks are supervised by gate inspectors and gatekeepers. The "Hamallage" or labour branch of the docks is controlled by a deputy manager with an assistant manager under him. This branch controls (under the docks manager's orders) the daily engagement, allocation and payment of the dock labour employed for Port Trust purposes and the allotment of staff duties generally.

*Railway Department.*—The railway department is controlled by a manager under whom are 2 deputy and 3 assistant managers. The operative work at the various yards and depots is under the immediate supervision of yard foremen and the commercial or clerical work at the yards is supervised by goods foremen of various grades. The engineering branch of the railway comes under the chief engineer and is immediately supervised by an assistant engineer under whom are 5 inspectors and sub-inspectors.

11. The managing staff in all departments are selected in accordance with their qualifications, experience and general ability. As far as possible vacancies are filled by promotion within the service. When this is not possible vacancies are advertised and the selection is made by the board or the chairman in accordance with the provisions of the Act. The appointment of the deputy chairman and heads of departments is subject to the sanction of Government.

12. The staff qualify for advancement by experience and by acting from time to time in higher appointments in temporary vacancies caused by leave or sickness.

*Engineering Department.*—Skilled workmen in the shops are promoted — as opportunities occur—according to the merit and ability shown by them in their particular class of work. By this means they can in time rise to such appointments as head fitter, chargeman, etc.

13. The relations between staff and rank and file are generally cordial and satisfactory. Subordinates always have access to their superior officers and through them to the head of the department and through him to the chairman if they have any complaint to make or grievance to represent.

The provision of such amenities as living quarters, schools for employees' children, infant welfare and maternity centres, the Co-operative Credit Society and other schemes connected with employees' welfare and referred to elsewhere in this report has done much to increase the contentment of the workpeople in the Trustees' employ.

14. (i) Registers of attendance are maintained by timekeepers in each department. At works directed from one centre but spread over outlying areas "Check timekeepers" go round and check the men at the site of their particular job. The accounts department also maintains an independent test check by means of its outside audit branch.

Piecework and contract works are checked by the departments responsible for the work, i.e., for engineering work by the chief engineer's staff and for docks labour by the docks manager's staff. A secondary check is also maintained by the chief accountant's outside and revenue audit staff as follows:—

For engineering works quantities are checked and for docks labour the tonnage or number of packages handled is verified from the import general manifest and returns submitted by the steamer agents and the docks shed staff.

(ii) Payments are made in cash monthly in arrears except for labour at the outlying quarry works at Anik and for casual labour at the docks. At Anik the payments are made half-monthly in arrears owing to the isolated nature of the work. Where the number of workmen to be paid is large payment boxes are filled in compartments in the cash office and taken to the works by cashiers for distribution on the spot. Payments are made in the presence of a responsible departmental officer by the cash staff of the chief accountant's department in the majority of works and in a few cases by the cashier of the controlling department concerned.

In the case of the docks labour, the docks department cashier makes the payments. Daily paid labour is paid the following day while payment for piecework is made soon after the completion of the ship's discharge or loading.

15. (i) *Engineering Department*.—Building and construction work is frequently entrusted to suitable contractors.

*Docks Department*.—As stated in above replies, recruitment and engagement of the casual labour, which comprises the majority of the Port Trust dock employees, is effected through the *toliwallas*. The procedure is the outcome of years of custom, and though there are no specific contracts these *toliwallas* may be considered as petty contractors. Since 1925 piecework has been adopted as much as possible as the basis for labour payments in the Trustees' Docks. Practically all quay portage, sorting, stacking and warehousing is paid for by the ton or, when more convenient, on the basis of a numerical unit. Conservancy, water supply, certain loading contracts and odd jobs are carried out by the monthly-paid staff.

*Railway Department*.—The work of loading and unloading approximately 3 million bales of cotton per annum is let out on contract.

(ii) So far as is known, sub-contracting is not resorted to.

(iii) and (iv) *Engineering Department*.—The contractors' work is in all cases supervised by Port Trust engineers which leaves no scope for unsatisfactory work.

*Docks Department*.—The working conditions in the docks are controlled by the Port Trust through its docks department, that is to say the *toliwalla* supplies his men as required and directed by the labour branch of that department. Briefly the shipowner requisitions for his requirements day by day, and subject to practical considerations such as cargo congestion, religious holidays, etc.—the docks department meets these demands by instructing the *toliwallas* to produce suitable labour gangs and perform the tasks specified. The *toliwalla* has no powers to negotiate with the shipowner or any party other than the Trust.

*Railway Department*.—No direct control is exercised over working conditions as between the contractor and his workmen, the effect of which has been found satisfactory.

### III.—Housing.

16. About 36 per cent. of the normal number of labourers engaged are housed in accommodation provided by the trustees. The number at present housed is slightly over 3,000.

17. Three plans showing the type of the quarters provided at Antop village, and two plans showing the type of quarters at Wadala for railway staff are attached\* together with a brief description of the accommodation at the Wadi Bunder chawls, *vide* Appendix A.\*

1,725 units and 11 dormitories are provided for the occupation of manual labour employed by the Trust. The various types of accommodation provided are: (a) single, double or three-roomed tenements, according to the class of workmen; (b) semi-detached, single-storied two-room cottages at Antop village; and (c) single room quarters in the Wadi Bunder chawls.

Lighting is provided in passage-ways; conservancy is carried out departmentally. Water supply is free.

19. The accommodation provided is popular among the men and is utilized to the full letting capacity.

20. The quarters are either rent-free or allotted at concessional rents up to Rs. 7—8 annas per mensem per unit, according to the class of the quarters provided and the workers occupying them.

In the case of the docks coolies (who form the largest proportion of the labour housed), the rents charged represent between 13 to 15 per cent. of the man's average wages. No allowance has been made for overtime wages or the fact that practically all the tenants have lodgers who are also mostly dock employees.

The maximum rental of Rs. 7—8 annas per mensem per unit charged at the Wadi Bunder chawls is half the economic rent.

21. *Engineering Department*.—Tenements are not rented except to persons employed in the Trust. Single men belonging to one department are sometimes allowed to share a room but sub-letting is not allowed. When a tenant leaves the service, he is required to vacate his room, failing which legal action is taken. Such cases are now practically non-existent.

*Docks Department*.—The infiltration of outsiders is a continual source of trouble to the Port Trust; the labourers themselves appear to have no objection to indiscriminate overcrowding in exchange for any unauthorized rents they are able to collect from "outsiders." From time to time the trustees take legal steps to secure evictions if disciplinary action is ineffective.

## IV.—Health.

24. (i) The trustees have provided dispensaries at the following places on their estates where cases of sickness and injury are attended to and ordinary medicines are supplied to the staff free of charge: Prince's dock; Wadala; Grain depot; Antop village.

Serious cases of accident, etc., which cannot be attended to at the trustees' dispensaries, are sent to one of the public hospitals to which the trustees are regular contributors.

In addition to the above, temporary dispensaries are maintained in localities where works involving the engagement of labour on a large scale are in progress.

All employees of the Trust (including casual labourers) are further entitled to the supply of ordinary medicines for their families on payment in cash according to a scale of charges which represent as nearly as possible the cost price of the medicine. At Antop village dispensary medicines are supplied free to the residents.

(iv) No women doctors are engaged as the number of women employees is insignificant.

25. Full advantage is taken of the medical facilities provided. No separate statistics of the attendance of the labourers is available; the total number of patients attended and cases of injuries treated during the official year ended 31st March, 1929, at the Port Trust dispensaries were as under:—

	No. of patients attended.	Cases of injuries treated.
Prince's dock dispensary ..	23,107	1,109
Wadala dispensary .. ..	5,020	599
Grain depot dispensary ..	6,714	1,759
Antop village .. .. .	10,344	60

During the last small-pox epidemic 3,381 persons (including family members of the staff) were vaccinated.

26. Adequate sanitary arrangements and water supply at work places and in Port Trust quarters are provided. Washing places are provided at quarters.

31. The first work financed out of the recently constituted employees' welfare fund was the erection of a maternity home and infant welfare centre at the Port Trust dock labourers chawls at Wadi Bunder at a cost of Rs. 22,570. The maternity home, which was opened by Her Excellency Lady Wilson on 16th November, 1928, has accommodation for six cases at a time with provision for future extension, and is equipped on the most modern lines. The management of the home and centre is undertaken by the Bombay Presidency Infant Welfare Society who provide the medical staff, medicines and milk for distribution; the Port Trust contributes Rs. 500 a month towards the expenses in addition to paying for the electricity and gas, water charges, telephone rental and maintenance of the building. The home has proved extremely popular and during the first six months of its existence 70 patients have been accommodated. Owing to the increasing demand a scheme for extension is now being prepared.

## V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

32 and 34. In addition to the opening of the maternity home and infant welfare centre referred to above, the trustees have in contemplation schemes for the benefit of their labourers such as laying out playgrounds with equipment for indigenous and other sports and games; also affording monetary assistance to the social service branch of the Y.M.C.A. to organise periodical cinema shows, musical entertainments, night lectures, etc.

An employees' co-operative credit society was instituted two years ago, the membership of which is open to all classes of employees (including workmen) who are members of the trustees' provident fund. The objects of the society are to encourage thrift by enabling members to save and invest part of their income in a safe and remunerative manner and to prevent indebtedness to money lenders by making loans available for approved purposes on reasonable terms as regards interest and repayment. The present number of members is 2,503; the issued share capital is Rs. 2,36,470 and the loans outstanding amount Rs. 2,90,773.

36. (i) and (iii) *Docks Department*.—For the dock labourers' children a free primary vernacular school is provided by the trustees in the compound of the labourers' chawls. The three teachers and one lady teacher are selected on the recommendation of the municipal school authorities.

*Railway Department*.—Three grades of education are provided free for workers' children : (a) Kindergarten ; (b) Marathi vernacular standards I–IV ; and (c) Anglo-vernacular I–III.

*Note*.—Standards I to III in the Anglo-vernacular school rank "pari passu" with standards V to VII of the Marathi School plus tuition in English.

These schools are administered by the Bombay Port Trust and financed by Government, the Bombay Municipality and the Bombay Port Trust.

(iv) *Docks Department*.—The average attendance of children is about 120 or just under 50 per cent. of the total child population of the chawls. Making allowances for infants and language difficulties, the percentage is considered satisfactory.

*Railway Department*.—The schools are used to the fullest extent by the workers' children between the ages of 5 and 12. Educational authorities do not admit children under the age of 5 and parents as a rule remove children on their attaining the age of 12 with a view to their seeking employment. The average attendance of pupils is about 170.

37. Owing to the joint family system prevailing in most parts of India, the earning members are as a rule burdened with the support of those members of the family who are unable to work. A retiring provision for labourers incapacitated by age would obviously alleviate the burden.

In the Bombay Port Trust, workmen—after having put in a qualifying period of 3 years continuous service—are admitted to the benefits of a provident fund, the terms and conditions of which are considered to make adequate provision for retirement in normal cases. The employee contributes  $8\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. of his earnings and the Trust contributes a similar amount plus interest on the accumulated balance at the rate fixed by the trustees from time to time according to the interest earned on the investments of the fund—generally the rate is 5 per cent. per annum or slightly under.

## VI.—Education.

41. The Trustees have a scheme for training apprentices in their workshops. On completion of their course these apprentices are eligible to apply for appointments such as chagemen in such vacancies as may occur.

## VII.—Safety.

43 and 46. *Docks Department*.—The Trustees' views on these questions and the conditions in the Bombay docks, as compared with those in British ports, are stated in letters addressed to the Government of Bombay (Marine Department) in 1928, which are quoted below :—

(Dated 26th September, 1928).

While acquiescing in the principle of protection of dock workers against accidents, the trustees are of opinion that, as far as the Port of Bombay is concerned, there is no actual need for legislation on the subject. The Port authorities already take all reasonable precautions in their own interests for the safety of their workers and it may be pointed out that, apart from humanitarian motives, the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act provides a strong incentive to safety measures. The precautions already adopted in the Port Trust docks have been compared with the regulations detailed in the section of the English Factory Act which is applicable to dock workers and it is found that, with the exception of (1) compulsory chain sling testing and (2) the provision of first-aid outfits at various centres in the docks, this administration is observing the English rules in all essentials. As regards exception (1), the adoption of suitable rules is now under consideration and as regards (2) municipal ambulances are obtainable within 15 minutes of the occurrence of any accident in the docks.

The trustees are, on principle, opposed to any fresh legislation which would tend to add to the financial burden on port administrations or shipowners. If, however, the International Labour Conference, after considering the opinions of the various Governments, comes to the conclusion that the existing provisions for the protection of dock workers are insufficient and that it is necessary to frame an International Convention on the subject, the trustees are of opinion that the terms of that Convention should be on the lines adopted in Great Britain, as specified in the relative section of the English Factory Act. They consider it most important however,



that the terms should allow port administrations considerable latitude in the matter of framing rules as it would be essential to practical working that such rules should be based on experience and known conditions at the various ports. In Bombay, for example, the rules for workers in the docks would require to differ considerably in certain respects from those for workers at the bunders (open wharves for small craft) as the working conditions are totally different. The trustees also consider it most desirable to avoid any risk of the work of port administration being hampered by interference from subordinate outside officials and they would therefore urge that in framing regulations to give effect to the object under reference, the major ports, like the principal railways, should be vested with responsibility for carrying out such regulations with a minimum of outside interference.

As regards the suggestion of setting up Safety First Committees on which the workers would collaborate, the trustees are of opinion that, under present conditions and having regard to the fact that Indian dock labour as a class is still illiterate, the adoption of this proposal would not serve any useful purpose.

(Dated 26th October, 1928).

I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of your memorandum No. 1016/1808-M, dated the 24th September, 1928, and enclosures which has crossed with my No. 4319 of the 26th ultimo. To the general views expressed therein the Trustees have nothing further to add, and this reply is therefore confined to some amplification of the statements made regarding safety precautions observed in the Trustees' docks.

There are no specific rules and regulations akin to the British "Docks Regulations, 1925" framed under Section 79 of the British Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Under Section 73 of the Bombay Port Trust Act of 1879, however, the Board is empowered to make by-laws for *inter alia*.—(a) "The guidance of persons employed by them"; (b) "The safe and convenient use of the wharves, docks, piers, warehouses, tramways and other works constructed or acquired by them under this Act"; (c) "for the use of the public landing-places constructed by or belonging to them"; (d) "for the reception and removal of goods brought within the premises of the Board"; (e) "for keeping clean the harbour and basins and the works of the Board, and for preventing filth or rubbish being thrown therein or thereon"; (g) "for regulating, declaring and defining the wharves, docks and piers vested in the Board on which goods shall be landed from, and shipped on board, vessels."

In the attached statement a comparison is made between the requirements of the British regulations and the measures taken or by-laws in force in the Bombay Port Trust Docks from which it will be observed that the Port Trustees as distinct from "Ship" and "Merchant" operating in the docks are already observing practically all the more important safety precautions.

It will also be observed that in respect of certain processes, principally those connected with the handling of cargo, the Trustees through the medium of their by-laws have powers and exercise those powers to ensure a reasonable factor of safety.

It is trusted that the above remarks and the comparative statement will provide Government with the information they require.

In conclusion it is desired to emphasize the Trustees' views that should the introduction of legislation be decided upon, ample latitude must be allowed to enable the varying conditions at different ports and at different parts of the same port to be observed without hindrance; also that the controlling bodies of major ports should be vested with responsibility for carrying out statutory regulations with a minimum of outside interference.

The statement referred to in the latter (copy enclosed, *vide* Appendix C) shows clearly the safety precautions in force.

**Railway Department.**—The existing regulations are laid down in the General Rules for Open Lines of Indian railways. Copies are published in English and the various vernaculars and issued to all staff concerned. In addition to the General Rules, local rules are laid down for the safety of employees and it is the duty of the supervising staff to see that such orders are understood and carried out.

44 and 45. **Engineering Department.**—Accidents incidental to the nature of the work occur from time to time and are usually due to the carelessness of the workmen themselves. The average number of trivial accidents per annum is about 500, serious accidents about 3 and fatal accidents about 2.

**Docks Department.**—Examination of Police returns show that the majority of fatal accidents occur on board vessels and are caused by falling into open holds. As regards the sheds and quays, fatal accidents are usually due to goods falling out of crane slings and by persons being run over by vehicles. The fundamental cause

of the majority of such accidents is the labourer's own carelessness and disregard of ordinary safety precautions. The following statement summarizes the accidents that occurred in 1928-29 :—

Causes of accidents.	Slight.	Serious.	Fatal.	Total.
<i>On Board Vessels.</i>				
Falling into holds or lighters .. .. .	9	4	3	16
Falling in dry docks .. .. .	—	1	2	3
Goods falling out of slings .. .. .	3	—	1	4
Breakage of slings .. .. .	1	—	1	2
Other causes .. .. .	52	5	5	62
<b>Total, 1928-29 .. .. .</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>87</b>
<b>Total, 1927-28 .. .. .</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>84</b>
<i>On Quays, Sheds and Roads.</i>				
Breaking of chain slings .. .. .	7	2	—	9
Breaking of rope slings .. .. .	1	—	—	1
Run over by carts, motors or railway wagons	12	8	—	20
Failure of ships' gear or machinery .. .. .	—	—	—	—
Failure of Trustees' gear .. .. .	2	—	—	2
Goods falling out of slings .. .. .	5	2	2	9
Other causes .. .. .	508	77	8	593
<b>Total, 1928-29 .. .. .</b>	<b>535</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>634</b>
<b>Total, 1927-28 .. .. .</b>	<b>400</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>499</b>
Falling into dock basin, 1928-29 .. .. .	—	—	4	4
Falling into dock basin, 1927-28 .. .. .	—	—	9	9
<b>Grand Total, 1928-29 .. .. .</b>	<b>600</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>725</b>
<b>Grand Total, 1927-28 .. .. .</b>	<b>446</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>592</b>

*Railway Department.*—The incidence and causes of accidents are enquired into and reported annually to the Railway Board on their standard form. This form gives full information as regards both incidence and cause and actual figures for all railways are obtainable therefrom.

48. Doctors and dispensaries are provided in the docks and other centres and are immediately available when required.

City ambulances are obtainable within 15 minutes of the occurrence of accidents in the docks, while the trustees have under consideration the provision of first-aid boxes in the docks. Up to the present, no steps have been taken to train the staff in first-aid treatment.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

52 and 53. This matter was referred to the trustees by the Director, Labour Office, and Registrar of Trade Unions under cover of a questionnaire submitted along with Government Resolution, General Department, No. 264 of 18th December, 1928. The reply of the trustees (in May, 1929) is quoted below :—

With reference to Government Resolution (General Department) No. 264 dated 18th December, 1928, I have the honour to submit the following statement of opinion, approved by the Board of Trustees, on the questions referred to in the letter from the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, No. L-1125 dated 30th November, 1928 :—

1. As regards ports it is considered that the scope of the Act should be extended so as to make it applicable to such of the following classes as are not already included, subject to the prescribed limit of pay :—(a) all port employees working within dock areas, including dry docks ; (b) persons employed on dredgers, tugs, barges, launches, or any other vessels owned or operated by a port authority ; (c) persons engaged in submarine diving operations in connection with the service of a port authority ; (d) persons employed in the service of any electrical supply or distribution company or attending upon any machinery connected therewith.

3. From the employers' point of view, as far as organized industries are concerned, lump sum payments are decidedly preferable to any general system of monthly disbursements which would involve heavy clerical work and resulting expense to the employer. From the employee's standpoint it is considered that on the whole the lump sum payment is also preferable for the following reasons :—(a) in many industrial centres, especially ports, the bulk of the working population is not indigenous and periodical visits from their villages in order to collect payments or, alternatively, the uncertainty of accurate delivery of remittances through the post to out of the way addresses offer grave objections; (b) in the case of permanent disablement a lump sum payment enables the recipient to set up a shop or purchase land or otherwise invest his capital in such a way as to support himself. A hopelessly improvident person or one who is in the hands of unscrupulous relatives will derive little or no benefit from his compensation in whatever form it is paid to him. It is, however, considered that some reasonable discretion should be given to the Commissioners as regards the form of payment.

4. The scales of compensation laid down in the case of death, permanent total disablement or permanent partial disablement are considered reasonable and adequate except that the minimum monthly " assumed wages " under Schedule IV of the Act might be raised to Rs. 15. The compensation allowed for temporary disablement, *vide* Section 4 (1) D (i), is considered inadequate for employees whose pay is over Rs. 60 per mensem, e.g., a coolie earning Rs. 30 a month is eligible for compensation at the rate of Rs. 15 a month while an employee on Rs. 300 is limited to Rs. 30 only. To rectify this inequality it is suggested that the limit of compensation be raised to Rs. 75 per half month or one-fourth of the monthly wages which ever is less.

5. It is not considered that the waiting period should be reduced as this course would encourage malingering over trifling injuries. While appreciating the loophole for abuse it is considered that " dating back " provisions to say the fourth day might suitably be introduced as it is undoubtedly a hardship for men whose injuries incapacitate them for some weeks to lose ten days' compensation.

6. It is considered that the inclusion of widowed sisters and widowed daughters would sufficiently enlarge the present list of dependents but the commissioners are in the best position to offer an opinion on this matter.

7. Submission of proof of dependence is desirable but insistence on this in all cases would undoubtedly complicate the administration of the Act. It is suggested that such proof should be demanded in the case of a parent or paternal grandparent. The commissioners are in the best position to offer an opinion on this question.

8.

It is considered that the party who employs and pays the workman should be responsible for the payment of compensation, but the workman should be allowed to claim against the principal, leaving the latter to recover from the contractors. The Act should therefore be suitably amended so as to permit of liability being passed on in every case to the party directly employing the workman.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. *Engineering Department.*—Working hours on week days except Saturday :—8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. with interval for meals from 12.30 to 1.30 p.m., 8½ hours. Working hours for Saturday :—8 a.m. to 1 p.m., 5 hours. The limit in the workshops and quarry is 60 hours per week including overtime.

56. Six days per week.

60. (i) All workmen are allowed one hour for meals.

(iv) Apart from Sundays there are 26 holidays on which the works are closed, Besides this, there are certain " sectional " holidays.

61. Sunday is observed as a day of rest.

### B.—Mines.

63. The Port Trust " mines " consist of two open quarries for trapstone and moorum. The same working hours as stated above are observed.

### C.—Railways.

73. (i) *Railway Department.*—The normal hours worked are 8 per day and 56 hours per week.

(ii) The actual hours worked are in accordance with the normal except in certain cases where duties are of light or intermittent nature. The following percentages show this :—

On 8 hours duty equal 76 per cent. of total staff.						
" 9 " " " "	5	"	"	"	"	"
" 10 " " " "	12	"	"	"	"	"
" 12 " " " "	6	"	"	"	"	"
" 14 " " " "	1	"	"	"	"	"

(iii) Workers are normally not on call after doing the above hours of duty until their turn again falls due.

74. Seven days are normally worked per week.

76. (i) No intervals are actually laid down but the intermittent nature of railway work provides sufficient opportunity for occasional rest.

(ii) Staff whose spells of duty exceed eight hours are allowed one hour off for meals.

(iii) No holidays are given except under the leave rules dealt with in paragraph 110 of this questionnaire.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

78 and 79. *Docks Department.*—The hours of work in the docks are :—Daywork, 8 a.m. to 12.30 p.m., 1.30 p.m. to 6 p.m. Nightwork, 7.30 p.m. to midnight (half night), 7.30 p.m. to 3.30 a.m. (whole night). Ordinarily the docks are closed on Sundays, Christmas Day, New Year's Day, Good Friday and the King's birthday, though vessels are permitted to work on payment of additional charges. Labourers employed upon these days are paid at standard rates. The many religious holidays are recognized to the extent of allowing as many members of the community concerned as can be spared to absent themselves from work. Actually the crises of most festivals enjoyed by the working classes are reached at night so that the men are willing to work by day during most of such festivals. The average number of hours per week worked by the toliwalla's men, i.e., the casual labourers, cannot be stated with any pretence to accuracy. Endeavours are being made to extract some information from the men; this will not be available in time for this report but may be referred to in the oral evidence. The monthly-paid men average six days per week and in addition work about the same number of nights on overtime per month.

80. Dock labour has been contented and stable for some years, and the men are generally sufficiently clannish to support one another in disputes. In the absence of unsettling propaganda and agitation therefore, it is not considered that regulation by legislative means is necessary or desirable. To go further, it is probable that such regulation would be resented by the men and without necessarily benefiting them, would hamper the mercantile interests of the country.

#### XI.—Special Questions Relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.

93. *Engineering Department.*—The ordinary working hours on dredging craft aggregate 50 per week. The working day is from 8 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. with an interval of  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour for meals. On Saturdays the hours are from 8 a.m. to 1 p.m. without interval. For work done beyond the ordinary working hours the crews are paid overtime.

*Port Department.*—There are no fixed hours of work for the crews of the vessels comprised in the Port Department flotilla. They are called for duty at any time during the day or night as required but in the ordinary course their working hours in the aggregate do not exceed 8 hours per diem.

94. *Engineering Department.*—Suitable accommodation is provided as necessary on dredging craft. Rations are not provided, but cooks, cooking utensils, stoves and fuel for cooking are provided.

*Port Department.*—No rations are supplied to the crews of the vessels comprised in the Port Department flotilla.

The majority of the crews of the Port Department flotilla live on board their vessels. The lascars of the Prince's, Victoria and Alexandra Docks are provided with free quarters at the docks for their own use only but not for their families.

The crews of the vessels comprised in the Port Department flotilla do not serve under articles of agreement.

95. The Indian Merchant Shipping Act does not apply to vessels of the Port Department flotilla which are classed as "inland vessels."

## XII.—Wages.

96. *Docks Department.*—The prevailing rates for labour at the present time are :—

- A.—Boy or truck coolies (casual)—14 annas per diem.
- B.—Boy or truck coolies (monthly-paid)—14–15 annas per diem.
- C.—Scavengers (monthly-paid)—14 annas per diem.
- D.—Bag coolies (casual)—Re. 1–8 annas per diem.
- E.—Muccadums who generally supervise groups A, B and C, draw an average of Re. 1–8 annas per diem.

From inspection of some of the toliwallas' wages accounts, it appears that the dock labourers' earnings (including overtime) are about Rs. 32 per man. The men employ clerks who check the amounts paid them by the toliwallas.

97 and 100. *Engineering Department.*—On a representation last year from the Port Trust Employees' Union that the pay of workshops hands had not kept pace with the increased cost of living and that increments were rarely given, a thorough investigation was made into the rate of wages of all workmen in the engineering department. Copies of the following two statements prepared at that time are attached for information, vide Appendices\* E. and F. :—(a) Comparative details of number and pay of various classes of Port Trust workmen employed in 1914 and 1928 ; (b) Average percentage increase of pay in each class as compared with 1914.

*Docks Department.*—The rates of wages ruling in 1914 in regard to the classes of labourers mentioned in reply to questionnaire No. 96 were as follows :—

- A.—Annas 7 per diem.
- B.—Annas 7–8 per diem.
- C.—Same as A probably.
- D.—Annas 12–14 per diem.
- E.—Annas 10–12 per diem.

Prior to 1925 the Port Trust paid the toliwallas at daily rates per man supplied. Since 1925 the Trust has paid them at piecework rates on tonnage handled. The men are paid by the toliwallas according to both methods. Broadly speaking the toliwallas pay their regular hands steady rates with small bonuses for extra rapid work. The rate of wages of extra men that the toliwallas engage from day to day in the city are governed by supply and demand, in connection with which there are two controlling factors : (a) seasonal variation occasioned by the annual migration during the rainy season and (b) daily variation caused by greater or less number of vessels working in the docks.

There are no formal agreements or contracts as between the Trust and the toliwallas or between the toliwallas and their men. As will be seen from the paragraph on prevailing wages, the increases in rates have generally speaking corresponded with the increased cost of living.

102. *Engineering Department.*—Basis of 8 hours, whether night or day, equals a day : 4 hours half a day and so on, except :—(a) Tide work dredging, where fixed allowance is sanctioned ; (b) continuous night dredging, where the first six hours count as one day ; (c) divers, who are paid by shifts of 4 hours.

Overtime is calculated on the same basis as ordinary pay. Pay for the purposes of overtime is :—(a) In the case of daily-rated staff, the daily rate of pay, and (b) in the case of monthly-rated staff, the monthly rate of pay divided by 30.

Sundays are paid for on the same basis as ordinary overtime.

*Docks Department.*—Payment is made by the day, half day, etc., at the ordinary day rate, plus a small bonus which varies with the different classes of labourers from 1 anna to 4 annas.

*Railway Department.*—No extra payment is made for Sunday work. Overtime to drivers and firemen is paid at the ordinary rate of wages.

105. It is considered that until labour organization in India has reached a higher stage of development it would not be practicable, except perhaps in the case of certain organized industries, to lay down a statutory minimum wage for labourers.

Conditions and cost of living vary so widely in the different provinces and cities of a vast country like India that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to lay down statutory minima applicable to the whole country.

Labour such as that employed in docks in Bombay is almost entirely casual and subject to seasonal variations, the reasons for which are explained elsewhere. The present conditions and the haphazard system of recruiting such labour would

not lend themselves to the establishment of a statutory minimum wage nor is it thought that legislation in this direction would be popular among the labourers themselves.

It would no doubt be advantageous in certain respects to lay down statutory minima in the case of skilled and semi-skilled labour employed in organized industries, factories, workshops, etc., subject to due allowance being made for the territorial variations in cost of living referred to above. As regards the Bombay Port Trust Workshops, the wages of the various classes of skilled and semi-skilled workmen are regulated within certain minima and maxima which, although not statutory, are determined by prevailing rates in similar works in the locality and do not vary to any extent except in so far as any applicable change in the cost of living may justify.

**106. Docks Department.**—Fining is seldom resorted to, but the toliwallas are sometimes fined for unsatisfactory work. Fines are not recoverable from the labourers unless under the definite orders of the Port Trust Officer in charge. All fines are allocated to the Trust Welfare Fund, which is utilized for the promotion of welfare work for the benefit of the employees.

**Railway Department.**—Fines are limited to a maximum of 10 per cent. of the employee's monthly pay. The extent of fining amounts, on the figures of the preceding 12 months, to 15 per cent. of the total wages bill.

Other deductions are made on account of debits for avoidable loss or damage to Port Trust property for which the employee is responsible. Such debits are included in the limit and the percentage recoveries mentioned above.

Fines are utilized in the promotion of welfare work on behalf of the employees

Legislation for the levying of fines and their limitation is provided for in the Indian Railway Act No. IX of 1890.

**107. (i)** Monthly, half-monthly and daily. Monthly payment is the general rule except for the workmen at Anik Quarry who are paid half-monthly, and casual labour at the Docks which is paid daily or on completion of the ship's discharge or loading.

(ii) Maximum of 15 days.

(iii) This subject was fully enquired into by the Government in the year 1926. Copy of the chairman's reply No. 4284, dated 20th October, 1926, to the enquiry is attached for reference (Appendix H).

(iv) Unclaimed wages are after a reasonable period (generally about 2 years) transferred to a welfare fund for the benefit of the employees, but any claims submitted and substantiated thereafter are met from this fund. For all practical purposes it may, therefore, be stated that unclaimed wages are always recoverable, subject to authentic proof of the validity of the claim.

**108.** Money lending on usurious terms is a curse that is prevalent throughout India. The Port Trust has taken various steps to protect its employees from the pernicious effects of this custom, e.g., money is advanced from the employee's provident fund in cases of certificated illness of the employee or his family and there is also a Co-operative Credit Society of the Port Trust employees which is increasingly patronized and has as its objects the encouragement of thrift and the granting of loans for reasonable purposes on easy terms as regards interest and repayment.

**110.** Fourteen days' leave on full pay is ordinarily allowed to workmen (except casual labour at the docks who are engaged from day to day, as required, through toliwallas).

Workmen on the establishment who are injured on duty are allowed 1 month's leave on full pay and 3 months' leave on half pay.

The above rules do not apply to the line staff of the Bombay Port Trust Railway who are governed by the railway service rules. They are allowed 15 days on full pay in one year and, if injured on duty, are allowed up to 6 months' leave on full pay. They are also allowed leave on full pay not exceeding 30 days if they have to proceed for treatment to a Pasteur Institute and, if residing in Port Trust quarters, if they or any of their family contract a contagious or infectious disease.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

**120. (i)** Three unions have so far been constituted in the Port Trust, i.e.—(1) Bombay Port Trust Employees' Union; (2) Bombay Port Trust Railwaymen's Union; (3) Bombay Port Trust Docks Staff Union.

The first two have been officially recognized by the Port Trust; the third will be officially recognized as soon as it is registered under the Indian Trades Unions Act. The conditions of recognition are detailed in Appendix I.\*

The Employees' Union is open to all employees in the chief engineer's department. It chiefly represents the workshops employees. The membership (1,458) represents about 40 per cent. of the total number of workmen employed in the department.

The Railwaymen's Union is open to all employees on the Bombay Port Trust Railway, superior and inferior, but mostly represents clerical staff. The membership (304) is about 41 per cent. of the total number of employees.

The Docks Staff Union is open to all employees of the docks department, but so far it has not been patronized by the dock labourers and represents chiefly the clerical staff, permanent and temporary. The dock labourers have so far held aloof from the Union, though efforts have been made to enlist their support. Although not *unionised* this class of labour is extremely clanlike, and would readily combine in the event of any dispute with their employers.

(ii and iii) The attitude of unions towards the administration is in the main correct and generally speaking the conditions of recognition are observed without friction. In common with other unions the management is largely in the hands of outside labour leaders, one result of which is that representations are frequently made to the employers which are vitiated by incorrect knowledge of facts and ignorance of service and working conditions. Trades union organization in India is in its infancy and the demands submitted are frequently entirely impracticable and put forward without any regard to common sense or equity as between the worker and the employer. An insistent and recurring demand is that all workers should receive periodical increases of pay irrespective of their skill or efficiency or the nature of the work on which they are employed; another frequent demand is that once a worker has been engaged he should be retained indefinitely, irrespective of whether there is work for him or not.

The administration observes strict impartiality in its dealings with union and non-union employees and generally speaking the relations between the administration and the Unions are quite amicable, though instances have arisen when a union has had to be warned for vilification of non-union employees in the union periodical. The administration has consistently impressed on the unions the desirability of managing their own concerns without interference from outside labour leaders and agitators and to some extent the unions are showing a disposition to follow this advice, although a few prominent labour leaders still function as office bearers and exercise a strong influence on the policy of the unions.

121. (i) Two of the Port Trust Unions have registered and the third is in process of registration. The unions appear to have no objection to accepting the provisions of the Act.

(iii) Under the existing provisions of the Act it is possible for all the office bearers to be non-employees. Article 22 of the Act lays down that not less than one-half of the total number of officers shall be persons actually engaged or employed in the industry; as, however, the term " officer " includes the managing committee, it is possible for all the principal office holders, i.e., president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, etc., to be outsiders. The Trustees consider it very desirable that the office bearers should, as far as possible, be selected from among the employees and they are of opinion that in this respect the Act is defective and should be suitably amended. It also seems desirable to lay down that before a union can be officially registered it must show that its membership constitutes an adequate proportion of the class of workers whom it purports to represent.

122 (i) Reference is invited to the Port Trust conditions of recognition (Appendix I).<sup>\*</sup> Representations from the unions are submitted in writing to the chairman or the secretary of the Port Trust and are fully investigated with the head of the department concerned. The result of the investigation is then submitted to a staff committee of the Trustees and, in cases where the unions ask for deputations to be received, these requests are always acceded to by the chairman and the staff committee.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

125. The Trustees have expressed to the Government the opinion that the Major Port Administrations should be included in the category of Public Utility Services for the reason that ports are as much an essential link in the chain of transportation and supply as railways, and it has been abundantly proved in other countries that trade and industry can be disorganized, and public welfare seriously affected, by sudden stoppages of work in ports. In the present illiterate and unorganized condition of labour in India it is very necessary that—as regards all essential services—the law should provide prompt and adequate means of restraining the activities of irresponsible and extreme labour leaders.

As the Bill stands, it would allow of ports being notified as Public Utility Services after three months' prior notice in the *Gazette of India*, but this delay in enforcing the provisions of the law might easily prove disastrous to trade and industry.

## APPENDIX C.

Comparison of requirements laid down in British Regulations, 1925, with actual measures taken and Bye-laws enforced in the Bombay Port Trust Docks.

(Referred to in reply to Question No. (46) ).

British Regulations	If observed in Bombay.	Relevant Docks' Bye-laws, if any.	Extracts from Bye-laws and Remarks.
<i>Part I.</i>			
1 (a) ..	Observed .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
(b) ..	Observed in Prince's and Victoria Docks. Similar arrangements for Alexandra Dock in hand.	<i>Nil.</i>	
2 (a) ..	Observed .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Consisting of life-belts hung on open hooks attached to transit shed walls.
(b) ..	Do. .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Consisting of recessed ladders and stairs on quay walls.
3 ..	Do. .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	As certain classes of goods are stored in the open, and night work is regularly carried on, the standard of lighting is high.
4 to 6 ..	Not observed .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	It is proposed to adopt these measures.
7 ..	Observed .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	A Municipal Motor Ambulance stationed near the centre of the dock system is reserved for accidents in the docks and can be obtained in less than 15 minutes. Should more than one ambulance be required three more are available from a distance of about 2 miles. The Port Trust also maintains an emergency hospital and dispensary with an assistant surgeon in whole-time charge near the centre of the dock system.
8 ..	Not observed .. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Would follow with the adoption of sections 4 to 6 above.
9 (a) ..	Observed .. ..	27, 43	Substantial gangways are supplied free. "Ship" responsible for attachment, adjustment and illumination. Illumination compulsory for foreign going ships in compliance with precautions against ingress of rats and their plague fleas.
(b) ..	Concerns the master of vessel.	<i>Nil.</i>	
10 ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
11 ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
12 ..	Do. do. (also) ..	69	"Masters and owners. . . are responsible for the proper provision of lights in all those parts of vessels where work is being carried on in any way connected with the use of the Trustees' cranes . . and other property." The Trustees therefore exercise some control.
13 to 17	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	



APPENDIX C—continued.

British Regulations	If observed in Bombay.	Relevant Docks' Bye-laws, if any.	Extracts from Bye-laws and Remarks.
<i>Part III.</i>			
18 ..	Observed in respect of Port Trust plant.	<i>Nil.</i>	
19 ..	Observed in respect of Port Trust gear.	<i>Nil.</i>	
20 to 22 ..	Observed in respect of Port Trust gear.	<i>Nil.</i>	The Trustees have a chain testing house at which Stevedores' chains and slings are tested for a small charge. An enlarged testing house and compulsory testing of Stevedores' gear is under consideration.
		67 & 68	Stevedoring Firms work under licenses granted by the Trustees, who are thus able to exercise a measure of control over their operations.
23 24 ..	Do. do. ..	67 & 68	See remarks on 20 to 22 above.
25, 26 & 27	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
28 ..	Not observed ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Adoption of these measures is in hand.
29 ..	Observed in respect of Port Trust plant.	41	" Exhaust steam or water from winches or other machines or engines on board vessels in dock shall be led down the side of the vessel to below coping by a hose or other effective appliance."
30 (a) ..	Do. do. ..	70	This Bye-law holds the "ship" responsible for loading the Trustees' quayside cranes with slings not exceeding in weight their designed lifting powers.
31 (b) ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
31 ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Bye-law No. 67 requires competence in Hatch foremen.
32 ..	Observed ..	<i>Nil.</i>	There is no age limit however. The docks quays are from 30 feet upwards in width and are not used for storing cargo which is taken into or behind the transit sheds.
33 ..	Concerns Master of vessel	<i>Nil.</i>	In practice not used in the Docks.
34 ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
35 ..	Do. do. ..	67	This bye-law almost covers this regulation, viz. . . . "one foreman in the hold, who . . . whenever a vessel is loading cargo in the between decks . . . shall that see between-deck hatches . . . are properly put on before commencing work."
36 ..	Do. do. ..	67 & 68	The dock officials refuse to allow dangerous or negligent slinging and if need be stop work on the vessel.
37, 38 & 39	Do. do.	67	Almost covered by this bye-law

## APPENDIX C—continued.

British Regulations	If observed in Bombay.	Relevant Docks' Bye-laws, if any.	Extracts from Bye-laws and Remarks.
<i>Part III.</i> <i>contd.</i>			
40 ..	Observed in respect of Port Trust gear.	127	" Any person who shall cut, deface or injure any . . . (Port Trust property) within the dock shall in addition to the prescribed penalty (a fine) be required to pay the amount of damage, etc. . . ."
41 ..	Do. do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
42 ..	No regulations ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
43 ..	Concerns master of vessel	<i>Nil.</i>	
44 ..	No regulations ..	<i>Nil.</i>	
45 ..	Do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	Under the terms of bye-law No. 117 the power to enforce the docks bye-laws and generally manage operations within his jurisdiction in the docks is vested in the docks manager.
46 ..	Do. ..	<i>Nil.</i>	

## APPENDIX F.

Statement showing average percentage increase of pay in each class of workmen in the Bombay Port Trust Engineering Department as compared with 1914 (referred to in reply to Question No. (97) ).

Designation.	1914.	1920.	1928.	Percentage of increase over 1914.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
Fitters .. .. .	2 0 10	2 9 7	3 0 6	48
Turners .. .. .	2 2 6	2 11 1	2 15 6	42
Greasers .. .. .	0 12 0	1 4 0	1 10 0	116
Asst. Fitters or Fitters Coolies ..	0 12 3	1 5 0	1 6 10	86
Carpenters .. .. .	1 6 9	2 3 0	2 13 0	98
Mochees .. .. .	1 8 0	2 1 0	2 0 0	33
Caulkers .. .. .	1 2 6	1 15 3	2 5 4	102
Blacksmiths .. .. .	1 10 9	2 4 5	2 14 8	74
Hammermen .. .. .	0 13 0	1 6 0	1 8 0	84
Boilermakers .. .. .	1 12 3	2 3 2	2 9 3	46.7
Rivettors .. .. .	1 2 4	1 9 1	1 10 9	46
Holders .. .. .	0 12 0	1 2 5	1 4 3	69
Coppersmiths .. .. .	2 2 0	2 12 0	2 15 0	40
Tinsmiths .. .. .	1 13 6	2 11 0	2 7 5	34
Plumbers .. .. .	1 10 0	2 2 0	2 9 9	61
Moulders .. .. .	1 9 4	2 6 6	2 6 4	51
Sailmakers .. .. .	1 2 3	1 10 7	2 1 0	80
Painters .. .. .	1 2 4	1 8 4	1 13 0	60
Firemen .. .. .	0 12 0	1 4 0	1 7 0	91
Bamboo Coolies .. .. .	0 9 3	1 0 0	1 1 8	90
Masons .. .. .	1 6 0	1 12 0	2 3 0	59
Kitson's Light Lighter	0 12 0	1 4 0	—	—
Bhisties .. .. .	<i>Nil.</i>	1 4 0	1 8 0	140
Water Women .. .. .	0 7 0	0 15 0	0 14 9	111
Extra Khallasees .. .. .	0 9 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	100

## APPENDIX H.

Copy of letter No. 4284, dated 20th October, 1926, from the Deputy Chairman, Bombay Port Trust, to the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence (Labour Office), Bombay (referred to in reply to Question No. (107)).

2. It is agreed that, for the reasons given a delay of a fortnight or more in payment of monthly wages inflicts some hardship on employees and that legislation is desirable to check the abuses referred to. It is considered necessary that powers should be reserved to Local Governments to exempt such administrations and concerns as can satisfy the Local Government that their system of payment of wages is regular and involves no hardships to their employees. It will also be necessary that employers should be allowed to fix the date on which for purposes of calculation of wages the month should commence and end. This will be most necessary in the case of employers whose staff is divided into a number of departments or sections spread over a large area and have to be paid on separate pay sheets. In administrations such as the Port Trust this necessitates the continuous payment of wages from the 1st to the 15th of each month, according to a fixed programme. It would be impracticable to prepare and disburse all the pay sheets within a week without considerably augmenting the clerical and cash staff, but the difficulty can be overcome by fixing different dates for the commencement and end of the official month for the different classes and sections of employees. This would be merely a matter of internal organization and would not affect the employees and it, therefore, appears unnecessary to provide that the sanction of Government should be obtained to such arrangements.

3. It is not considered that the enforcement by law of a shorter period of payment than monthly would be either desirable or practicable.

4. The proposal to fix one week as the time limit within which the payment of wages due must be made, is considered reasonable. It should be laid down that wages shall be paid within six days after the close of the period for which they are due and that Sundays and holidays under the Negotiable Instruments Act should be reckoned as *dies non* in computing the statutory period of six days, otherwise it will not be practicable to comply with the requirements of the law if a succession of holidays should intervene immediately after the close of the period. It is not considered that, in respect of the time limit, any distinction should be drawn between monthly wages and wages for a shorter period. In the great majority of cases wages are calculated and paid on a monthly basis, but if, for any special reason, payment is to be made fortnightly or weekly, the preparation of the paysheets and other formalities connected with the disbursement necessitate just as much time and labour as in the case of monthly wages and the margin allowed for payment should, therefore, be the same, otherwise employers would be put to unnecessary expense for additional clerical staff. It should also be made clear that, for the purposes of this legislation, daily-rated staff in regular employ who are paid by the month shall be regarded as on the same footing as monthly-rated employees. Workshops employees, for example, are usually engaged on a daily rate of pay but their wages are disbursed monthly as long as they are in regular employ. The services of such employees in the Port Trust is recorded in service registers and they are entitled to certain of the privileges of the permanent staff, e.g., provident fund and casual leave. It would be impossible to grant such privileges if their wages were not disbursed monthly and any change in the present system would undoubtedly be resented by the employees themselves as likely to prejudice the security of tenure of their employment.

5. It is considered desirable that provision should be made on the lines suggested in paragraph 6 of Mr. Ley's letter under reference for payment within the statutory period of a percentage (75 per cent. appears reasonable) of the wages earned, in cases where intricate calculations or evaluations are involved. Special pay of the nature of bonuses, overtime, etc., should be excluded from the operation of the proposed legislation, or, if considered preferable, the Local Government should be given authority to grant exemption in such cases.

6. The proposed enforcement of the legislation by the infliction of fines, regulated in the manner suggested in paragraph 7 of Mr. Ley's letter, is agreed to, but the suggestion that a portion of the fines might be allocated to the workmen injured, should certainly not be adopted as the division of the money among the workmen affected, in proportion to the degree of injury would probably be so difficult as to render the proposal unworkable. In any case, injuries to workmen are covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act and no steps should be taken to interfere with its operation.

7. The chairman is in agreement with the proposal that the power to prosecute should be vested in some independent authority, such as an inspecting staff, but it is considered that the procedure to be adopted in regard to inspections should be very

carefully defined, it being clearly desirable to avoid all unnecessary interference with the internal management of the concerns affected. It would probably be sufficient in most cases if the employers were required to furnish periodical certified returns showing the period and date of disbursement of their staff wages.

8. Finally, it is agreed that the abuses which the proposed legislation is designed to check are particularly associated with the larger industrial concerns, and that, for this reason and having regard to the difficulty of extending the operations of the measure to smaller establishments, the legislation should be restricted in its operation to those concerns to which the provisions of the Factories or the Mines Act are applicable.

Messrs. E. D. SASSOON & Co. Ltd.

### Housing.

The housing of mill operatives in Bombay is a problem which has engaged the attention of Government and mill companies for some years.

In seeking accommodation, the workers first consideration is the charge for same, and they seek the cheapest available without thought of sanitation or healthy surroundings. The workers further considerations are for accommodation with friends or relations and as near as possible to their place of employment.

The Development Department constructed numerous blocks of chawls some years ago, but they have not been taken up to the extent originally anticipated for various reasons and there still remain areas in the city which are overcrowded and unhealthy.

Along with other mill companies, we have chawls of our own, but in the past they were not taken advantage of by the operatives to any large extent as they felt they had not the same latitude in regard to arrears of rent as they would have with a landlord of privately owned chawls who had no control over their wages. We also found that we were housing numbers of workers belonging to other mills and factories who were sub-tenants of our own operatives who had engaged the rooms.

We consider there are advantages, to the operatives and to ourselves, in providing clean sanitary accommodation close to the mills and we have given this matter our serious attention. Steps were taken recently to remove all outsiders from our own chawls and we have reduced the rents considerably in an endeavour to fill the rooms with our own employees. We further allowed considerable latitude in regard to the payment of arrears of rent. The result has been satisfactory and to-day our chawls are practically full, all occupied by our own work-people and their families.

As already stated, we employ approximately 22,000 operatives. In considering housing schemes however, this figure requires adjustment.

There are a large number of men who will always live with their friends or relatives at a distance from the mill, and it is estimated that not more than 50 per cent. of our permanent operatives can be induced to take advantage of housing facilities provided by our mill companies.

To-day, we have 23 blocks of chawls, containing in all 775 rooms. The average size of the rooms is 166 sq. ft. and the average rent is Rs. 4-2 annas per month. This rent compares favourably with that charged by the Development Department and private landlords, it being 15 per cent. and 40 per cent. cheaper respectively. All rooms have been let and there are approximately 1,200 operatives and their families in occupation.

Taking the most up-to-date and recently constructed chawls as an example, i.e., those connected with the David Mills Co., it is a matter of interest to note the following figures:—

The capital cost to the mills company amounts to Rs. 10,45,518 whereas the return on this outlay amounts to about Rs. 1156 per-month net, not allowing for depreciation, or 1.3 per cent. return on capital outlay.

### Welfare.

*Medical.*—There are three full time doctors on the mills staff, one being a lady doctor whose special duty is the care of female operatives; all of the doctors visit the mills daily. We maintain nine dispensaries, each in charge of a full time compounder under the supervision of the medical officers.

Two whole time welfare workers are employed, chiefly for the benefit of the co-operative societies in the mills, at an annual charge of Rs. 4,140. They also supervise the night-school, co-operative restaurant, reading rooms and baby creches.

*Restaurant.*—Some of the clerks of the Alexandra and E. D. Sassoon mills started a restaurant in April, 1923. It is not a registered co-operative society, but 36 shareholders subscribed for 99 shares at Rs. 5 per share.

The managing board consists of 8 members and the mills paid a sum of Rs. 250 for the initial expenses for providing cooking vessels. The mills also pay the salaries of the cook and servants and give the rooms occupied rent free. The expenses of the food are divided amongst the members at the end of the month. This restaurant has not functioned too well and the care of same is now being taken over by the welfare officers.

*Reading Room and Library.*—From the profits of the restaurant, a reading room and library is conducted for members only. There are 425 books in the library, both in English and vernacular, and newspapers and periodicals are regularly purchased.

This society also granted a sum towards the purchase of a cricket kit for the use of employees of the mills.

*Tea Shop.*—The Alexandra and E. D. Sassoon mills also maintain a tea shop towards the expenses of which, the mill sanctioned the sum of Rs. 500. In the beginning this shop was managed by the members of the mills co-operative society, but it turned out a failure and after one year's trial, the contract was given to an outsider for the supply of food on fixed rates at a monthly rental of Rs. 145.

*Crèches.*—There are two baby crèches, one at the Jacob Sassoon mill and the other at the Rachel Sassoon mill, each capable of providing for about 50 babies. The daily average attendance prior to the strike was 30. The infants are daily bathed and dressed in clean clothes provided by the mills. All except those entirely breast-fed, are given milk and biscuits.

Each crèche is in charge of a whole time matron assisted by two or three ayahs. The lady doctor visits both the crèches every day. Further extensions to crèches to our mills were under organization, but have been delayed owing to the recent mill strike.

In connection with the crèches, we wish to acknowledge the assistance we have received from the Factory Inspection Department of the Bombay Government, mentioning Dr. Miss Cama in particular.

*Anti-Malarial Work.*—An anti-malarial staff is employed in charge of an inspector to prevent the breeding of malarial mosquitoes in mill compounds and chawls.

*Accidents.*—Full wages are paid by the mills for the first ten days of disablement, although the Workmen's Compensation Act does not provide for any payment for this period. The total amount thus paid in advance of statutory requirements in the year 1927 was Rs. 2,940-11-6 pies.

*Cheap Grain Shops.*—Nine grain shops are maintained. Grain, cereals, sugar and jaggery are sold at these shops to the operatives of the respective mills at cost, and on credit against earned wages. The annual aggregate turn-over is Rs. 1,25,000. The shop expenses amounting to Rs. 12,000 annually are paid by the mills.

*Employees' Benefit Fund.*—All unclaimed wages are credited to this fund and grants are made from it to employees retiring after long service and to dependants of deceased employees. Financial distress caused by illness is also relieved. The total disbursements thus made in the year 1927 were Rs. 25,460-2-9 pies.

*Hawalla.*—This is a system whereby operatives leaving the firm's service (either temporarily or permanently) are enabled to draw their wages before the stipulated pay-day. About Rs. 1,75,000 is annually advanced at an interest of 3 to 6 pies per rupee. The funds for this system are provided free of interest by the mills and the interest of 3 to 6 pies per rupee above mentioned, is utilized solely for welfare work.

*A Night-school.*—(for adults as well as children) is conducted at the Jacob Sassoon mill, where elementary English, Marathi and Arithmetic are taught. The average attendance in normal times is about 50.

*Co-operative Credit Societies.*—All mills, except the Manchester and Elphinstone mills, have 19 co-operative credit societies between them. The David mill has seven departmental societies, and the Jacob Sassoon mill has six. Membership of one of the latter societies is entirely restricted to women workers.

The recent strikes affected these societies adversely to a considerable degree, and vigorous efforts of the welfare workers appointed by the company have been necessary to keep the societies in existence.

Whereas, the aggregate membership in 1928 shows a fall of 19 per cent. from that of the previous year, and the share capital a corresponding fall of 20·7 per cent., the aggregate amount of members' deposits is now up by 15·8 per cent. and outstanding loans have been reduced by 15·5 per cent. Three societies which were in the "C" class in 1927, were brought up to the "B" class in 1928. A statement showing the comparative position of the societies at the end of 1927 and 1928, respectively, is attached hereto.

Till the end of 1927, the policy of the firm was one of non-intervention in the management of the societies. It was however, discovered that several societies had passed into the hands of cliques consisting of jobbers and clerks and that the rank and file kept away from the societies. The aggregate membership in 1927, was 1,907, which is only 8½ per cent. of the total employees of the mills concerned. Misappropriation to the extent of Rs. 4,400 was detected in the Alexandra and E. D. Sassoon mills co-operative credit society. The firm therefore directed its welfare workers to control the working of the societies generally. This change of policy is having very salutary results, as will be seen from the progress made by the societies recorded in the statement attached. It has to be remembered that these improvements were brought about in a year which was full of strikes.

By way of encouragement, the firm grants an annual bonus of Rs. 100 to the secretary of each society standing in the "A" class. Loans free of interest are frequently advanced by the firm to the societies. The aggregate amount of loans thus advanced in 1927 was Rs. 6,440.

### Wages.

Wages are paid monthly on a day between the 10th and 15th of the month following that in which the wages are earned. This system has been criticised and suggestions have been put forward from time to time for the payment of wages fortnightly, and even weekly. In 1912, we made an experiment of paying wages fortnightly, but after three months the system had to be dropped. In 1924, the Secretary of State for India raised the question again, and the millowners' association went into the matter exhaustively, but the scheme had to be dropped in deference to the wishes of the workpeople. Mr. Chamanlal introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly in September, 1924, under which the payment of weekly wages to workmen, domestic servants and other employees was to be made compulsory. The Bill was dropped and the system of monthly payments was continued.

When we introduced the system of paying fortnightly wages in 1912, a deputation of workpeople approached us and intimated their intention to strike if the system was not dropped. Their argument was that their rents were paid monthly and that they ran monthly accounts with grain shopkeepers, provision shops, etc., and that these accounts were settled monthly. They further pointed out that they relied on receiving a full month's pay when they wished to return to their villages periodically. We did not proceed with the matter and the system of paying monthly was reverted to.

When the Secretary of State for India, raised the question of fortnightly payments in 1924, the Governor of Bombay approached the millowners' association who appointed a special advisory sub-committee to draw up a practical scheme. The scheme put forward was on the following basis :—

Wages should be paid on the 15th and 30th of each month.

On the 30th of each month, wages earned from the 1st to the 15th of that month should be paid, and on the 15th, wages earned from the 16th to 30th of the preceding month should be paid. The system to come into force in August, 1924.

The scheme as prepared by the sub-committee was referred to individual members of the association who were asked to consult their operatives in the matter. It was found that the workpeople were universally opposed to the change and the arguments advanced were the same as those placed before us in 1912. Several mill companies were opposed to the scheme, unless other large employers of labour, such as the tramway company, municipality, etc., could also introduce it. The scheme was finally dropped in June, 1924.

In regard to the criticism made at various times of the delayed payment of wages, i.e., 10 to 15 days after they have been earned, we consider the workpeople have no real grievance on this point. It must be remembered that the calculation of the wages due to piece workers is a lengthy process in a large factory and 10 days is not an unreasonable time for the preparation of the pay rolls. We are of opinion that this could be expedited and payment made on the 6th day of the following month, but this would necessitate a few adjustments to make the work easier, such as the consolidation of the dear food allowance.

The pay-days are fixed by the millowners' association annually and a day before a mill holiday is invariably chosen; for instance, if there is a religious festival on the 12th of the month and the mill is to be closed on that day, wages would be paid on the 11th. Further, if there is no festival and the mill is to be stopped on a Sunday the 14th, wages would be paid on Saturday the 13th. It has been suggested that a fixed pay day would be more suitable to the workers. In our opinion this would cause dissatisfaction, as the men would always want their wages to be paid before their holiday, and as long as we continue to be elastic in this matter, there will be no real grievance.

Operatives leaving service, at irregular dates are paid their earned wages on pay-day, but if they ask for earlier payment, they are paid under the Hawalla system, i.e., at a discount of 3 to 6 pies in the rupee. When a whole section is stopped, operatives are paid their full earned wages within two or three days.

Prior to the recent strike, operatives gave the mill officials one month's notice from the 1st of the month of their desire to resign at the end of that month and wherever sufficient reasons were advanced for immediate leave, such leave was given by the granting of a discharge pass.

Since the strike, workmen rarely give notice of their intention to resign. They ask for an immediate discharge which is generally granted and the operative is paid his full earned wages on pay-day, or earlier under the Hawalla system should he so desire.

The operative leaving service without notice should, under the mill rules, forfeit his wages. As pointed out above, however, an immediate discharge is usually granted and his wages paid on pay-day. We can trace one instance of wages of an operative being forfeited through leaving the mill without notice. In this instance, the operative filed a suit in the Small Causes Court for the recovery of his wages, but the Court upheld the argument of the defence that as he had left service without notice, he was not entitled to draw his wages and the suit was dismissed.

*Fines.*—Order No. 18 of the standing orders as presented by the Millowners' Association to the Fawcett Committee, provides for offences for which operatives are liable to be fined. Section (b) of this order provides for fining in cases of negligence in work or neglect of work.

The Fawcett Committee's report deals with this subject at considerable length and makes reference to the practice of handing over damaged cloth to weavers, debiting their wages with the full cost of such damaged cloth. The Fawcett Committee disapproved of this practice although they appreciated the necessity for strict disciplinary action in cases where faulty cloth was produced as a result of negligence. In November, 1926, we abolished the system of handing over damaged cloth to weavers and our mills were instructed to deal with all such cases by fining the individual concerned. This change resulted in an inordinate increase in the quantity of fents produced and within a year it was found necessary to revert to the old practice of handing damaged cloth back to the weavers.

The incidence of fines (all mills) during the 8 months January to August, 1925, was .14 per cent. of the wages bill. During the period January to October, 1927, when fines were imposed on those weavers producing faulty cloth, the incidence rose to .23 per cent. On reverting to the old practice of handing over damaged cloth to the weaver, at the end of 1927, the incidence dropped and during the period January to April, 1928, it was .15 per cent. of the wages bill.

The value of damaged cloth handed over to weavers during the period January to September, 1925, averaged Rs. 260 per month per mill (under our control), and during the period January to September, 1926, Rs. 380. per month per mill. As pointed out above the system was abolished towards the end of 1926, and revived in November 1927. Since the end of 1927, the mills have not worked normally and we are not in a position to give figures of damaged cloth values for the last two years.

A certain percentage of the cloth, varying with the type of cloth manufactured by a particular mill, may be considered as difficult to sell as the styles and qualities may vary from those used by the class to which the weaver belongs. Where the cloth is an easily saleable one, as the price recovered from the weaver is the wholesale contract rate, he will lose nothing at all in disposing of the cloth. There may be some hardship where the cloth is not easy to sell and adjustments might be made in the price at which such cloth is debited to the weaver. We feel that the principle of debiting cloth to a weaver should be maintained in view of our experience during the period this system was abolished.

It is, however, essential that the operative should have protection to prevent him being saddled with cloth, the basic fault of which was caused by matters outside his control.

Prior to the strike we were negotiating with the local union with a view to providing a joint examination with a union official and the operative concerned, before cloth was finally booked to the operative in order to protect the latter, but the strike stopped all negotiations.

Some system of examination is necessary and in the absence of efficient trade unions, it might be made a duty of the local factory inspectors although we are afraid they are already overworked and with the present staff will not be able to cope with this.

While on the subject of wages, we wish to refer to what is known as the efficiency system of working which was introduced by us and which has been referred to at length in the Fawcett Report of 1928.

The Tarriff Board in its report, states that "the only alternative to a reduction in wages is increased efficiency and it is in this direction that in our view, the true line of advance lies." This question of increased efficiency has been the subject of serious consideration by us for some time and in 1926, we introduced what is now known as our "Efficiency System." This scheme was explained in detail in our written statement to the Fawcett Committee submitted through the Millowners' Association, and we attach hereto a copy of it. (Marked appendix X with supplementary appendices).

It is an accepted fact that the competition which the Bombay mills have to face is keenest on qualities imported from Japan. The textile industry in Japan is well organized and the report on it recently published by Mr. A. S. Pearse, the general secretary of the International Federation of Master Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers Association, is illuminating.

From a perusal of this report it will be seen that the weaving section is the department in which India is terribly backward. It is reported one girl attends 5 ordinary looms without difficulty as against 2 which is the common practice for a male weaver to attend in Bombay.

Our "Efficiency System" provides for advancement on these lines and although it will be some years before we attain the state reached by Japanese operatives, we are of the opinion we shall maintain steady improvement in this direction.

Co-operation from labour is however a vital necessity if much advance is to be made and if successful, means that labour will benefit by the expansion of the industry, due to our attaining competitive costs with higher wages to the individual operative.

In addition to the improvement in the efficiency of workers, it will also be necessary for mills to instal more modern plant.

Post war developments in the textile industry have been such that more progress has been made during the last 5 years than was made in the previous 50 years in the development of improved textile machinery.

In the spinning side, combined blowing room machinery, high drafting and other minor methods have made much machinery redundant and reduced the work of the operative.

On the weaving side improved methods of winding, high speed warping, automatic drawing-in and twisting and automatic looms have completely revolutionized existing methods of working. New problems have entered the industry in relation to these new methods and the existence of sound trade unions, on the lines of the textile trades unions existing in England, have become an imperative necessity.

If the industry in Bombay is to continue, changes of equipment and methods of working to enable us to keep abreast of our competitors are absolutely essential.

The operative in Bombay is conservative to a degree and unless handled by a strong trade union, will resist the changes and the upheavals which the installation of improved machinery will necessitate.

Criticism against the efficiency system has been most intensive on account of the fear of consequential unemployment by its adoption. It is evident that unless the efficiency of the workers and the machinery is brought up to date, the industry in Bombay will totally pass out with a great deal more unemployment than will be incurred in the adoption of efficiency schemes. Such schemes however, will enable the industry to meet foreign competition and lead to the expansion of the industry to an extent which will not only absorb any unemployed, but will lead to further expansion.

#### Trade Unions.

We have already criticised the absolute necessity in Bombay for the establishment of trade unions functioning on lines similar to the textile trade unions in England. Our firm have realized this for a very long period and in 1922 endeavoured to form a trade union amongst the operatives of the Rachel Sassoon mill by giving covert assistance. The services of Mr. Peter Baptista were called in and he was requested to organize a trade union to which we promised every possible help that lay in our power in so far as it is possible for an employer to assist in the formation of a trade union amongst his own employees.

A union was formed, but unfortunately fell into bad odour very rapidly owing to lack of trained and experienced officials. Mr. Baptista was unfortunately not able to afford us much assistance at that time owing to pressure of work in other trade unions he was connected with. Since that date, we have always endeavoured to deal with any trade union that has brought up any matter for discussion before us and at no period have we refused to meet the authorized representatives of trade unions.

The necessity of soundly organized unions is such that we consider that in the absence of other means, Government should take the matter in hand at once and, if necessary, bring out experts from England to organize and train trade union officials from the ranks of the workers.



E. D. SASSOON WELFARE INSTITUTE.

Comparative Position Statement of the Co-operative Credit Societies in the Years 1927-28 and 1928-29.

No.	Society.	Number of Members.		Share Capital.		Reserve Fund.		Deposits.		Long and Short Loans Outstanding.		Agents' Loans.		Working Capital.		Class.	
		1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1927-28.	1928-29.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	E.D.S.T.R. Dye Works ..	141	147	5,958	6,563	155	462	809	1,578	5,853	5,638	—	—	8,668	9,665	A	A
2	Rachel Sassoon Mill ..	112	105	4,427	4,012	545	697	268	205	5,166	4,518	—	—	6,049	5,605	A	A
3	Apollo Mills ..	130	122	3,523	3,396	543	670	566	290	3,682	4,077	—	—	5,155	4,852	A	A
4	Meyer Sassoon Mills, Ltd. ..	416	323	9,001	7,894	1,158	1,601	398	164	9,903	6,719	—	—	11,855	10,658	B	B
5	Alex. & E. D. S. Mills ..	157	151	5,193	4,823	975	975	3,297	3,718	5,299	5,674	500	—	10,595	10,530	B	B
6	Edward Sassoon Mill, Ltd. ..	144	96	1,796	1,408	554	639	73	623	2,437	1,786	—	—	2,899	2,951	B	B
7	David Mills, Mule ..	105	67	1,427	1,085	1,045	1,064	—	—	3,167	3,011	800	—	4,325	3,454	C	B
8	" " New Ring ..	66	56	1,002	808	761	762	175	—	2,287	1,919	990	274	3,309	2,389	B	B
9	" " Old Ring ..	83	50	850	860	669	669	—	—	2,280	2,016	720	—	2,576	2,063	B	B
10.	" " Mech. & Bd. ..	71	37	933	550	427	427	—	—	1,886	812	450	—	2,037	977	B	B
11	" " Blow & Card ..	32	31	508	341	528	529	—	—	1,019	426	300	—	1,627	1,120	B	B
12	" " New Frame ..	21	18	352	253	223	234	—	—	386	521	450	120	1,144	758	C	B
13	" " Old Frame ..	15	9	200	140	177	178	—	—	585	331	450	75	958	586	B	B
14	Jacob S. Mill, Weaving ..	107	57	5,697	2,855	372	640	23	21	5,381	3,715	—	—	7,103	3,795	B	B
15	" " Carding ..	130	108	3,840	3,740	826	1,140	100	100	6,576	5,843	700	—	6,780	5,866	B	B
16	" " Eng. ..	48	41	1,891	1,791	491	682	122	5	3,234	2,433	300	—	3,266	2,836	C	C
17	" " Folding ..	63	57	1,674	1,555	355	418	250	290	2,724	2,478	200	—	2,998	2,609	C	C
18	" " Spinning ..	51	45	970	890	734	680	—	—	1,635	1,498	—	—	1,883	1,585	C	C
19	" " Reeling & Winding ..	15	19	150	187	15	26	—	—	65	75	—	—	211	218	C	B
		1,907	1,540	49,390	39,139	10,549	12,493	6,081	6,994	63,559	53,690	5,860	469	83,038	72,517	—	—

Appendices Nos. I to IX have been compiled recently and before the Industry had regained its normal standing and therefore in some cases do not represent the normal state of the Industry.

THE MANCHESTER MILL.

APPENDICES Nos. II AND III.

*Classification of Workers according to age and married condition.*

Age.	Males.				Females.			
	Married.	Unmarried.	Widowers.	Total.	Married.	Unmarried.	Widows.	Total.
10 to 20 .. ..	21	58	0	79	28	9	2	39
20 to 30 .. ..	333	87	26	446	104	2	43	149
30 to 40 .. ..	123	20	15	158	8	0	23	31
40 to 50 .. ..	37	4	6	47	0	0	4	4
50 to 60 .. ..	9	0	1	10	0	0	1	1
60 and over .. ..	3	0	2	5	0	0	0	0
	526	169	50	745	140	11	73	224

THE MEYER SASSOON MILLS, LTD.

APPENDIX No. IV.

*Duration of Service.*

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Up to 1 .. ..	383	114	497
1 to 3 .. ..	237	37	274
3 to 5 .. ..	225	40	265
5 to 10 .. ..	303	83	386
10 to 15 .. ..	134	24	158
15 to 20 .. ..	68	14	82
20 and over .. ..	45	18	63
	<u>1,395</u>	<u>330</u>	<u>1,725</u>

THE MANCHESTER MILL.

APPENDIX No. V.

Number of Persons staying together.	Number of workers.
Up to 2 .. ..	269
3 to 5 .. ..	430
6 to 8 .. ..	179
9 to 11 .. ..	66
12 and over .. ..	25
	<u>969</u>

## THE MANCHESTER MILL.

## APPENDIX No. VI.

Monthly rent in Rupees.	<i>Rent.</i>						Number of workers.
Up to 2 .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	34
2 to 4 .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	75
4 to 6 .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	246
6 to 8 .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	169
8 to 10 .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	131
10 and over .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	142
							<u>797</u>

## THE MANCHESTER MILL.

## APPENDIX No. VII.

*Classification of Workers according to Residences.*

	Males.		Females.	
1. Permanent residents of Bombay	30	..	0	..
2. Outsiders .. .. .	714	..	225	..
	<u>744</u>	..	<u>225</u>	..

## THE MANCHESTER MILL.

## APPENDIX No. VIII.

*Statement showing the extent to which the workers go to their Villages.*

In a year.	Month. 0- $\frac{1}{2}$ .	Month. $\frac{1}{2}$ -1.	Month. 1-2.	Month. 2-3.	Month. 3 and over.
Once .. .. .	87	448	127	14	5
Twice .. .. .	43	33	—	—	—
More than twice .. .. .	—	—	—	—	—

The figures in the above appendices are compiled from information received direct from our workmen and cannot therefore be considered as strictly accurate.

## THE MANCHESTER MILL.

## APPENDIX No. IX.

*Monthly earnings of workers.*

Earnings in Rupees.	Number of workers.		Earnings in Rupees.	Number of workers.	
Up to 20 .. .. .	..	304	70 to 80 .. .. .	..	19
20 to 30 .. .. .	..	314	80 to 90 .. .. .	..	7
30 to 40 .. .. .	..	146	90 to 100 .. .. .	..	3
40 to 50 .. .. .	..	102	100 to 125 .. .. .	..	13
50 to 60 .. .. .	..	112	125 to 150 .. .. .	..	8
60 to 70 .. .. .	..	34	150 to 250 .. .. .	..	6

The above figures are compiled on the actual wages paid and not on rates, i.e., they are largely affected by absenteeism, and the present unsettled state of the industry.

## APPENDIX No. X.

A careful survey of the international textile situation made in 1923 brought to light the fact that Japan and China were easily able to undersell their competitors in every line of textiles in which they had specialized. Investigations showed that the principal advantages possessed by Japan were :—(1) The advantage accruing by the employment of women and children on night shifts, which the Textile Tariff Board of 1926 have found to be "unfair" competition; (2) lower costs of production with, in many cases, individually higher wages than paid in India; (3) absolute vertical specialization on certain qualities, enabling them to practically control the market in these styles.

Other minor advantages were found, such as cheaper power, etc., but as these do not come within the scope of a statement on the "New" system, they need not be dealt with here. Every advantage that Japan possesses has been carefully scrutinized by the Bombay millowners as a body and by individual members, and attempts made with varying success to reduce our charges to the same or less than similar charges existing in Japan.

*Labour* is the highest charge of all (excepting raw materials), but any attempt to reduce the rate of wages of labour in the past, has resulted in strikes to the disadvantage of all parties concerned.

We considered the possibility of increasing the wage of the operative by asking him to tend more machines; at the same time assisting the operative by introducing better methods of working. Tests were made in several of our mills as to the feasibility of what may be termed "Fordizing" the industry. By this we mean the allocation to each operative of enough work to keep him healthily employed throughout the working day and paying him the maximum rate of pay that the work he is doing will permit of.

With the idea of reducing costs and increasing wages, it was essential that we should make a complete survey of the industry with a view to providing every means in our power to make the work lighter for the operative, our aim always being that there should be the same or less real work for the operative under any new system we might establish than was done formerly under the old system, except in cases where the operative was formerly employed on real work for a ridiculously low period of the working day.

Our survey convinced us that in many sections of the industry, operatives were not doing from more than three to four hours actual work, and the actual amount of work that could be done in these particular departments could easily be doubled without unduly taxing the worker.

Before proceeding with the installation of the scheme, small experiments were made in various directions and we decided to proceed on the following lines :—(1) Fix standards of production and quality for each machine in the mill; (2) arrange systematic checking so that these standards are maintained; (3) fix a standard of cotton for each mixing, below which we were not permitted to go and arrange the quality of mixing to suit quality of fabrics we manufactured.

These standards to be fixed so that the maintenance of the standards fixed for quality, production and machine should not be made difficult for the operative.

(4). Adjust each machine in process so that it will work at (a) maximum efficiency, (b) permit of good wages to the worker, (c) reduce the cost by making each worker handle a very much increased outturn without being overworked.

As a preliminary it was decided to pay the worker 33 per cent. to 50 per cent. more than the previous wage for twice the number of machines attended, but conditions were adjusted so that in spite of attending more machines less than twice the work was done.

In this connection we would point out that in the English list (Oldham Masters' Cotton Association) it will be noticed that the rates for two frames are only about 30 per cent. more than the rates provided for one frame, and from such information as has been obtained from Japan and America, the total increase wage to the worker has only been from 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. in spite of much greater multiplication of the machines tended.

We have referred to the intense vertical specialization adopted by the Japanese and to make the position clear an explanation is perhaps necessary.

All cotton manufacturing countries use one of the two methods of manufacturing or a combination of both in varying degrees, viz. :—(1) Horizontal specialization linked up by different classes of middlemen, which permits of small units; (2) vertical specialization in which all processes are concentrated in one hand from the raw material to the finished product, necessitating large units and limitation of style.

The latter is the system developed by the Bombay mill industry and is the ideal system for the production of cloth and yarn required in huge quantities, but fails where small quantities of varied products are required, or where flexibility and ability to meet rapid changes of styles are necessary.

Lancashire has almost entirely built up its huge business on horizontal system, while our Japanese competitors have carried vertical specialization to an extent unknown elsewhere in the textile countries of the world. Germany and Italy also have the vertical system, but more approaching the Bombay development of the same; in fact, Bombay, Italy and Germany may be said to be of the same vertical type which gives more flexibility than with the out and out vertical style of the Japanese, but which suffers in the intense competition for the manufacture and sale of bulk products.

Lancashire, America and India have lost trade to China and Japan in grey goods of types suitable for bulk production and it is worthy of note that it is only in this class of goods in which Japanese and Sino-Japanese mills have been enormously successful.

Bombay mills are arranged for vertical specialization and are better placed, particularly on the lower counts, than the Lancashire mills, from this point of view, to meet the intense Japanese competition. The difficulty as far as the general run of Bombay mills is concerned, is that while organized vertically, there is too much variety in the equipment to permit of intensive competition with the Japanese. This is due to the requirements of the internal trade for which the mills were designed and which requires varying widths and styles of cloth for different periods of the year. It cannot be laid at the door of the individual millowner who, in the majority of cases, put in looms to replace trade lost in yarn for China, and naturally put in the style and width of loom to suit his home trade and its seasonal variations.

We decided to try and work a mill on this intensified vertical specialization and for this purpose endeavoured to compete with the Japanese 10 lb. sheeting or cabot and grey drills. We purchased the Hongkong mills and renamed it the Manchester mills with a two-fold object. The first was to ascertain if the vertical system of production could be intensified on Japanese lines, and the second was to ascertain if the Manchester or rather Lancashire method of allocating work and payment could be adopted in a rational form suited to the conditions prevailing in Bombay.

We have been able to dispose of our production, but in the export market we were compelled to sell at a loss in spite of realizing slightly higher prices than our competitors. In India a very small profit was possible and we are satisfied that more intense specialization can be made a success if the whole-hearted co-operation of labour can be secured.

It is essential here to point out that no attempt has been made or is intended to be made to establish the new system where the conditions we have laid down for success are not at present possible. Under this head we place the spinning of coarse counts 10's and below and the old system continues where these counts are spun. In the weaving departments the only sections in the whole of our group where the three and four-loom systems have been attempted has been on plain or drill cloth on an easy class of work. On fancy and more difficult cloth the old system is prevailing, and will prevail until we can find means to fulfil the conditions laid down for the success of any new scheme. On certain qualities and styles we have moved in the other direction by placing *one* loom per weaver, and it is certain that for some time to come there will be very little displacement of labour in the weaving section unless we are driven by the continuance of non-co-operation from labour to instal automatic looms with which we are experimenting with some measure of success.

Appendix I gives the dates in which the new system was introduced into the various departments in each of our mills.

Dealing first of all with the spinning section of the industry it will be noticed that all sections of the spinning department of the Manchester mills (except the weft frames) commenced work on the new system from the re-opening of the mill in May, 1926, and very little difficulty was experienced at the commencement in this mill due probably to the fact that it was a mill that had been stopped for a long period and there was therefore increased employment and not a displacement of labour.

The Manchester mill is one of the oldest mills in Bombay dating back to 1874 and has changed hands several times. On taking the mill over, we spent over six months repairing the plant and buildings. Old and out of date machinery was scrapped and machinery not suitable for the manufacture of standard sheeting was transferred to sister mills and replaced by suitable machinery either new or from sister mills. Full details of the system and personnel as compared with the previously existing system are given below department by department :—

**Mixing Room.**—The old system of hand mixing was done away with and a completely new pneumatic mixing plant installed. This results in a much better opening and blending of the cotton and a saving of labour (see Appendix 3).

**Blow Room.**—The old plant was scrapped and replaced by two exhaust and four finisher scutchers, the number of machines being reduced and the cotton handled automatically by the machines except for removing the laps. On the scutchers we have one man to two machines the wage being increased from Rs. 25—8 annas to Rs. 35—7 annas. For many years the David mills had been running a section of their blow room on this system without extra pay. The system has been in existence in a mill in Delhi since the inception of the mill at a wage at present of Rs. 25. The system was so successful that this was the first portion of the new scheme to be put into work at sister mills in our group.

**Cards.**—The cards in the mill were completely overhauled and where any case of doubt of the quality of the card fillet occurred the card was entirely reclothed. Additional cards were installed and the weight of cotton treated per card reduced.

A team system as near as possible to the English system was introduced splitting the cards into sections of 30 cards or 3 preparations.

Each team consists of :—

1 Front jobber	..	..	..	..	..	Rs. 44-2.
1 Back jobber	..	..	..	..	..	Rs. 44-2.
1 Lap carrier and fly gatherer combined	..	..	..	..	..	Rs. 27-2.
2 Can minders	..	..	..	..	..	Rs. 23-8.

For settings and general supervision of cards, one head jobber and one assistant jobber are employed and no other men are employed. Oiling is done by the front and back jobbers and the sweeping is done by the men.

**Drawing Frames.**—Three preparations of old machines were scrapped and replaced by new machines, the balance of the old machines being thoroughly overhauled.

Instead of one man to each head, two men were put on three heads. The old wage was about Rs. 33 and the new wage is Rs. 41.

**Slubbing-Inter Frames.**—The old system was continued but all the machines in this department were completely overhauled and old machines scrapped.

**Roving Frames.**—All machines were overhauled and old machines scrapped. One man tended two machines instead of the usual Bombay practice of one machine. No additional assistance was given other than the existing doffer boys. The wage was increased by 50 per cent. although the difference in the same system in the English list is 30 per cent. In all cases, the increases given were in our opinion too high but were given to encourage the adoption of the system.

**Ring Spinning.**—The alteration in this section was to place a side boy in charge of two sides instead of one side as formerly, the number of tarwallas and doffer boys being the normal number employed in sister mills on similar counts. Wages were increased from Rs. 25—8 annas to Rs. 39 and with the quality of work there is no reason why a side boy should not mind up to 600 spindles, which Mr. Sasakura maintains is done in Japan.

One feature of post war development in the cotton trade has been the rapid increase in the use of high-draft system which eliminates at least one and possibly two processes in the spinning department. Yard production is speeded up and roving frames eliminated, saving floor space and power which can be utilized for more ring frames. For some years we have been experimenting with the various types of high drafting systems on the market and have now decided on their respective merits for the type of yard we spin.

The Manchester mills and a portion of the Jacob Sassoon mills have been converted to one of these systems. As a result the former does not now require roving frames and therefore operatives, power, stores or space for same. In addition, the quality of the yarn is improved and the bobbins in the creels of the ring frames last four times as long as before and so reduces the work of the side boy.

### Weaving Section.

**Warp.**—The existing grey winding machines were completely renovated and in addition a Schlafhorst "M" pattern high speed winding machine was installed. Our experiment with this machine showed that on coarse counts the Indian operative was unable to keep pace with the speed of the machine and we transferred this machine to a sister mill where the results are entirely satisfactory on finer counts. The old system of grey winding therefore continues and also the old rate of wages and conditions of employment.

**Weft.**—(Re-winding). Universal winding machines No. 90 type and Schlafhorst high speed winding machines "S" type were installed to re-wind all the weft on to special large size bobbins, so that the amount of yarn wound on a pirn was increased

from 540 yards to from 1,500/1,750 yards depending on the size of universal pirn used. Rates were exactly as paid in our sister mills on similar machines and no change was made in the rates of pay or condition of employment. The employees on these machines are an addition to the number of employees previously engaged, i.e., the working staff of the mill is increased by the total number of workers employed in this department.

*Warping Department.*—No alteration has been made in this department and the rate of pay and conditions of work are the same as existed formerly in sister mills.

*Sizing.*—The entire department was completely overhauled and a much simpler and easier system of working established. The number of operatives employed remain the same as in our sister mills. This department in particular is grossly overpaid when compared with other countries. A sizer in Japan looks after one machine and is paid Rs. 55 per month whereas in Bombay he is paid over Rs. 90 and requires the assistance of a back sizer on Rs. 45. There is no reason with the class of yarn working at this mill why one sizer should not look after one machine with one back sizer to six machines.

*Drawing-in.*—The conditions here are exactly as before but a reduction in the number of men employed has been made by the installations of two automatic warp twisting machines in which the old set of healds from the weaving shed are twisted to the new beam reducing the number of drawers by two-thirds to three-fourths according to the life of a set of healds. This is to some extent counterbalanced by the employment of a team of higher paid men on the warp twisting machines.

*Weaving Shed.*—As previously pointed out this shed is now re-planned for vertical specialization and only two qualities of grey cloth are made—the plain looms making three yard sheeting and the drill looms 13½ lb. drills. Only one count of weft is used in the whole shed, and headings are practically non-existent. Trouble for the jobber and weaver is saved; there is no change of pick wheel to be made and no need for a weaver to worry as to the correct count of weft he has to use—any weft at the looms goes into any of the three or four looms he has to tend. For the line jobber the whole process of gaitting up is simplified—all the work is straightforward and it should not take more than 15 minutes for the jobber to have a new beam working after the old beam is completed.

The weaver is employed purely as a weaver in that the warp beam is brought to the loom by a coolie, it is gaitted up by the jobber and handed over to the weaver in a working condition. Weft is brought to the weaver by special weft coolies and woven cloth is taken to the cloth warehouse for him. His work is reduced to reshuttling the loom on the breakage of weft and drawing in broken ends. The former is reduced by the fact that the length of yarn in a shuttle is increased from 540 yards to 1,500 yards, that is, he has less shuttling to do on three or four looms than he formerly did on two looms.

A much better class of warp is supplied to him and the cloth is of low reed and pick so that his work in this direction is also reduced, apart from the additional help given by supplying him with weft at the looms and taking his cloth from him. Further help is given in that the mill provides a spare weaver for each double section, to help any weaver who has a smash or is in any difficulty. This man also helps to tend the looms of weavers who have left their looms as they occasionally must with five hour runs. On the quality of work supplied, the nature of the cloth and the assistance given, we feel confident that any weaver of average ability could mind six and not three or four looms.

It is interesting to note from Mr Sasakura that mills in Japan are discontinuing the use of universal winding on account of the cost of same, although they are increasing the number of looms per weaver, whereas in Bombay, Trades Unions are resisting any increase on the number of looms per weaver in spite of the expense of this additional process and the assistance given.

Speaking in England, as recently as September 26th, this year, Mr. Frank Nasmyth makes the following comment:—

" Throughout the Continent an effort is being made to-day to reduce the cost of production by installing improved machinery and methods. The rewinding of weft is being very seriously and closely considered. By increasing the filling supply in the shuttle, the weaver can attend to more looms from four to six being the increase in the majority of cases. Less wages per loom are paid to the weaver who has no more work to do, often less, and who earns weekly a higher wage than previously. The rewinding of weft makes an ordinary loom semi-automatic and in the Valley Field mill, at Montreal, the automatic weft replenishing mechanism previously applied to the looms has been removed and reworded weft used. Weavers are looking after

16 looms in this shed, being provided with assistants such as weft and cloth carriers, who are, however, not on the same high rate of wages as the weaver. Making the spinner or weaver a full time producer is most essential." (Textile Weekly October 5th, 1928, page 119.)

*Line Jobbers.*—Instead of an average of 40 looms per section a line jobber is asked to look after 60 looms in view of the straightforward nature of the work.

*Head Jobbers.*—The conditions of work for head jobber are the same as existed previously in sister mills and there is no alteration in rates or conditions of work.

*Cloth Warehouse.*—No alteration is made in the cloth warehouse except that a few men such as piece sorters are not necessary in view of the mill only making two styles of cloth-drill and sheetings, which cannot possibly be mistaken.

The chief inspector of factories, Mr. T. W. Johnstone, took a keen interest in the Manchester mill experiment and had many opportunities of studying same as he regularly visited the mill in connection with some special experiments we were conducting on ventilation and humidification under his guidance. As a result the following comment was made on page 9 of the annual factory report of the Presidency of Bombay, 1927:—

"Wages generally remained steady throughout the year. The most important strikes occurred in two Bombay mills controlled by a large firm of managing agents. An attempt was made to introduce the recommendations of the tariff board respecting an increase in efficiency as an alternative to a reduction in wages. In at least one of the mills every effort was made by the management to secure efficiency. Machinery was reorganized and to a great extent replaced. Its lay-out was also improved. Weavers were required to work three looms instead of two, but every facility was given them. Larger pirns provided for the shuttles to cut down the labour involved in shuttling. Improved methods of handling the cloth and giving out work were adopted and it is doubtful whether the weavers had, owing to the improvements effected, actually more work to do on three looms than on two under former conditions. The arrangements benefited the employer and the employee alike. Working costs were reduced but the employee received better wages. The strikes, which lasted throughout August, ended in favour of the employers. The system was extended to other mills under the same agents but was followed in the early part of this year by a strike in all their mills to be again followed by the surrender of the employees."

The system was slowly extended to our other mills, the order being:—

*Blow Room—*

Meyer Sassoon Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	July, 1926.
Edward Sassoon Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	August, 1926.
David Mills Co., Ltd.	..	..	..	..	September, 1926.
Alexandra Mill	..	..	..	..	December, 1926.
Elphinstone Spinning & Weaving Mills Co., Ltd.	..	..	..	..	February, 1927.
Apollo Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	July, 1927.

*Card Room—*

Meyer Sassoon Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	October, 1926.
Alexandra Mill	..	..	..	..	October, 1926.
Edward Sassoon Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	June, 1927.
E. D. Sassoon Mills	..	..	..	..	February, 1927.
David Mills Co., Ltd.	..	..	..	..	March, 1927.
Elphinstone Spinning & Weaving Mills Co., Ltd.	..	..	..	..	April, 1927.

*Drawing Frames—*

Edward Sassoon Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	February, 1927.
Apollo Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	January, 1928.

*Frames Departments—*

Apollo Mills, Ltd.	..	..	..	..	September, 1927.
David Mills Co., Ltd.	..	..	..	..	September, 1927.

*Ring Frames (Weft)—*

Manchester Mill..	..	..	..	..	January, 1927.
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*Weaving Departments—*

Manchester Mills (4 looms), January, 1927. Part sections.  
(3 and 4 looms), August, 1927. Complete shed.

Apollo Mills, Ltd. (3 and 4 looms), August, 1927.

Meyer Sassoon Mills (4 looms), March, 1928. Part section.



The introduction of the system at the Apollo mills led to a strike on August 1st, 1927, at that mill in the weaving department. These weavers brought the workers at the Manchester mills on strike on August 5th, 1927. The strikers resumed work at the Manchester mills on August 27th, 1927, and at the Apollo mills on September 1st, 1927, and the system has continued there since.

Shortly before the end of December, another group of mills in Bombay issued a notice making the system optional in their mills from January 1st, 1928, and we decided to issue a notice to the operatives in our mills that the spinning departments would go on the new system from February 1st. Trade was in a terrible condition. Huge stocks of cloth were held by many mills and offers for goods were at prices which showed such a loss as to make it worth consideration whether the mills would not do better to close down rather than accept such prices.

If the operatives were not prepared to co-operate in reducing costs it was certainly not advisable for the mills to continue running and adding to the heavy existing stocks or selling forward at a huge loss. A strike occurred; the dates of striking and resuming being in Appendix 4. A feature of this strike was that the strike commenced at mills in our group with the lowest number of spindles per frame, viz., 240 to 252.

The next strike was the last general strike which commenced in the middle of April at the Currimbhoy mills and Appendix 5 gives the dates each mill stopped work. It will be noticed that it was some days afterwards that these mills were brought out on strike and in more than one case actual physical resistance was put up by the operatives against strikers from other mills before the mills were compelled to close down. Although our decision to adopt this system was arrived at before the tariff board sat and was in progress at the Manchester mills during the sitting of the tariff board, the latter body arrived at a decision which we maintain advocates the system we have adopted as a means of saving the industry in Bombay without reducing wages. Mr. Sasakura has given evidence showing the rapid strides Japan has made in this direction and we attach Appendices Nos. 6 and 7\* showing a comparison with Bombay on the basis of information supplied by him as well as from official sources.

The objections made against the system by labour on various occasions have been (1) physically impossible to work the system without detriment to health; (2) fullest economic benefit not given to workers; (3) unemployment; (4) standard of efficiency of jobbers not improved; (5) provision should be made for greater facility for technical education; (6) provision of proper raw materials.

1. It is very difficult to counter this allegation as the mills have never been able to settle down to a steady run through strikes. In addition, it is the experience of most Bombay mills to date that higher wages mean a higher percentage of absenteeism. Certain operatives prefer a lower scale of wages to increased pay for more work and these men have, in some cases been weeded out. Appendix 8† shows the attendance on the new system as compared with the old, where comparisons have been possible. We maintain that operatives can do the work we have asked them to do without danger to health, in fact, in many cases much more work than the tasks allotted could easily be done.

2. We have erred in the liberal side in giving the operatives 50 per cent. increased wage for the increased work. The tariff board have commented on this point and we have already drawn attention to the fact that the proportion given is much less in other countries. The 50 per cent. is not all saving to the mills, in fact, the amount of saving is far less than would be warranted by the position of the industry, bearing in mind that the major portion of this saving goes in the provision of additional plant and labour.

3. Unemployment is a national problem and a question that cannot be handled by individual mills. This system is a means of maintaining present employment for the majority of the workers in the industry and if successful may lead to the re-starting of many mills now closed down or the partial adoption of double-shift working.

4. The millowners' association have dealt with this problem but individual millowners have contributed plant to the school started by the social service league, which to date has not been successful.

5. Facilities are given for technical education. Appendix 9 shows the number of employees from our mills attending the apprentice classes at the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute.

6. We maintain that better cotton has been given at all our mills for the spinning of all counts above 10s., the latter not being on the new system.

\* Appendix No. 7 not printed.

† Not printed.

APPENDIX 1.

Statement showing the various dates on which the " Double System " was introduced in the various departments and mills of the Sassoon group.

Name of Mill.	Blow Room.	Carding Department.	Drawing Room.	Frames Department.	Ring Room.
Jacob Sassoon .. .. .	February 1928	February 1928	February 1928	February 1928	February 1928
Alexandra Sassoon .. .. .	December 1926	October 1926	Do.	Do.	Do.
E. D. Sassoon .. .. .	February 1928	February 1927	Do.	Do.	Do.
Manchester .. .. .	May 1926	May 1926	May 1926	May 1926	May 1926 January 1927 (weft)
Edward Sassoon .. .. .	16th Aug. 1926	1st Jan. 1927	1st Feb. 1927	February 1928	1st March 1928
Meyer Sassoon .. .. .	July 1926	October 1926	February 1928	Do.	February 1928
Elphinstone Mill .. .. .	February 1927	April 1927	Do.	Do.	Do.
Apollo Mill .. .. .	July 1927		January 1928	September 1927	January 1928
David Mill .. .. .	September 1926	March 1927	February 1928	Do.	February 1928
WEAVING.					
	4 looms.	3 and 4 looms.			
Manchester .. .. .	January 1927	July 1927			
Apollo Mill .. .. .		Do.			
Meyer Sassoon .. .. .		April 1928			

**APPENDIX 2.**  
**MANCHESTER MILL.**  
*Summary of Spinning.*

Departments.	Operatives.		Average wages.		Extra equipment.	Reduction in Men.	Saving in Wages.
	Old.	New.	Old.	New.			
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
1. Mixing Department .. .. .	16	10	26 10 0	33 6 0	14,566 0 0	6	92 0 0
2. Blow Room .. .. .	14	7	34 8 0	49 2 0	46,934 0 0	7	139 10 6
3. Card Room .. .. .	47	19	26 2 0	38 10 0	61,266 0 0	28	496 9 9
4. Frame Department .. .. .	142	109	28 11 0	34 2 0	21,740 0 0	33	356 7 9
5. Ring and Mule Spinning .. .. .	268	189	26 10 0	32 0 0	12,550 0 0	79	1,084 11 0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>487</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>1,57,056 0 0</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>2,169 7 0</b>

*Summary of Weaving.*

Department.	Operatives.		Average Rate.		Extra Equipment.	Reduction in Men.		Increase or Decrease in Wages.	
	Old.	New.	Old.	New.		Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Grey Winding .. .. .	98	98	23 15 1	23 15 1	—	—	—	—	
Universal Winding .. .. .	42	100	20 9 0	20 9 0	66,824 0 0	58	—	1,192 10 0	
Warping .. .. .	21	21	42 9 4	42 9 4	—	—	—	—	
Sizing .. .. .	17	19	56 7 11	57 3 3	7,255 6 0	2	—	126 8 0	
Drawing-in Room .. .. .	29	20	42 3 10	48 5 0	5,690 0 0	—	9	—	
Weaving Shed .. .. .	444	313	51 2 0	58 13 2	25,030 3 0	—	131	—	
Warehouse .. .. .	47	46	30 14 9	30 6 0	8,500 0 0	—	1	—	
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>698</b>	<b>617</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>1,13,299 9 0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>1,319 2 0</b>	<b>4,602 4 0</b>

Bombay, 9th December, 1928.

THE MANCHESTER MILL.

DETAILS OF APPENDIX 2.—Comparative Statement of Old and New Position.

<i>Old System.</i>			<i>New System.</i>		
<i>Mixing Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
16	426 0 0	26 10 0	10	334 0 0	33 6 0
			Reduction in men, 6. Saving in Cost .. .. . 92 0 0		
Old Equipment.			New Equipment.		
Nil (hand work).			1 Bale Breaker.		
			1 Roving End Opener.		
			1 Pneumatic Plant.		
			Cost .. .. . 14,566 0 0		
 <i>Blow Room Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
14	483 9 3	34 8 0	7	343 14 9	49 2 0
			Reduction in men, 7. Saving in Cost .. .. . 139 10 6		
Old Equipment.			New Equipment.		
4 Double Creighton Beaters.			1 Double Creighton Opener } Combined		
5 Hopper Feeders and Scutchers.			1 Vertical Opener } Arrangement.		
5 Finishers.			2 Exhaust Openers. }		
			2 Breaker Scutchers.		
			1 Beater Scutcher.		
			5 Finishers. Rs. a. p.		
			Cost of New Machinery.. 42,668 0 0		
			Cost of Overhauling and Erection .. .. . 4,266 0 0		
			Total .. 46,934 0 0		
 <i>Card Room Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
47	1,230 14 3	26 3 0	19	734 4 6	38 10 0
			Reduction in men, 28. Saving in Cost .. .. . 496 9 9		
Old Equipment.			New Equipment.		
72 Cards.			72 Cards.		
			26 Cards.		
			98 Cards.		
			Cost of New Equipment .. 42,666 0 0		
			Cost of Wire .. .. . 18,000 0 0		
			Cost of Erection and Overhauling .. .. . 600 0 0		
			Total .. 61,266 0 0		

DETAILS OF APPENDIX 2.—Comparative Statement of Old and New Position.  
—contd.

<i>Old System.</i>				<i>New System.</i>			
<i>Frame Department.</i>							
Men.	Wages.		Average.	Men.	Wages.		Average.
	Total.				Total.		
	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
142	4,082 1 3		28 8 0	109	3,725 9 6		34 2 0
				Reduction in men, 33. Saving in Cost .. .. 356 7 9			
<i>Old Equipment.</i>				<i>New Equipment.</i>			
33 Drawings.				27 Drawings, including 9 New Drawings.			
11 Slubbers.				9 Slubbers.			
20 Inters.				16 Inters. } <i>Old Equipment.</i>			
37 Rovings.				31 Rovings. } <i>Rs. a. p.</i>			
Scrapped :—15 Drawings.				Cost of New Drawings ..	11,490	0	0
2 Slubbers.				Cost of Overhauling and			
4 Inters.				Renewals .. ..	10,250	0	0
6 Rovings.				Total ..	21,740	0	0
<i>Ring and Mule Spinning Department.</i>							
Men.	Wages.		Average.	Men.	Wages.		Average.
	Total.				Total.		
	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
268	7,142 15 0		26 10 0	189	6,058 4 0		32 0 0
				Reduction in men, 79. Saving in Cost .. .. 1,084 11 0			
<i>Old Equipment.</i>				<i>New Equipment.</i>			
8 Mules.				8 Mules.			
71 Ring Frames.				55 Ring Frames.			
Scrapped :—16 Ring Frames.				Cost of Overhauling and			
				Renewals .. ..	12,550	0	0
<i>Grey Winding Department.</i>							
Men.	Wages.		Average.	Men.	Wages.		Average.
	Total.				Total.		
	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
98	2,346 12 0		23 15 1	98	2,346 12 0		23 15 1
				Reduction in Winders, Nil. Saving in Cost .. .. Nil.			
<i>Old Equipment.</i>				<i>New Equipment.</i>			
6 Grey Winding Machines.				6 Grey Winding Machines.			
<i>Universal Winding Department.</i>							
Men.	Wages.		Average.	Men.	Wages.		Average.
	Total.				Total.		
	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
42	863 10 0		20 9 0	100	2,056 4 0		20 9 0
				Increase in Winders, 58. Increase in Cost .. .. 1,192 10 0			
<i>Old Equipment.</i>				<i>New Equipment.</i>			
20 Universal Winding Machines.				50 Universal Winding Machines.			
				1 S Pattern Winder.	Rs. a. p.		
				Cost of 31 New Winding			
				Machines .. ..	63,539	0	0
				Overhauling Charges ..	3,285	0	0
				Total ..	66,824	0	0

DETAILS OF APPENDIX 2.—Comparative Statement of Old and New Position.  
—contd.

<i>Old System.</i>			<i>New System.</i>		
<i>Warping Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
21	894 5 0	42 9 4	21	894 5 0	42 9 4
			Reduction in men, Nil.		
			Saving in Cost .. .. Nil.		
			New Equipment.		
			11 Warping Machines.		
Old Equipment.					
11 Warping Machines.					
<i>Sizing Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
17	960 7 0	56 7 11	19	1,086 15 0	57 3 3
			Increase in men, 2		
			Increase in Cost .. .. 126 8 0		
			New Equipment.		
			6 Sizing Slashers.		
			4 Vats.		
			Cost of 1 New Slasher .. 6,225 0 0		
			Cost of Overhauling and Renewals .. .. 1,030 0 0		
			Total .. 7,255 0 0		
Old Equipment.					
5 Sizing Slashers.					
4 Vats.					
<i>Drawing-in Room Department.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
29	1,225 0 0	42 3 10	20	966 4 0	48 5 0
			Reduction in men, 9.		
			Saving in Cost .. .. 258 12 0		
			New Equipment.		
			6 Hand Drawing Machines.		
			2 Barber Twisting Machines.		
			Cost of New Machinery .. 3,690 0 0		
			Cost of Overhauling and Spare Parts .. .. 2,000 0 0		
			Total .. 5,690 0 0		
Old Equipment.					
13 Hand Drawing Machines.					
<i>New Weaving Sheds.</i>					
Men.	Total.	Average.	Men.	Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
444	22,700 2 0	51 2 0	315	18,412 11 0	58 13 2
			Reduction in men, 131.		
			Saving in Cost .. .. 4,287 7 0		
			New Equipment.		
			800 Looms.		
			Cost of Overhauling and Repairs .. .. 8,385 3 0		
			To suit working of 3 looms system :—		
			Cost of Long Shuttles .. 7,600 0 0		
			Cost of Universal Pirns .. 8,845 0 0		
			Electric Fans .. .. 200 0 0		
			Total .. 25,030 3 0		
Old Equipment.					
800 Looms.					

DETAILS OF APPENDIX 2.—Comparative Statement of Old and New Position.  
—contd.

Old System.			New System.		
Warehouse Department.					
Men.	Wages.		Men.	Wages.	
	Total.	Average.		Total.	Average.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
47	1,453 6 0	30 14 9	46	1,397 5 0	30 6 0
				Reduction in men, 1. Saving in cost .. .. .	56 1 0
				New Equipment.	
				4 Folding Machines.	
				1 Damping Machine.	
				1 7-Bowl Calender.	
				1 Sewing Machine.	
				1 Rotary Stamping Machine.	
				1 Cloth Baling Press.	
				Cost of New Machineries ..	7,500 0 0
				Cost of Overhauling and Repairing .. .. .	1,000 0 0
				Total ..	8,500 0 0

## APPENDIX 3.

Particulars of Double System Strike Period (Sassoons' Group),

and

## APPENDIX 4.

General Strike Period.

Name of Mill.	Stopped on.	Opened on.	General Strike Period.
Jacob Sassoon	3rd Jan., 1928	13th Feb., 1928, Weaving 20th Feb., 1928, Spinning	23rd April, 1928
Alexandra	4th Jan., 1928	9th Feb., 1928	24th April, 1928
E. D. Sassoon	4th Jan., 1928	13th Feb., 1928	24th April, 1928
Rachael Sassoon	4th Jan., 1928	1st Feb., 1928	24th April, 1928
Manchester	10th Dec., 1927	25th Jan., 1928	24th April, 1928
Edward Sassoon	5th Jan., 1928	6th Feb., 1928	21st April, 1928
Meyer Sassoon	2nd Jan., 1928	21st Feb., 1928	24th April, 1928
Elphinstone	6th Jan., 1928	21st Feb., 1928	23rd April, 1928
Apollo	7th Jan., 1928	23rd Jan., 1928	23rd April, 1928
David	6th Jan., 1928	23rd Jan., 1928	17th April, 1928

## APPENDIX 5.

Weaving Rates for Standard Shooting 36 x 40 x 13½.

## SUMMARY.

Description.	2 Looms.	3 Looms.	4 Looms.	5 Looms.
1. Present rate .. .. .	9-93	8-14	7-45	—
2. Millowners' Association amended list	9-00	7-38	6-75	—
3. Yarn Association Reports .. .. .	6-93 (2 to 3 looms).			
4. Cunningham's Report 95 per cent. efficiency.	6-98	4-66	3-49	—
5. Do. less 15 per cent. weighted ..	6-07	4-05	3-03	—
6. Cunningham's Report 80 per cent. efficiency	8-29	5-53	4-14	—
7. Do. less 15 per cent. weighted ..	7-21	4-81	3-60	—
8. Sasakura's list 95 per cent. efficiency	—	—	—	3-34
9. Do. less 15 per cent. weighted ..	—	—	—	2-90
10. Do. list 80 per cent. efficiency ..	—	—	—	3-96
11. Do. less 15 per cent. weighted ..	—	—	—	3-44

APPENDIX 6.

	Japanese Mill, 840 Looms.			Bombay Standard, 840 Looms.			M.O.A. Standard, 840 Looms.			Manchester Mill, 800 Looms.			Manchester Mill, 800 Looms.			Manchester Mill, 800 Looms.		
	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.	Number of Men.	Rate per day.	Total wages per day.
Head Jobbers .. .. .	2	Ra.	Rs.	2	Ra.	Rs.	2	Ra.	Rs.	2	Ra.	Rs.	2	Ra.	Rs.	2	Ra.	Rs.
Line Jobbers .. .. .	7	2-43	17-01	17	5-34	90-80	17	4-63	78-74	13	4-25	55-25	13	4-25	55-25	13	4-25	55-25
Asst. Jobbers .. .. .	7	1-78	12-53															
2nd Jobbers .. .. .	3½	1-40	4-80															
Oilmen .. .. .	2	1-15	2-30															
Sweeper .. .. .	4	1-02	4-08	3	0-710	2-16	3	0-88	2-64	3	0-719	2-16	3	0-88	2-64	3	0-88	2-64
Beam Carrier Muccadum .. .. .							1	1-30	1-30	1	1-44	1-44	1	1-30	1-30	1	1-30	1-30
Beam Carriers .. .. .	2	2-69	5-38	4	1-972	5-49	4	1-24	4-96	6	1-24	7-44	4	1-24	4-96	4	1-24	4-96
Humidifying Fitter .. .. .	2	1-79	3-58	1	2-745	2-74	1	2-61	2-61	1	2-94	2-94	1	2-61	2-61	1	2-61	2-61
Humidifying Cooly .. .. .				2	0-88	1-96				1	0-91	0-91						
Head Fitter .. .. .	1	2-43	2-43	1	5-884	5-88	2	3-269	6-54	1	3-92	3-92	2	3-269	6-54	2	3-269	6-54
2nd Asst. Fitter .. .. .	2	1-70	3-40	1	3-269	3-27				2	2-61	5-22						
3rd Asst. Fitter .. .. .	3	1-40	4-20	1	2-29	2-29				1	1-96	1-96						
Cooly Fitter .. .. .				3	0-91	2-73				1	0-91	0-91						
Weavers .. .. .	Female 140	1-96	274-40	420	1-86	789-60	420	1-704	715-83	3x260 4x5	2-127 2-598	553-02 12-99	3x266 2x1	2-095 1-70	557-27 1-70	200	2-556	511-20
Slay Maker .. .. .				1	2-94	2-94	1	2-94	2-94	1	2-61	2-61	1	2-94	2-94	1	2-94	2-94
Carpenter .. .. .				1	2-29	2-29	1	1-63	3-92	1	1-96	1-96	1	2-29	3-92	1	2-29	3-92
West Cooly Muccadum .. .. .				1	1-175	1-17	1	1-30	1-30	1	1-63	1-63	1	1-30	1-30	1	1-63	1-63
West Coolies .. .. .				6	1-98	5-88	4	0-98	3-92	3	0-98	2-94	4	0-98	3-92	4	0-98	3-92
Mochies .. .. .				3	1-175	1-17	1	1-175	1-71	2	1-11	2-22	1	1-175	1-17	1	1-175	1-17
Spare Jobbers .. .. .										7	2-29	16-03	7	2-29	16-03	7	2-29	16-03
Spare Coolies .. .. .										7	0-98	6-86	7	0-98	6-86	7	0-98	6-86
Total Number of Operatives ..	175½			465			459			318			316			249		
Total Wage Bill per day ..	Ra. 334-21			Ra. 920-37			Ra. 825-87			Ra. 680-78			Ra. 688-41			Ra. 620-64		
Men per 100 Looms per day ..	20-89			55-35			54-64			39-75			39-5			31-12		
Wages per 100 Looms per day ..	Ra. 39-78			Rs 109-56			Rs. 98-31			Rs. 85-09			Rs. 83-55			Rs. 77-58		
Average wage per operative per day .. .. .	Ra. 1-90			Ra. 1-97			Ra. 1-79			Ra. 2-14			Ra. 2-11			Ra. 2-49		



## APPENDIX 9.

Statement showing the number of employees attending the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute.

	1925.	1926.	1927.
Jacob Sassoon Mill .. .. .	5	7	6
Alexandra and E. D. Sassoon .. .. .	1	2	2
Rachel Sassoon .. .. .	1	1	1
Manchester Mill .. .. .	—	—	3
Dye Works .. .. .	—	—	—
Apollo Mills .. .. .	1	1	1
Meyer Sassoon Mills .. .. .	1	3	4
Edward Sassoon .. .. .	—	—	—
David Mills Ltd. .. .. .	2	2	2
Elphinstone Mills .. .. .	2	4	5
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>24</b>

Mr. M. S. BHUMGARA, SOLDIER BAZAAR, KARACHI.

I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) The total number of workpeople employed in Bombay mills, under normal conditions, is about 153,000. Of these there are about 22,000 Mahomedan weavers, who are not agriculturists in any sense of the word. They have no land of their own to cultivate, and are practically domiciled in Bombay for more than two generations with their wives and children. Then, there are Kamathis, numbering about 9,000, who are also domiciled in Bombay for many generations past. Thus out of about 36,600 weavers working in Bombay mills, nearly 31,000 are domiciled Bombay citizens and have nothing to do with agriculture. Then again, there are those amongst spinners and others coming from Ratnagiri and adjoining districts. As a matter of fact, these people who number about 30,000 have lost all connections with their native country during last fifty years. It is a fact which every millowner in Bombay knows that when there are labour troubles in Bombay of the nature of a general strike, it is on these Ratnagiri men that the millowners generally depend to break the strike, as these people have no home to return to and hence they are the worst sufferers at such times.

We thus see that about 40 per cent. of the whole labour complement of the Bombay mills has nothing to do with agriculture and that they are mill operatives pure and simple. Of those that remain, thousands from several other districts have made Bombay their home and though they retain their connections with their native towns, most of them have ceased to be agriculturists themselves. They may have their homes in the country, they may have their family land which may be cultivated by their relations at home, and hence they may be going to their *masals* occasionally for a change. But that does not mean at all that they will very easily revert to agriculture. Necessity has no law, and when they are starving in Bombay during a general strike, they have to return to their country, partly because there the living is much cheaper than what it is in Bombay and partly because of what small chance they may have to work on the fields.

If these facts are properly understood both by the millowners and the union leaders, most of the present difficulties, in providing for the Bombay cotton mill operatives a humane treatment, will disappear.

(ii) *Causes of particular Streams of Migration.*—These causes are of a varied nature, the chief amongst them being traced as under:—(a) Misrepresentations regarding their prospects in Bombay mills by jobbers who, in old days, visited the agricultural parts of the country as recruiting officers on behalf of their mills. Those that migrated had little idea of the cost of living in Bombay as compared with that in their own country. (b) Insufficient scope for agricultural pursuits. (c) Vicious temptations of the city life in Bombay as reported in the country from those who had already migrated into Bombay. (d) Hand-loom weavers, who before their migration into Bombay, were working on hand-looms gave up the latter in favour of power-looms. It may be stated here that most of the weavers in Bombay mills have been in this profession for many generations past. The only change, so far as they are concerned, is that they have reverted from the hand-loom to the power-loom.

(iii) *Changes in recent Times.*—As I have stated above, a very large number of workpeople have now made Bombay their domicile and hence the practice of having to send jobbers as recruiting officers up in the country has now ceased. Nowadays, instead of the jobbers going out in search for men, there is a fairly large and free flow of workpeople from up-country into Bombay in search for employment.

3. (i) *Methods of Recruitment.*—The workpeople, as a rule, offer themselves at the mill gates for vacancies. They are generally introduced to the head-jobber of the department concerned by the line jobbers working under him. Sometimes the head-jobber brings his own men. The qualifications or the antecedents of the new men, barring the spinners, are never inquired into. Very often some of these men are quite new but manage to get an entrance. As a rule, money makes the mare go.

The Indian Tariff Board had an occasion to go into this question and their conclusions on this subject are to be found in paragraphs 63 of their Report, Volume I, pages 138 and 139.

It appears that the millowners had to admit that the system of engaging men through jobbers furnished openings for corruption. Their attempt, however, to explain the situation by saying that "it is the only possible system in Bombay conditions, as the jobber is in touch with labour to an extent that no official of the mill can possibly be, and that it does not necessarily follow that because a jobber produces men, they are engaged by the mill," shows that the millowners have not before them the correct facts. There is no objection to a jobber producing his men. The objection is regarding the final selection of his men by himself. And to this, the millowners say that it does not necessarily follow that because a jobber produces men, they must be engaged. With all due deference, I beg to submit that this is not correct. The statement is entirely wrong. As a rule, the departmental heads and in several cases their assistants, are never at the mills until about an hour and a half or two hours after the mills start working, and if they are not on the spot when the men are recruited, it does not necessarily follow that because a jobber produces men they must be accepted for engagement. This is my personal experience as a mill manager.

The millowner's further contention that "it is not always possible for all vacancies to be filled from the applicants waiting at the mill gates for employment, and that, when this is the case, the only course open is to send out jobbers to the homes of the operatives to collect men" applies not to the present times but to the latter part of the nineteenth century. I am in a position to assert most definitely that the state of things to which the millowners refer does not at present exist, except perhaps in case of a couple of mills which may be geographically unfavourably situated. Even in the latter case, I have made personal inquiries from the manager of a mill which was at one time similarly affected on account of its unfavourable situation and my information is that during the last seven years, when all mills in Bombay were working under normal conditions, there was not a single occasion to send a jobber in search for men.

(ii) *Possible Improvement.*—The Tariff Board's condemnation of the practice and their recommendation that "all labour should be engaged directly by the officer of the mill in charge of the department which requires it or by a reasonable assistant" seems to me to be the only rational method which needs to be adopted. If the millowners desired to make a change in this direction, all that they have got to do is to make the presence of their departmental heads and of their assistants compulsory a little before the starting of the mills.

(iii) *Public or Private Employment Agencies.*—These do not, as a rule, exist. Even if they did they would be useless. Such agencies, at the same time, would be a menace to the workpeople, who would be exploited every time. There are at present a number of service securing agencies throughout the country which claim to secure jobs for the unemployed amongst artisans and clerks. Some of these agencies are an open scandal and ought to be suppressed or allowed to exist only under a licence from the local Government, which should satisfy itself as to the resources of these employment agencies to secure jobs for the unemployed.

7. *Unemployment.*—(i) The extent of employment depends upon the engagement by the mills of their required complement from day to day. Unemployment in the Bombay cotton mills, as a rule, falls under two different and distinct classes. Some of the mills work only a part of their machinery, leaving the other part stopped for some time. Unemployment thus caused necessarily tells on the workpeople who

are thrown out. A very large percentage of men who offer themselves for employment at different mill gates every morning belong to this particular class of unemployed workpeople. There are other mills which are very erratic in this matter and stop their spindles and looms at any moment, sometimes at the very last moment, thus turping out a part of the workpeople who, having left their homes early in the morning, wended their long way towards their mills in the hope of earning their daily bread. This unexpected driving out of the men cuts them both ways. They cannot get a job in the mill where they think they are permanently engaged; at the same time, they are deprived of their chance to look out for a job elsewhere, due to their being late for this purpose. Such sudden dismissals may mean nothing to the mills concerned, but they do tend to create disaffection amongst the workpeople. It is necessary that the men who are not required the next day should be given a notice to that effect the previous evening. This is the least that the mills could do. Failing this, the workpeople should be paid their wages for that day. Barring the two cases above mentioned, generally speaking, unemployment in Bombay cotton mills cannot be called of a very cruel nature.

(ii) (a) Retrenchment in itself is not so calamitous in its effects. It is, however, necessary that those who are the newest on the staff should only be axed. The turning out of old hands under the pretext of retrenchment does work a hardship on them. Such instances of dismissal often happen due to the petty jealousies between the jobbers and their men and the jobbers should not be permitted to have their last say in the matter. The same thing may be said of other cases of dismissal where it has no object but that the man does not suit the jobber or that the jobber refuses to let himself suit the man. Retrenchments and dismissals cause a great disaffection particularly when they are uncalled for. When I was manager of the Khatau Makanji mills, I had myself to send away for good a very large number of superfluous persons from almost all departments. There was then no disaffection at all, as each one of the cases I had personally investigated in consultation with the departmental heads and their jobbers.

I may here append a note to explain what an unfair dismissal generally means and how it tells on the workpeople. I do it, because I find that during the last mill strike an attempt was made to show that the once dismissed workpeople were offered a job elsewhere, but it was alleged against them that they were so obstinate and unreasonable that they would not accept the millowners' offer to reinstate them in other mills.

The man who, by dint of his steady application to his machine for a number of years, has thoroughly mastered it, knows it and understands it perfectly well. In a way, he has learnt to understand his machine's many and odd eccentricities and knows how to get the most and the best work out of it. To ask a man, therefore, to give up his own machine and work on another is to punish him for his past diligence. By working on a machine other than his own, he stands in no better position, so far as wages are concerned, than the man who has been all his life a rolling stone and who owns no machine which he can, by any possible pretence, claim to know and understand thoroughly.

(b) As a rule voluntary retirement takes place when the man becomes physically unfit for further work or when he decides to give up mill life and return to his country.

Among other causes leading to unemployment may be reckoned the spread of an epidemic, strikes and lock-outs.

(iii) *Methods of alleviating and remedying distress.*—There was a time when the millowners could have taken steps to introduce a system of unemployment insurance for those thrown out of employment due to retrenchment or those who were wrongly dismissed. Benefits of such insurance could have been extended to those unable to attend to their work on account of illness. As for those dismissed, something more should be done than giving full credence to the statement of the jobber concerned. It is not unoften that a jobber brings a new man because he gets his *baksisk* from him. The result is that an otherwise innocent man has to make room for his brother who has been found more generous to the jobber. In a very large number of cases, jobbers are supported by their departmental heads, partly because the latter are sometimes entirely on the mercy of their jobbers for a smooth running of their departments and partly because they have their own share in the poor man's *baksisk*.

(iv) Subject to what I have said above, unemployment insurance, as a rule, will not very much help the workpeople in Bombay cotton mills. So far, there is not that healthy atmosphere within and without the mills and it is possible that any scheme of general insurance may be abused by a section of the workpeople. However, any compensation paid as suggested above would make the millowners a little more concerned about their own affairs which they have now totally left to the charge of a set of irresponsible persons.

8. *Labour Turnover*—(i) *Average duration of employment*.—For spinners, this is most uncertain and nothing definite can be said. There are those who spend their whole lives in the mills, then there are others who work for a few years and then go away to their villages. It often happens that a change of jobbers necessitates a change of the entire batch of men working under them. . . It is remarkable that weavers, as a rule, are very reluctant to leave a mill where they may have worked for a number of years in spite of a change of their jobbers. This is because, being paid on production, they fully appreciate and understand that their earnings for some time to come will be considerably affected in the new place. I know a large number of weavers who have put in twenty to thirty years' service in one place.

(iii) *Absenteeism*.—This is a subject to which the Bombay millowners have given their much thought and time, but without success. I have, however, noticed one thing that in a mill where the chances of absenteeism being forced on the workpeople by a stoppage of machinery are few, the complaint in this direction is almost insignificant. When a mill stops a number of its men from time to time in a most erratic way, the latter naturally try to find out a more permanent place. Even then, when some of the mills have stopped a part of their machinery for some time, there is a surplus of labour available, and the effects of absenteeism are not always quite patent. But when all mills are working under normal conditions, and there is no surplus, the mills of the type I have just described are the worst sufferers. In that case, they have no choice of their own and the departmental jobbers are compelled to accept for engagement any and all who offer themselves for vacancies. It must be said, however, that such occasions are but few and rare, and in my experience I have never felt a shortage of workpeople in spinning departments.

The Tariff Board has evidently said three things in the matter of absenteeism. Properly analysed, they stand as follows :—

- (1) It is difficult to suggest a way by which absenteeism can be reduced.
- (2) A mill in Bombay has reduced its absenteeism from 15 to 1 per cent.
- (3) The best way is to engage a ten per cent. bigger staff.

To be candid, I cannot see any logic in the above suggestions. They have before them a mill which has successfully reduced absenteeism from 15 to 1 per cent. by bringing to its aid a most rational method, and yet the Tariff Board cannot see the wood for the trees. Their own suggestion of engaging a 10 per cent. larger staff is, to say the least, most unbusinesslike and not at all in the general interests of the industry. It is a pity that they could not see that the suggestion, if honestly put into practice, is open to grave abuse. What the mills, at present engaging this larger staff, have gained in efficiency, I do not yet know. My own experience is that after getting rid of most of this so called "reserve staff," I was in a position to improve efficiency to a very considerable extent.

I may say what generally happens when this extra "reserve" staff is engaged by a mill. Truly and really speaking, spare hands do not at all spare the trouble which is, without them, involved. On the other hand, they add to the existing troubles. Once the spare hands are taken up, they remain as a permanent fixture to the existing labour staff. If this, in itself, is not an evil, the practice makes room for greater corruption while it exists and in spite of gaining in efficiency, as imagined by the Tariff Board, there is a decided check on its improvement. The idea is to put in the spare hands in place of absentees. In experience, I have found that this is never done to the fullest extent. If A is absent, B comes in and earns his wage *in the name of A* and when A receives his wages, B is paid out of it through the jobber concerned. An additional man is thus provided for reasons which are not far to seek. I have known of mills taking substitutes even for these very spare hands if any of them remained absent. And where, through a strict supervision, the full number of spare hands are made use of, one sees in the departments a criminal waste of materials. And what is the excuse? All spare hands are engaged! As if they were brought inside the mills to be disengaged.

Now, I may show the effect of this practice on departmental efficiency. Where a department is accustomed to receive a number of extra hands, that department never makes any progress. It remains progress-proof. I ask a mill agent to apply this rule to his own office. He has an accountant. Supposing every time he goes on leave there is a man reserve to take his place. What happens? The rest of the office staff remain where they are. Their instinct for progress is killed. They are made ambitionless. The office efficiency remains at its lowest ebb. And at the top of all that when for some reason or another, the accountant and his substitute both disappear, the office is in a state of chaos and disorder. Similarly, by engaging an extra set of men in a mill, the workpeople are deprived of their most elementary lessons in efficiency. At the same time, it encourages the departmental heads in their present attitude to let the departments

take care of themselves. A better and stricter supervision with a more rational method of organizing the departments ought to help the management not only to do away with the additional staff but to add also to the workpeople's efficiency. The practice of engaging spare hands is, therefore, not only rotten in its principles but highly objectionable to the healthy growth of departmental efficiency in a cotton mill.

## II.—Staff Organization.

10. Administrative organization generally depends on the extent of the powers exercised by a particular manager. There are mills where managers are invested with full powers so far as administrative affairs are concerned. There are others where his powers are generally defined. There is yet a third class in which managers have to place the smallest possible matters before the agents for their final approval and sanction. Needless to say, the administrative affairs in mills falling under the first class are most satisfactory, if the managers concerned are intelligent, conscientious men. They being on the spot, they know best what to do under certain circumstances. The managers who have their powers defined have a very limited scope for their activities. The mills which suffer most in matters of administration are those falling under the last group. I know of instances where a number of useful suggestions were withheld from being brought to the notice of the agents simply because, in spite of their own very firm belief in their suggestions, the managers did not know what was going to be their fate and they generally preferred to let the things take their usual course.

In some mills, agents do not understand the difference between administrative and departmental organization. The result is that often the administrative head remains a mere figure-head and he thus learns to shirk his own responsibilities.

As a rule, departmental organization is left to the care of jobbers. There are exceptions, but they are very few. Why such things exist only the millowners can say. It is impossible to write on the subject of departmental organization in all its aspects. The subject is so comprehensive that it may call for the writing of an elaborate thesis to do it a full measure of justice.

11. There are no fixed rules for the selection of staff. All over the world, various agencies are made use of in their selection and the millowners cannot be an exception. Personal acquaintance, introduction through one or another source, past obligations, friendship, etc., are questions which are generally considered in the matter of staff selection. In some cases, applications are independently invited through the agency of the press. In that case, the best recommendations are generally on paper. It has been the experience of a large number of millowners that the men who have the best certificates are often the most rotten.

12. The selection of subordinate staff is, as a rule, the chief concern of the departmental heads. The practice is much abused and an idea of its abuse can only be gathered from the fact that in one particular instance a man who had never seen a cotton mill during all his life was appointed a head-jobber in one of the Bombay mills. Such instances may be exceptional, but the practice is not sound in its principles. In some cases, nowadays there is a tendency to encourage students who have passed out from the Victoria Jubilee Technical School to go in for these jobs. My own knowledge is confined to only a very few of them, but the general complaint about the technically trained young men is that they are a bit too much conceited for their having in their pocket a diploma of their proficiency. Though their knowledge of departmental practice is often nil, they claim to be better trained all round. This complaint, from what little experience I had of this class of men, I have no hesitation to endorse.

The jobbers who belong to the subordinate staff are mostly untrained. The result is that in several mills where the departments are left entirely in charge of their jobbers by the departmental heads, they necessarily run jobber-like. Efficiency is at its lowest, waste production is absolutely unchecked, production is manufactured both in the processes and on paper, and, in short, the departments are in a most disorganized state. So long as the present method of engaging jobbers exists without any attempt being made to train them, there is little chance of being any improvement in labour efficiency in Bombay cotton mills. Facilities for training them are few and far between. I have discussed this question further in paragraphs 40 and 41 below.

13. Relations between staff and rank and file are of the most unpleasant nature. Had these relations been what they should be, Bombay would have acquitted itself honourably during the last great strikes in cotton mills. One great difficulty of the whole thing is that the senior staff has done little to place before the agents the workpeople's case truly and honestly. I have discussed this question with several managers and departmental heads, when almost in each case I was told that if they attempted to place the workpeople's case before the agents, they themselves would incur the latter's displeasure. I feel that their fears are not at all well founded.

In any case this is the situation as I can see it. The agents not having a direct touch with their workpeople, the workpeople's grievances are not brought to their notice in proper light. In many cases the agents consult their managers as to what they should do. This is a very wise course which any mill agent can safely adopt as it gives the manager an opportunity to place before the agent all the facts pertaining to a particular case. But I find that the facts are often distorted, as some managers like to give the agents an impression that the mills are in a helpless state due to the workpeople's vagaries. Thus the workpeople are between the two stools. There is no love lost between themselves and their officers. At the same time, these officers are the only people to whom the agents can refer in matters affecting labour, and if their representations are not honest and straightforward before the agents, the workpeople must necessarily suffer.

14. Every mill in Bombay has an efficient timekeeping department. . . . The only possible chance of a fraud being played on the mills is in the case of spare hands and "budlis" (substitutes), but with proper supervision this can be eliminated.

The system of making wages payment in a large number of mills is entirely out of date. It entails not only a great hardship on the workpeople, though they themselves may not regard it as such in view of their getting a chance for a frolic, to leave the department and present themselves at the timekeeper's counter, but at the same time it means a heavy loss to the mill itself in production. There are only a very few mills who have a more rational method of distributing wages payment. As one who was responsible for introducing the latter method, I gave expression to my views in my lecture on "Re-organization," to which I have already referred. My remarks under the heading "Other Forms of Waste" explain this point and hence I beg to reproduce them below :—

. . . . One of the most common forms of waste of which we know so well is the recurrent waste of time every month when we distribute wages among our mill-hands. What this waste of time means really in money very few seem to have considered carefully. It is an open secret that the production in an average mill on pay-day is only a half-day's production, though the mills have to pay in every respect a full working day's expenses. This way, full six days in a year are lost to the mills."

### III.—Housing.

17 to 22. Housing conditions for Bombay cotton mill labour are far from satisfactory. In some places they are of an appalling nature. They are practically unfit for human habitation. The Bombay Government have made some serious efforts to provide suitable dwellings for the workpeople but such efforts have, for the most part proved unsuccessful. It must be admitted that during recent years the mill-owners have largely co-operated with the Government in providing for the workpeople sanitary dwellings. The co-operation consists in their paying, though not with a smiling face, Re. 1 per bale of cotton on all cotton coming into Bombay. This evy on cotton is called "Town Duty," which approximately means Bombay mill-owners' contribution of about a million rupees per year. The tenements constructed by the Government have, no doubt, relieved the situation which would have otherwise been accentuated. It was reported to the Tariff Board that about 69 per cent. of these tenements were lying vacant. The reasons mentioned were difficulties of access, absence of bazaars, and, above all, the unsuitability of the construction of these tenements. The Tariff Board declared that it was alleged before them that the tenements being built of cement were too hot in the hot weather and too cold in the cold weather. Ill-housed workpeople can never be expected to be efficient up to a certain standard, but it was unfortunately not very well realized that the industry which demanded protection against foreign competition had deprived itself of the efficiency of its workpeople to a very great extent due to most unsatisfactory housing conditions in Bombay.

In my opinion the best way out of the difficulty would be to abolish the town duty on cotton and instead ask the millowners to form workpeople's mutual housing societies, to which they should be made to contribute each at the rate of Rs. 2 per bale consumed. The money for the construction work can be borrowed at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum. The duty levied at the rate of Rs. 2 per bale should be utilized to pay the major portion of the interest charges on the borrowed capital. We may take the instance of a mill consuming 40 bales a day, that is, about 12,000 bales per year. Its contribution to the housing society would be about Rs. 24,000 per year. The construction of 50,000 tenements have cost the Government very nearly 50 million rupees, thus one tenement costing about Rs. 1,000. If 500 tenements are provided for a mill contributing as above Rs. 24,000 per year, the cost of building such tenements would be roughly Rs. 500,000. It is reasonably certain that the

tenements built by such a society as I have suggested above, particularly under the direction of the mills concerned, so as to make them sufficiently attractive for the workpeople from their own point of view, will find a sufficient number of tenants every time. Taking the rent per each tenement at a low figure of Rs. 4 per month, the total rents realizable per month would be Rs. 24,000 per year. This amount, that is, Rs. 24,000, together with Rs. 24,000, being the mills' contribution, should enable the society not only to pay interest at 5 per cent., that is Rs. 25,000, but should leave a sufficient surplus for taxes, building repairs, reserve and sinking funds, etc. Under this scheme, about 25 per-cent. of the total complement of a mill's staff can be housed and its future expansion should not be found difficult on more progressive lines.

#### IV.—Health.

23. *General Conditions.*—These depend largely on the respective temperaments of the workpeople concerned, their mode of life and their diet. As a class, Mahomedan workpeople are temperamentally more cheerful, more practical, and more sensible to the necessity of their having to earn their daily bread under a plan of nature. The Hindu operatives, however, are in the matter of their temperament, quite reverse.

What I have said of the temperament applies equally to the physique of the respective classes. The diet of the both differs in essential particulars. The Mahomedan worker's diet is simple but wholesome. Not so of the Hindu worker, whose earnings being meagre, he has to be content with his poor diet both in quality and in quantity. Between Hindus and Hindus, the Kamathis and the Marathas of the higher class, as distinguished from the untouchables, are decidedly far superior to the rest of the Hindus. The untouchables are not permitted to work except in the spinning department.

With regard to the working conditions at mills, it must be said to the credit of the Bombay millowners, that they are, as a rule, far superior to the conditions obtainable in some of the Lancashire mills, except that the Indian workpeople are accustomed to keep their own surroundings very unclean by constant spitting on the floors and on the walls and otherwise disfiguring these places. I have visited several mills in Lancashire at Bolton, Blackburn, etc., and on a comparison being made between them and the Bombay mills, I am in a position to say that any complaint regarding working conditions generally in Bombay mills ought to be entirely discredited.

24 and 25. *Medical Facilities.*—Much has already been done and still more is being done in this direction. For this, the Bombay millowners deserve the workpeople's best thanks. As a rule, the western science of medicine has not so far gained the workpeople's full confidence. There are several mills to which dispensaries are attached and in some of these the workpeople can get English as well as country medicine. A large majority of the workpeople, being illiterate, have not learnt the value of nipping a disease in the bud. They believe in the efficacy of country medicine, which they often prepare at home. In more serious cases they go to the *Vaidis* and *Hakims* practising *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* (Greek) systems of medicine.

26 and 27. *Sanitary Arrangements.*—These call for attention. Of what I have seen in more than a dozen mills in Bombay, I say that the facilities so far provided are not only insufficient but of the filthiest kind also. In some mills, drinking water tanks are placed next to the latrines. Mills, as a rule, do not provide bathing places, and when washing places are more generously made use of by the bolder amongst the workpeople to have a bath to their own content, they create nuisance to the detriment of the rest of the staff. A more rigorous application by the sanitary inspectors of the powers vested in them may bring about a welcome change in the existing conditions.

#### 30. *Sickness Insurance.*

If the millowners desired they can work up a scheme for the benefit of the workpeople in this direction, either side by side with compensation insurance in their own mutual insurance company, or in co-operation with some existing life office. In other countries, including even South Africa, there are staff pension schemes. Under a staff pension scheme, provision is made for adequate superannuation benefits to employees on their retirement from service, a monthly income during their incapacitation is assured, and a cash sum to their dependants in the event of their death is paid whilst in service. Under a scheme like this, the mills would be relieved of all responsibilities in connection with its proper administration, as a life office may undertake to administer it on their behalf on receiving a small percentage of commission.

### VI.—Education.

40 and 41. In my own experience, I myself started at the Khatau Makanji mills three classes, one for primary education and two for technical training—one of these was a preliminary class for the workpeople and the other for an advanced course of study for the jobbers. The classes were held in the evening when the mill was closed after the day's work. The staff was wholly voluntary and was recruited from mill clerks and departmental assistants, I myself devoting two solid hours every evening to supervise the working of the classes. The classes were a great success. The workpeople were so attentive and were taking such great interest that within a short time of the starting of these classes, many of them began reading and writing simple lessons in their own vernacular. After I had left the mills, I learnt that the classes had been closed down.

42. *Effect of Education on Standard of Living and Industrial Efficiency of Workers.*—In my own experience, I have found that these effects were remarkable. The millowners seem to be in a mood to complain about everything pertaining to labour and perhaps they will try to say the same thing about labour education as they have said about welfare work. But in spite of whatever they may have to say, one thing is certain and it is this; that education means efficiency. After I had started my classes at the Khatau Makanji mills, I had the satisfaction to see that, with a set of most preliminary hints, there was an all round improvement. The departments which were at one time most notorious for being hopelessly unclean began to be scrupulously clean. There was a marked tendency on the part of the operatives who attended the classes to behave better, they took greater care of the materials, wasted less time in their excursions outside the departments, were more attentive to their work and, on the whole, there was a most satisfactory change in their mill life. The number of operatives who joined the classes was a small one, but this small number of men exercised over their fellow work-people very great influence, and I often noticed that not only the operatives who were attending the classes were trying to keep everything pertaining to their work clean, but they also saw that their neighbours were clean as well. As a matter of fact, it was a part of their lessons and they were often asked to give the benefit of their instruction to their brethren in the departments. And the way in which they loyally and faithfully carried out these instructions showed that what they learnt in their classes they placed to the best advantage while at work. In short, other workpeople were also brought into a healthy contact which helped directly to reduce the percentage of waste in different forms. Besides, every operative who attended the classes was asked to keep his body clean, to wash his clothes regularly, to have a regular daily bath. When the classes met and dispersed, they offered their prayers to God. Such are the things which I am sure would do no harm to any industry.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. The scale of compensation is very poor and needs to be revised. A poor man while he is unable to work for his living should not be deprived of a part of it while he is injured for no fault of his own.

The saving clause works a great hardship on an injured person. It stipulates that a workman who is able to resume normal work after 10 days or earlier shall not make a compensation. The fears that when such compensation is paid the workman will unnecessarily stay away are totally unfounded, as every case is dealt with on its own merits and compensation is paid only on a medical certificate. Perhaps it may be contended that similar exceptions are provided in other countries too. But then, it should be remembered that the scale of wages for an average Indian workman is so low, his mode of life is so miserable and in every other respect he is so totally helpless that he has no other alternative but to incur a personal liability during his preliminary illness.

The valuation of injury at 100 per cent. needs to be raised. At least, it ought to be made in proportion to the wages earned by the workman injured, irrespective of the scale of his wages, letting the present figure of Rs. 2,500 to remain as a minimum for an injury at 100 per cent.

The present scale of compensation is 30 months' wages in case of death or Rs. 2,500, whichever is less. In my opinion Rs. 2,500 ought to be made, not the maximum, but the minimum. Where the wages are higher, the compensation should be regulated according to the wages and not according to a maximum fixed arbitrarily. In matters like this, we need discretion rather than caprice.

Under the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, the cost of a minor's life is Rs. 200, that is, less than fifteen pounds sterling. Never was the life of a domestic pet valued at so miserably small a sum, and it is no wonder that this grossest form of inhumanity which has permitted the Indian employer to keep quiet over this form of compensation should give westerners an idea that the life of an Indian coolie is less valuable than a pariah dog. It is not for the framers of the Act to say that



in the case of the minor the dependants are not likely to be helpless as they may be in the case of an adult. Apart from all considerations, the fact is, that a valuable life is lost in the course of employment, and that is enough. The framers of the Act are not infallible. When they see chances of dependence less in the case of a minor, how are they going to help the parents in their old age and distress where the minor happened to be their only child ?

There is yet one more flaw in the Act and that is about its disqualifying a workman who has been drawing above Rs. 300 from receiving any benefit from the operation of the Act. A workman is a workman, whether he earns Rs. 15 a month or Rs. 500 a month and it is absolutely inconceivable why the Act should cease to operate in his favour so long as the workman himself does not cease to be a workman. The latter ought to have as much right to compensation as any ordinary workman has.

#### IX.—Hours.

59. The time has now come when the working hours need to be reduced from 10 to 9 per day. At present, while the number of working hours per week is nominally 60, very often the men are made to work for 90 hours by working 9 days at a stretch. The reason is that if there is a holiday during the week, the mills can work on a Sunday which is acknowledged to be the day of rest throughout the civilized world. The present Indian Factories Act allows it, Sunday, therefore, needs to be made a compulsory holiday.

The reduction in the number of working hours from 60 to 54 per week may give the millowners, at the start, a smaller production, but this will be sufficiently compensated by an increased efficiency of the workpeople. The millowners themselves have often complained that though the workpeople are at present working nominally for 10 hours they are, as a matter of fact, not giving full 10 hours' work. This explains for the industrial fatigue which tells heavily on the workpeople and tends to retard their efficiency.

#### XII.—Wages.

97. The wages in Bombay cotton mills have moved with the price movements at different times. In a great and growing city like Bombay, the prices have moved rather quickly and with the moving of these prices, the workpeople had to demand higher wages. In spite of the many struggles between labour and capital in the past, the present day standard of wages, particularly in spinning departments, is fearfully low and needs to be raised.

98. It is most difficult to ascertain what percentage of the total number of mill-hands employed in Bombay mills send any amount, to their villages, and the percentage of the wages earned in case of those that did. The only thing that I can say is that the lot of an average workman is too miserable to permit him to send anything to his village. The ordinary work-people, the real toilers, have their wages standard so low that unless they eat half the bread themselves, it is not possible to send the remainder to their villages. As a mill manager, my experience is that nine out of ten workpeople are indebted to the Bania, the Marwari and the Pathan and the official banker at the mills. I am in a position to say that a majority of the work-people, even without their sending any money to their villages, do not get for themselves full half bread to which I have referred. I want the commissioners to understand this point very clearly. There are many hundreds, nay thousands, of men working in the cotton mills of Bombay who earn about ten annas a day. While considering that this small sum of money is not enough to let a person in a large city like Bombay, howsoever miserably he may be living, keep his body and soul together, one has to remember that not a small number of these workpeople are sent away from the mills every now and then on the ground that there is not sufficient work for the whole of the departmental staff. Thus, if a person can earn, say for 20 days in a month, then that person's monthly income will come to Rs. 12-8 annas, that is, about sevenpence a day. And then there are workpeople whose total wages do not exceed, even if they put in a full month's work, Rs. 13 or Rs. 14 per month, that is, about seven to eight pence per day. Surely, these are not the people whom one should expect to eat, drink and make merry while they live in Bombay and send the surplus of their earnings to their home sweet home.

There are, no doubt, a few men in the mills who are in receipt of fairly good wages. They are the jobbers, turners, fitters, carpenters, and others, but they are, strictly speaking, workmen of the supervising staff or belonging to the artisan class, and do not form the bulk of the workpeople. As a rule, weavers are better paid than spinners, but being domiciled in Bombay, they have not to send anything to their country, except under special cases.

101. The principle which was fundamentally wrong in 1879 for fixing the workpeople's wages is wrong in 1929, and yet it continues to the dissatisfaction and disaffection of the workpeople. In old days, the idea of fixing wages was very crude. The departmental head, in consultation with his jobber, found out what were the messing charges in Bombay for a workman. To this was added a small allowance for the sake of his coming to Bombay from his native country. And that was the living wage. The definition of a living wage is the same now as it was then. The only fact which the millowners recognized was that the workpeople had a duty towards their employers to live on till they worked for them as that would let the industry also live. What kind of living it was they cared little to know. Their only concern was to hire him at something less than what he was really worth or what he did really deserve.

103. After a series of attempts, the millowners have come to the conclusion, only during the last year, that it is possible to standardize the wages in Bombay cotton mills.

107. In Bombay cotton mills, wages are generally paid 10 to 15 days after they have become due. In the existing state of things this period of 10 to 15 days is really necessary to prepare wages muster rolls. If the system of monthly wages payment is to continue, wages must remain in arrears as they do now. However, the present economic condition of the worker demands that the wages should be paid weekly. The present system is most wretched in its principles, as during its existence an average workman has learnt to contract debts. As a matter of fact, in many cases, he is compelled to do so.

It is a pity that the millowners do not desire to encourage the system of short period payments. Whatever may be their fears, as one who has an intimate knowledge of the mode of cotton mill operatives' life and hence of his wants, I am in a position to say that the introduction of a system of weekly wages payment will make the workpeople more contented, more independent in their requirements and less dependent on a class of usurers, often of a most abominable type.

The committee of the millowners' association, in their letter to the *Asiatic Review* (in reply to an article by Lady Chatterjee in 1924), tried to justify the system of monthly wages payment and said :—

"Individual members of the association were requested to elicit the opinion of the workpeople as to whether they would prefer monthly or fortnightly wages : an overwhelming majority of the workpeople expressed themselves strongly opposed to the introduction of the system of fortnightly payment of wages and insisted on the continuance of the present system . . . . If the mill operatives had shown any preference for the system of fortnightly payments, the association would have certainly asked its members to pay wages to operatives every fortnight."

It will be interesting to know what steps the millowners had taken to ascertain the real needs and wishes of the workpeople and how many of 153,000 workpeople preferred a monthly system of payment so as to form themselves into an "overwhelming majority." It is rather strange that the millowners did not care to ascertain the wishes of the workpeople, in this particular matter, through their labour unions.

As a matter of fact, many of the mills in Bombay pay their workpeople, even to-day, a part of the wages earned by them in the shape of an advance. On this part payment of wages which are actually earned, the workpeople have to pay an exorbitant rate of interest. Can it ever be believed that the workpeople who have to pay an exorbitant rate of interest on a part of their own earnings would be unwilling to receive a payment of their wages on which they would not have to pay any interest at all. It is for the millowners to say that this is not correct.

The advances to which I have referred above, are made either directly by the mills concerned or, in a few cases, through the instrumentality of some other parties. It is also a well-known fact that over and above their receiving the advances from their earned wages, the workpeople have to borrow sums of money regularly from Banias, Marwaris, Pathans and others at a most prohibitive rate of interest. It is also a fact, too well-known to the millowners and their officers, that the workpeople buy their foodstuffs on credit and eventually pay a price much higher than what they would have to pay if they bought them for cash. I know Banias and Marwaris who would not pay the workpeople any sum of money in spite of their preparedness to pay the fixed rate of interest, however high it may be, unless the workpeople agreed to buy their requirements from those Banias and Marwaris. Thus this class of usurers thrive not only on the workpeople's evil habits of contracting debts but they get their pound of flesh by extorting from the workpeople as much money as possible in the ordinary course of their purchase. In this, they have a double object. The first is to keep the workpeople attached to them and second so to squeeze them

that they may never get out of their indebtedness. All these things, I beg to submit, are being done to the knowledge of the millowners. They are too well-known to their managers and heads of departments. And yet when we are told that an "overwhelming majority" of the workpeople preferred a monthly system of payment, one may like to know why they were so very fascinated with a wicked system which did them no good at all but, on the other hand, adversely affected their interests from every conceivable point of view.

I hope I shall be permitted to say something more about it. There is no secret about the fact that besides Banias, Marwaris and Pathans there is yet another class of people who freely loan money to the workpeople. These are the mill jobbers, timekeepers, and in a few cases, heads of departments. In some cases, the jobbers and the timekeepers make use of an official's money in this mutual banking business, when the departmental head remains only a "sleeping partner" in the affair and gets his share of the income. It is, therefore, as clear as daylight, that if the payment were made fortnightly, these "official bankers" of the workpeople would certainly lose their extra source of income. The fortnightly wages may be in the interests of the workpeople, as they really are, but they are not in the interests of these bankers, through whom the "real needs and wishes" of the workpeople were most probably ascertained. It is really strange that it never occurred to the millowners that the workpeople who were squeezed so clean on all sides and who were made to mortgage their future earnings to a set of merciless usurers deserved an urgent relief.

But this is not all, as a mill manager I am in a position to say that the system of fortnightly wages payment will never find favour with an "overwhelming majority" of the present day mill officials. They know that with what crude method of making wages payment they have in vogue in their mills, they are going to lose heavily in production if the wages were paid twice a month.

These are most stubborn and unchallengeable facts. They show what really lies at the bottom of the "real needs and wishes" of the workpeople. Any change, whatever its future significance, calls for better organization and more simplified methods. If this cannot be done, then workpeople are the real sufferers. But when they suffer, the industry must suffer as well.

Personally, I do not believe in fortnightly payments. They are better than monthly payments, but not as good as payments made every week. But let the "real needs and wishes" of the workpeople be ascertained through their labour unions.

108. *Indebtedness.*—I have referred to this in paragraph 107 above. How far and to what extent a mill hand is indebted in his village, it is difficult to ascertain. The village indebtedness may not be his own. It may be his father's or perhaps his grandfather's. Instances of such ancestral indebtedness are not by any means few. But his indebtedness in the industrial area is an established fact. The very fact that hundreds of money-lenders of all descriptions present themselves at the mill gates on wages payment day for collection of their dues is a sufficient proof of their indebtedness.

To help the workpeople to get out of the usurers' clutches, I beg to suggest the following remedy. In my opinion, in every mill centre there must be opened "millhands co-operative credit societies." Through such societies, the millhands should be offered an opportunity to borrow small sums of money. Perhaps some people will try to show a difficulty by saying that the millhands, some, or many of them, after receiving loans will run away. I do not wish to make a secret of the fact that the difficulty will be there, in the matter of conducting the business of such societies very satisfactorily, but if we think of the difficulties, we cannot think of the workpeople's welfare. The difficulties are, however, not insurmountable and if practical business men like the Bombay millowners approached it with a never-failing heart, there is no reason why they should not accomplish it quite satisfactorily.

106. As a mill manager, I am in a position to say, that fine, as a form of punishment, is resorted to in very exceptional cases, and in any opinion, if the practice is well regulated and if there is no chance of a greater evil being introduced through it, the practice must continue as a necessary evil and the millowners cannot be blamed for such continuance.

109. *Profit-sharing.*—The question of profit-sharing by labour in industrial undertakings in India is, in the present Indian conditions, un-arguable, and those who have been advocating in India the introduction of this measure, only make a fun of the sufferings of Indian labour. Several industrial concerns have been running their plant and machinery, though for years past they show no profit at all. In a private business, if it is found to be unremunerative, its proprietor, if he is an honest man, will like to close it down. But that is perhaps the concern only of the millowners

and of the shareholders to see why some of these concerns, in spite of their making losses year after year, are allowed to continue their operations. What I, however, want to point out is, that if it is profitable for the management to carry on business when there are no profits, it would not at all be profitable for the profit-sharing workpeople for whom probably nothing will be left.

Even as a theoretical problem, a system of profit-sharing, while it is likely to be opposed by the employers, will do little good to the workpeople themselves. What the workpeople are most concerned with, is their compensation, if any, over and above their nominal wage. They are also as much concerned that the ordinary standard of their wages will be maintained irrespective of the times being good, bad, or indifferent. How this could be possible, I have tried to show in paragraph below.

*Maintenance of Ordinary Wage Standard.*—It is only a sad mentality which wants to attack the workpeople's wages without any strong grounds. A state of mere trade depression is not at all a strong ground for reducing the workpeople's wages for the simple reason that the trade has its own cyclical periods of prosperity as well. Even while there is trade depression, there are a number of directions in which expenses can be curtailed to let the industry hold its own. After what I have seen in cotton mills in Bombay, I refuse to believe that the industry could not get on without attacking the workpeople's wages. These are matters of internal administration and perhaps they are not within the terms of reference of the present Commission, but I have no doubt in my mind that the Indian cotton mill industry will be in a position to look after itself only if the millowners pay greater attention to the matters of internal administration, which to-day, in not a few cases, is of the most wretched kind.

As regards workpeople's wages, my own opinion is that there is now time when, if labour is to be made to co-operate wholeheartedly with the industry; labour must be given a definite guarantee that no attempt will be made in future to reduce their wages, but, on the other hand, steps will be taken at the very first opportunity to ensure the maintenance of their ordinary standard. I say it is only fair that labour's ordinary wages which are the minimum must be insured. If the millowners can insure that lifeless plant, machinery and building, if they can insure their stock in trade, if they can insure their very profits, I see no reason, none at all, why the workpeople's wages should not be similarly insured. No doubt, if it is only during better times that this can be done on a firm and permanent footing. We have to remember that labour is a more permanent fixture for any industry, and that fixture needs to be well maintained if the industry is to progress on sound rational lines. For the proper maintenance of that fixture, which is a first charge on the industry, equalization of wages funds accounts needs to come into existence. It will insure the workpeople's wages against bad times and against periods of trade depression. When the wages are insured, the self-satisfied labour will insure the prosperity of the industry and will be ready to give the employers its very warm and loyal co-operation.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. The efficiency of the workpeople, as a rule, depends on the administrative efficiency. Yet, we find that the efficiency of the spinning departments of the Bombay mills has invariably suffered, compared to the efficiency in the weaving sheds, from the earliest days to the present times. The causes are of a varied nature. Besides lack of departmental organization, we see want of proper system of piecework, long working hours, ill-housing, ill-feeding, want of proper education and so on. The Indian Tariff Board laid special stress on the mills in Bombay introducing piecework.

The above recommendations, when properly analysed, point to the following main observations with regard to the question of efficiency:—

- (1) Spinners should be placed on piecework.
- (2) Number of spindles, per spinner, should be increased.

(7) To improve labour efficiency, there must be corresponding improvement in the standard of efficiency of jobbers.

- (8) Greater facilities for technical education should be provided for jobbers.

Considering the above observations in order, the first recommendation to place spinners on piecework is of a very sound nature. I do not think that this in itself is a radical change. With due regard to the millowners' opinion which is based on I do not know what specific grounds, I beg to submit that they are not correct in what they say. Even taking for granted that the change is a radical change, if it is introduced in a rational way, it will not only be not opposed by the workpeople, but they will be very pleased to welcome it. That is my experience as a mill manager.

The Tariff Board's recommendation to increase the number of spindles per spinner is not wise in the present condition of the spinning departments in Bombay mills. I do not say that the recommendation is not practical. But my objection to its

introduction at this stage lies in the fact that the millowners and their officials have done nothing so far to get from the workpeople the highest production from the number of spindles which they are at present attending.

With reference to this second recommendation, the millowners' fears that the workpeople will go on strike if asked to attend to a larger number of spindles are not wholly justified. The workpeople, as they are now trained, find it difficult to give a fairly good production per spindle and an increase in the spindleage would necessarily reduce the present efficiency per spindle. I do not, however, think that this is a radical change in any way. As mill manager, I am in a position to say that I have tried in both these directions and the results that I was able to obtain were highly satisfactory. In the Khatau Makanji mills where I was manager, I increased successfully not only spindle efficiency, but the number of spindles per spinner were also increased. There was no disaffection, however, and the departmental head and his jobbers who first opposed the change, finally appreciated and welcomed it.

In what the Tariff Board say regarding corresponding improvement in the standard of efficiency of jobbers, they have earned the very best thanks of the workpeople. But their last observation that greater facilities for technical education should be provided for jobbers is as unsound as it is useless. As a rule, so far as technical education is concerned, an average jobber knows much more than his departmental head. In my own experience I have found that so far as departmental practice is concerned, the technical knowledge of jobbers, particularly in the carding and spinning departments, is of a very high order and I have known technically trained students who take charge as departmental assistants to receive their lessons in departmental practice from these jobbers. What is wanted, however, is not a knowledge of the departmental technique but of departmental organization. I have already referred to this great drawback. It is in this direction that a jobber needs necessary inspiration from his departmental head. As a matter of fact, the latter is paid for that. But as the matters now are, few departmental heads have any inspiration to offer to their jobbers, and the latter are so much accustomed to the present jobber-like mode of working the departments that fewer still amongst them have any of such inspiration to draw from their departmental heads.

113. Indian workers are efficient or inefficient just in proportion as Indian mill managers and departmental heads are efficient or otherwise. I have often made this statement, but it has not been palatable to a class of officials who have been a burden on the industry. It is strange, however, that even a class of millowners find it very difficult to swallow this statement. But the very fact that the figures of production in different mills, working under almost identical conditions, are at variance, shows that there is something inherently wrong with the efficiency of Indian mills and something wrong with those too who refuse to believe it. I expressed my views on this subject as embodied in my lecture on "Reorganization." These I beg to reproduce below from pp. 15-16 of its printed copy :-

"Coming nearer home, what do we find in case of efficiency? This only a comparative study of figures can tell. While we have in our mills a larger number of operatives employed than in Lancashire or in Japan giving us a smaller production, our own figures of production at home are so erratic and incoherent as directly to reflect on our ability to look after our several departments. I have been able to collect figures from as many as 29 mills in Bombay, and the comparison that I have made therefrom is both interesting and instructive. Of these 29 mills, I have rejected 14 mills because they do not stand a proper comparison for several reasons. Of the 15 mills I have selected, I group the first three under class 'A,' six under class 'B' and six under class 'C.' I may say that in nine out of these 15 mills, the cotton used, though not the same, is practically of the same class, the counts spun are from an average of 22s to 24s with one exception where the average count spun is 18s and with another exception where it is 29s. At the same time, as far as possible, I have tried to find out the age of the machinery in each case and I am satisfied that in none of these nine mills the production could be affected on that count. My figures for the first two groups are as under :-

*Group 'A.'*

No. 1 mill	20s spindle	average	6.89 oz.
No. 2	" "	" "	6.33 "
No. 3	" "	" "	6.09 "

The general average for group 'A' is thus 6.31 oz. (in 20s converted) per spindle.

*Group 'B.'*

No. 4 mill	20s spindle	average	5.73 oz.
No. 5	" "	" "	5.64 "
No. 6	" "	" "	5.61 "
No. 7	" "	" "	5.33 "
No. 8	" "	" "	5.19 "
No. 9	" "	" "	5.04 "

The general average for group 'B' is thus 5.42 oz. (in 20s converted) per spindle . . . The difference in efficiency between the first and the ninth mills is 36.70 per cent. . . . whereas the difference between the first best and the fifteenth is 48.19 per cent. We may leave out of consideration the last six mills as the particulars both of cotton and of counts are not identical nor very near identical.

"To see what all this means in rupees, annas and pies, we shall assume that each of the two mills, or rather the groups of mills, are spinning 12,000 pounds of yarn and weaving 10,000 pounds of cloth per day. First let us take spinning. We see here that for what it costs the one mill to spin 6.31 oz. the other spins for the same cost 5.42 oz. Leaving out the price of cotton and taking the average spinning cost for 20s at 9 pies per spindle the other mill would be running (30,460 spindles for the first and 35,443 spindles for the other) 4,983 spindles more to work up its production. 4,983 spindles at 9 pies each per day would mean 233 rupees odd per day, that is, Rs. 71,531 per year. And if we take the first mill in the first group with the ninth mill in the second group we find that the second mill has to run (38,095-27,866) 10,229 spindles more to make up its production. These at 9 pies per spindle per day would cost Rs. 480 per day or Rs. 147,360 per year for spinning efficiency alone . . .

" . . . In other words, because some screws are loose here and there in your departments each of the mills in the second group is burdened with an average dead loss of over a lac and 50,000 rupees every year. And all this for the sake of inefficiency as compared with the efficiency of a few of our good mills and not as compared with the efficiency of mills in Lancashire or in Japan. The moral of the whole comparison is that the words 'Efficiency' and 'Inefficiency' are so loosely used in our everyday transactions that it is not possible to give any serious attention to this question unless we see its effect in rupees, annas and pies."

While drawing attention to these facts and figures, I offered some observations of a general nature on this subject which I beg to reproduce here from pp. 11-12 of the said printed copy:—

"To me for one, it appears that the more we go into the question of efficiency the more do we feel condemned in our own eyes. The Indian textile industry is not an infant industry. It is an industry which is three generations old. And to our greatest discredit, let me assure you that during all these 75 years our progress as mill officers is practically nil. There may be a few honourable exceptions but as you know exceptions do not form a rule. Our carding and spinning masters will be interested to know that ever since 1858 the number of men that were employed for 1,000 spindles in our spinning rooms was 12-14. Even today it is about 12. In some cases, it is 9-10, but in others it is 13-14, and in one case I know the number of men per 1,000 spindles is 17.7. This is the net result of our progress during the past 75 years. Now let us see how they stand in other countries. Mind you, the figures I give you here are not of my own compilation. I take them as published in Prince Kropotkin's excellent book, 'The Fields, Factories and Workshops.' Take the case of Germany. In 1861, she engaged 20 operatives for 1,000 spindles; India in that same year, engaged 12-14. Today Germany has brought down her old figure of 20 to less than 6, whereas we are standing where we were in our great-grandfathers' time. Take the case of England, the home of spinning industry. In 1831, that is, very nearly a hundred years ago when her spinning industry was in an exceptionally infant stage, England had only 7 operatives for 1,000 spindles and today it is less than 3. And in the United States of America, we find that one girl tended 896 spindles in 1905, and today she is tending 1,200 spindles. And amongst the less important countries of Europe the figures for Switzerland and Bavaria are from 6-7 per 1,000 spindles, and for Alsace and France about 9.5.

"Similarly, a weaver in Bombay manages 2 looms as a rule, as against 4 ordinary or 8-12 automatic looms in Lancashire. In the United States of America a girl weaver manages as many as 20 to 24 automatic looms. Whatever it may be in other countries, it appears that India is destined not to have automatic looms. And why? The secret is that if India had automatic looms, these would run automatically, but the rest of the things would not go on here as automatically as they are doing now. It means that we want to take the least trouble possible in discharging our responsible functions. Let alone the automatic looms, but to let a weaver work 4 ordinary looms, besides his looms being kept in first-class condition, he must be supplied with faultless beams from the sizing; to get the faultless beams from the sizing, the winding and warping departments would call for AI superintendence, etc., etc., but who is to do it? In his evidence before the Tariff Board Inquiry Committee, Mr. P. A. Baptist referred to the opinion of men coming from England who said that in England the weavers would absolutely refuse to work

a loom which is worked by an Indian weaver. Mr. G. Findlay Shirras, an ex-director of labour, in his evidence before the same body declared that an Indian weaver was not at all a bad weaver, and that he could get the same efficiency as was customary in Lancashire.

114. (i) In my opinion, migration of workers should not affect the efficiency to any appreciable extent. The department would, however, have to take great care in selecting "budlies" (substitutes) from the right stock. As a rule, spinners are more steady in their attendance and even while some of them are absent, jobbers use greater discretion in their selection than they do in case of doffer boys and others. The raw hands are, in the first instance, engaged as doffer boys or coolies and it is only when they have received a certain amount of training that they can expect to work as spinners. Dofing is always considered, by the way, an unimportant piece of departmental work and the slackness in this particular direction is often of a most scandalous nature. If departmental supervision is thoroughly systematic, the doffing would generally help to add to the departmental efficiency. A doffer has to learn only a few lessons which he can do satisfactorily within a short time. But that seems to be nobody's concern in a very large number of mills and when the production is low, it is very convenient to say that Indian labour is inefficient.

(iv) *Comparative efficiency of management.*—I have referred to this in several places in this statement as also in my reply to paragraph 113 above under "Industrial efficiency of workers," and under paragraph 116 below. My conclusions on the subject are that when management in Bombay mills will be as efficient as it should be, most of the present troubles will soon disappear.

115. Effects on production due to various causes including hours of work, housing conditions, dietary, piecework, etc. I have discussed generally each under a different heading in this statement.

(ix) Drunkenness is a general vice amongst the workpeople which cannot be denied. I have made very careful inquiries from a number of liquor shop keepers having their shops in mill areas, and in localities inhabited by the workpeople and I am told that the sale of liquor for the first two days following the wages payment is about four times its normal sale. This shows that though drunkenness, as a vice, exists amongst the workpeople they are not addicted to it so as to be condemned altogether. At the present moment, they are not provided with necessary amenities of life and they find in liquor shops, for two days in a month, an agreeableness which they would otherwise shun.

The result of the inquiry I have above referred to leads to confirm their being over head and ears in debt. It appears that after paying off their sundry creditors, what little remains with them, they spend in drinking, and then once again for the whole month, or at least till such time as they get their advances against their wages, they go on incurring fresh debts.

When I am here referring to the vice of drunkenness, perhaps some will come forward to argue that if the workpeople are paid fortnightly or weekly instead of their being paid monthly, as is now done, they will go on drinking every week or fortnight and thus they will squander more money in drinking than what they are doing now. I beg to submit that such argument should have no weight at all, for the very fact that if the workpeople wanted to drink more frequently and squander more money and involve themselves into a greater indebtedness, there is nothing to stop them now. As one who has very carefully studied their mode of life, I am in a position to say that instead of this vice being encouraged by their getting short period payments, they will on the other hand, learn better how to adjust their weekly or fortnightly budget, they will have fewer creditors to attend to and hence they will be better workmen than they now are. I may also say that moneylenders of all descriptions including their official bankers will be simply too pleased and ready to give them larger loans at a higher rate of interest if these workpeople wanted to drink more in their present situation. There is another outstanding fact in their favour and it is this that even now, besides getting their monthly wages, when a large majority of them receive from their mills advances against their wages on payment of interest, they never think of going to the liquor shops. This interim payment is as good as a fortnightly payment, only with this difference, that under a system of fortnightly wages payment, they would receive payment by their own right, whereas now they get it on sufferance. If the payment of advances is not objectionable, there could be no possible objection to a regular payment of wages weekly or fortnightly.

With regard to the effects of drunkenness on efficiency, I beg to submit that a habit, temporary or habitual, is not at all a virtue and the millowners should do their best to reclaim them by providing sufficient amenities of life. If this vice has any

effect on the departmental efficiency, it must be almost imperceptible as can be seen and verified from departmental figures of production for these particular days.

116. The whole secret of efficiency lies in an employer's ability to choose men who will fit the places and who are prepared to carry out the entire programme of administrative work without attempting to shirk from it. At the same time, besides administrative methods, materials play no mean part in bringing the efficiency to its highest point. Needless to say, however, that the best of methods and the best of materials will be of little use if personal efficiency is lacking in one or more of its different compartments.

So long as no attention is paid to the various methods of time study, so long as departmental organization remains in a languishing state, so long as steps are not taken to introduce rational methods in the whole system of administration, so long shall inefficiency continue to eat away the industry in its very foundations.

If it is recognised that labour efficiency must go hand in hand with administrative efficiency, if it is further recognised that a larger and better production must depend as much on labour efficiency as on administrative efficiency, then the old traditional management under which the workpeople are regarded as mere wage earners and under which the employer's will is the only code of administrative rules must necessarily die and from its ashes must rise a system of management under which workpeople and every member of the staff will be regarded as so many partners in the industry. No one needs to be frightened. When I say, partners in the industry, I do not mean the profit-and-loss sharing partners, but partners who will share industry's progress, prosperity and goodwill.

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Messrs. CHICHGAR & CO., GOVERNMENT SHIPPING BROKERS, BOMBAY.

#### Recruitment.

5. The existing practice for recruitment of seamen till July, 1929, was that all the serangs in dock and engine department were sent to the respective officer and chief engineer of a ship for their selection. The serangs so selected were instructed to make up their full complement of crew for approval by the officer and engineer respectively. If any serangs were unable to obtain a complete crew, they used to seek our help for a further supply of men. The whole crew were accordingly sent on board, or at times at the shipping office, to put them in the articles of agreement. Before they signed articles they underwent medical examination either by the ship's surgeon or a doctor of shipping companies from shore. If any men were found unfit for employment the doctor would reject them and the serangs would look upon us for supplying men in place of those rejected.

After signing articles the crew received a month's advance and in the event of a ship sailing on coast port half advance from us in the presence of the shipping master or his representative. They were again taken on board by us, on the day of ship's sailing, with their kit from their quarters after undergoing the usual disinfection and medical examination. It does happen that some members of the crew are rejected by the port health officer at the time of disinfection and also at the time of ship's sailing and we accordingly, through the help of runners (our paid servants), replace these men and complete the crew at the last moment.

Since July, 1929, Government have appointed a special officer for recruitment of seamen.

Whilst the P. & O. and British India recruit their own men, the other companies obtain their crews from the shipping office through the special officer appointed by Government lately. Ever since the substitution of a special recruiting officer we have no hand in the recruitment of crews.

*Suggestion.*—The recruitment of seamen in Bombay is at present in the hands of the special officer appointed lately and we are unable to suggest any suggestion until the new practice is given a fair trial.

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Dr. CLIFFORD MANSARDT, DIRECTOR, THE NAGPADA NEIGHBOURHOOD HOUSE, BYCULLA, BOMBAY.

#### I.—Recruitment.

3. (i) The existing method of recruiting labour in Bombay is largely through the jobber, a system which though securing labour, leads to various abuses, such as petty graft and jobber control over the outside life of the labourer. The system from the social welfare point of view can scarce be regarded as satisfactory.



(ii) It would seem that there must be opportunity for the direct access of the labourer to the controller of the post in which he seeks employment. An employment manager, personnel officer or welfare worker charged with both the employing and the welfare of the employees will quite likely lead to improvement.

(iii) The Nagpada Neighbourhood House, in connection with its family service, has dealt with several thousand cases of unemployment. It is our conviction that the problem can only be dealt with through a system of public employment agencies as against isolated individual attempts. An individual agency finds it difficult to make sufficient contacts to be of the highest service, and on the other hand often finds itself to be in the position of not having enough men on hand to meet a hurry up call for labour. Were public agencies established, both of these problems would be met, as well as the further important matter of being in touch with the whole labour situation instead of but parts of it.

I would be in favour of establishing local agencies in the industrial areas, all of which would be under the direction of the Government Labour Office, which office would make its contacts with the employers, study the entire situation, and instruct the local offices as to the number of men and type of men needed. A co-ordinated system of offices might prevent the running back and forth between mills that increases the labour turnover at present. The Government Labour Office would also be charged with equalizing the supply and demand in various industrial centres, as well as recommending public works when the situation seemed to demand.

#### V.—Welfare.

34. (b) For the past two and a half years the Nagpada Neighbourhood House has been carrying on welfare work in one of the most congested regions of Bombay, viz., Second Nagpada, Byculla. We have found the people ready to respond and appreciative of the opportunities provided for education, recreation and for improving the public health. It is our opinion that Bombay presents an almost unlimited field for constructive welfare work.

### THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY WOMEN'S COUNCIL.

#### A.—Introductory.

A certain amount of welfare work is carried on in the city of Bombay: (1) by employers; (2) by other agencies.

1. Special welfare activities form part of welfare schemes carried on by (i) the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute (which is working for the mill-hands of a group of seven mills. It has four centres of work); (ii) Messrs. Tata, Ltd.; (iii) E. D. Sassoon & Co., Ltd.

Welfare activities comprise of one or more of the following: (i) a creche; (ii) primary classes for women; (iii) co-operative credit societies; (iv) sewing and hand-work classes; (v) medical help; (vi) maternity benefits.

In addition to this welfare work, 10 to 12 creches have been started in other mills for the benefit of their women workers.

2. There are other voluntary agencies such as (i) Mahila Mandal (the women's branch of the social service league), and the Bombay Workmen's Institute, that are carrying on medical relief and educational work among the working-class women in Parel; (ii) the Y.W.C.A. is also working among the women at Naigaum; (iii) the Seva Mandir is another centre which is doing welfare work for the women in Tardeo.

#### B.—The Housing Problem in the District of Tardeo.

*Observations under Seva Mandir.*—Our knowledge of the housing conditions in the district of Tardeo is limited. Here we shall only state those facts which we have collected through the inhabitants or through our own observation of six or eight chawls (tenements), we come in contact with almost daily, due to our social service centre in that district. The dwelling places occupied by the wage-earning classes are of four types: (i) chawls owned by private individuals; (ii) chawls provided by the employers; (iii) chawls provided by the B.B. & C.I. Railway Company, with somewhat modern structure; (iv) tin sheds—the plots owned by the landlords.

Maneckjee Petit Mills which is in the district where we do our social work, provides 13 chawls with 400 rooms for their workers. The total number of workers at this mill is about 4,050. We are in touch with only one of these thirteen chawls provided by the employers.

There is no building provided by Government in our district, but there are four chawls provided by the B.B. & C.I. Railway Company, and the rest are owned by the private owners.

*Nature of Accommodation provided by the Employers.*—Through the studies of the chawls of the employers, we can say in general that the housing condition of these labourers is very unsatisfactory. One room is provided to each family which is not big enough for our joint family system. Also the members are allowed to sublet their rooms, to keep boarders even in the passages, on verandahs and also they build a shelf in the passage where people rest during the night. Very often one family has 14 to 15 boarders in such a small room. The mill authorities officially allows four to five members in one room, but this rule is not strictly observed.

*Chawls owned by Private Individuals.*—There seem a considerable contrast between chawls provided by the employers and private individuals. In the first case, the advantage is of the rent, which is practically half of that of the private owners. Also the rooms are better lighted and better ventilated because of the verandahs in the front. The employers' chawls also provide "Mori" (washing-place) in the room for the purpose of washing and bathing, which is a very great help to the women folk, especially at the time of sickness and delivery. Also a garbage can is provided to collect the rubbish, and we do not see open drainage in between two chawls. The above-mentioned facilities are not found in the chawls owned by private individuals. The private chawls are absolutely inadequate to meet the demand of the workers. The rooms are small, dark and stuffy. The greatest disadvantage is that they have no "Mories" (washing places), or no place even to throw water while cooking. We know of some cases where a temporary shed was put up in front of the room to wash a newly-born baby. Every kind of household washing is done in the front of the room, where the water collects. There are taps provided at the end of each story, but there is no facility in the room. There is more of sub-letting as they are free from restrictions regarding subletting, cleanliness and sanitation.

*Result on Health.*—The result of such housing on the health of the workers is detrimental. The over-crowding in the room, effects health and morals. There is no satisfactory arrangement as regards latrines, drainage, or cleanliness on the whole, either in the chawls provided by the employers or by the private landlords. There are still some latrines where there is no flush system. Also the complaints regarding bad drainage, broken pipes, etc., are not attended to by the people in charge. The Mukhadams or Bhaiyas who are supposed to look after the sanitation and see to the regular attendance of the sweepers are very slack in their duties. The result is that there is always a terrible smell in both these types of houses. The old fashioned latrines should be at once replaced by the new ones. During the monsoon, the water leaks from the roof in some cases. The ground being uneven, the water collects during the monsoon. This results in malaria and many other diseases.

*Nature of Accommodation in Tin Sheds.*—The tin sheds are occupied by the depressed classes. These are level with the streets, and are not high enough for a person to stand erect. These tins are fitted together by stones, etc., and men, children chickens and goats are herded together as one family. Each big shed is divided by cloth drapings into four or six rooms, occupied by four to six families. There is no light, or ventilation, and such huts are absolutely unsuited for any human habitation. These huts are in existence for the last so many years. There are no taps, no latrines, no water supply, and the habitants have to go a long way for their respective needs. They have no baths for days and days, and we see the children covered with dirt, playing in mud by the side of the goats and chickens. During the summer the tins are too hot in the afternoons so the inhabitants are found sitting on the roadside in the shade. Very little need be said in such circumstances regarding the result on health and morals. Just close to these huts, there are buffalo stables which has bad effect on the health of the people.

*Utilization by the Workers of the Housing Accommodation available.*—There are no Improvement Trust chawls in our district, but the chawls provided by the employers are gladly utilized and appreciated by the workers; but such chawls are very few in number.

*Rent Rates.*—There is a considerable difference in rents of the employers' chawls and those of the private owners. The employers charge about Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-8 annas per room while they vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8.

The system of the rent in these tin sheds is very complicated. A man who owns a piece of land has given a contract for a certain sum, to another man who lives in the neighbourhood. This man has again given a contract to the Bhaiya, who charges about Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per shed to the inhabitants who sublet their rooms to others.

*Problem of Subletting.*—This problem is very difficult in labour classes. Often the men-folk come to Bombay from the villages and have no homes. They come and stay with their relatives and pay some money for board and lodging. The head man of the family who is directly paying the rent for the chawls provided by the employer, is not employed elsewhere, but many others in his family and the boarders, who take advantage of these chawls are not necessarily working at the same mill or factory.

*Effect on Morals.*—The present housing system leads to overcrowding and lack of privacy. The family life hence becomes very difficult, and all the activities of the home life are impeded. One great disadvantage is that many of the men-folk do not bring their wives and children to Bombay for want of room, and hence the men lead an immoral life. Often a man lives with another woman as his wife, and everything results in misery. Also when a mother is expecting a baby, she gives birth to a child in the same room where there are big grown up boys and girls. At night all men, women and children sleep together. Often a newly married couple get half of the room separated by a piece of cloth.

There are also common latrines for men and women which also has a bad result on morals.

*Improvement suggested.*—The workers should have at least two rooms with two windows and a little space in the front. There should be one "mori" in each room. Also the system of subletting should be entirely abolished. The flooring in the room should be of stone pavement and not of mud as it is at present. There should be separate latrines for men and women, and more than one tap on each floor. Garbage cans should not only be provided, but it should be seen that they are used. The supervision of the Mukhadams and Bhaiyas should be regular and strict. The municipality should take more interest, and better care of such existing huts, sheds, and chawls. The people in charge, e.g., Mukhadams, are very neglectful to the complaints of the workers. The sweepers should attend more regularly than they have been.

*Tin Sheds.*—It is impossible to improve upon the tin sheds in any way, and the only alternative suggestion that could be made is that the municipal authority should never allow such huts to be erected, and should see to it that the existing ones are demolished as early as possible.

*Conclusion.*—This is our general observation about the housing conditions in the locality of Tardeo, where we conduct our work under Seva-Mandir. Our institution has been in existence for the last three years only, but we have done our best to help and uplift the cause of the workers. We have often taken women to the hospitals for their confinements and other sicknesses, for the very reason of bad housing. We have given free medical help to many women and children at our clinic. To take away children from the bad housing conditions, we have organized play centres for boys and girls in the evenings. We also have given health talks in the chawls and at our centre to women. There is also a nursery school at our centre for the children, who will otherwise be in the streets. Many girls and boys are taken to the municipal schools by our workers. The grown-up girls and women come to us daily for educational and social purposes.

Thus we in our small way are trying to help the cause of the needy and the poor, yet such private social agencies can do very little, till the very homes of our people are not what they should be.

### C.—Naigaum Social Service Centre.

Naigaum is a mill area district, consisting of 42 chawls built by the Bombay Development Department and is situated in the north of the island about seven miles from the centre of Bombay.

This district is surrounded by few Kohinoor mill chawls, Spring mill chawls, seven tin sheds and one or two old chawls. There are four or five textile mills near this district and quite a number of mill hands who work in these mills will be found living in Naigaum chawls.

A social service centre is opened in one of the B.D.D. chawls, especially to do welfare work among women and children. The centre is not strictly restricted to people living in the Naigaum chawls, but is open to everyone living in other chawls round about or near in other districts. This type of industrial work is done educationally, medically and socially.

(i) *Education.*—Nursery school is started to help the children of those mothers who work the whole day long in the mills. But on account of the recent riots and strike, quite a number of families have left for their villages, and its difficult to find enough children of these mothers who are actually working in the mills, to keep the school open for the whole day during mill hours. But there is a school where children,

both of mothers who are working in the mills and of mothers who stay at home come, and a trained teacher is in charge of the school, which is open from 10 a.m., to 12 p.m., and from 1 p.m. to 4 p.m.

The average number of attendance is between 20 and 25. The number is limited to 30 because there is no room to hold more than 30 children. The children first learn cleanliness. The method of teaching is on kindergarten lines.

*School for Married Women and Young Girls.*—This school is open daily for two hours. Married women and young girls who have very little chance of keeping up their reading and writing, on account of household duties and various other difficulties in the family, are encouraged to attend the school. Some of them are quite beginners. Lot of house to house visiting is done to help the women to realize the importance of education.

Some of them are willing to come but their mothers-in-law don't permit them to step out of the doors. Some feel they are married and have children and its too late to begin to go to school, but in spite of all these difficulties and barriers in the way, the average attendance daily is between 15 and 18.

Individual attention is given to each woman and the teaching is done in a most friendly way to suit the time and satisfy the needs of the women and girls. A trained teacher is employed to teach these pupils. They are also given extra lessons on geography and current events twice a week.

These are the two different kinds of educational work done in the centre. The nursery school needs a creche attached to it. The bigger children are asked to look after the smaller ones while the mothers are away in the mills. Therefore the bigger children are not in a position to go to the nursery school. Unless a creche is provided, this will not be successful. This is not possible to do for want of money.

Even though Naigaum area is a compulsory school educational area, it is not possible to conduct regular schools on account of lack of teachers and social workers to go round, encourage the parent and collect children. There are other attractions which must be provided, as for instance, gramophones, musical instruments, etc.

(ii) *Medical.*—A medical clinic is opened twice a week under the guidance of a well-known lady doctor in Bombay. The women, at first did not realize the necessity of taking any medicine to cure themselves from any illness. House to house visiting is done and new patients are encouraged to take the advantage of the clinic. The average number is between 25 and 30. In case of serious illness and special attendance, they are taken personally to King Edward Memorial Hospital, Wadia Maternity Hospital and Cama Hospital.

It is essential to ~~as~~ provide wide in each area several aids in the direction of medical assistance. Special sanitary officers should be appointed to look after the chawls. In addition there is a need of highly trained medical officers for every large mill.

(iii) *Social.*—Visiting the families is done as often as possible in the chawls in order to get the first hand information of the life of families, their economic conditions and various other difficulties.

Unemployment is found to be one of their chief problems lately. Though there is no machinery for labour exchange in Naigaum, still by keeping in touch with various social welfare agencies, they are helped more or less in getting employment or advice, but it is not very successful to find jobs for all those who come to the centre seeking employment.

*Lantern Lectures* on health are given and slides are shown on mosquitoes, flies, tuberculosis, etc., to teach them the importance of good health and hygiene.

In *Domestic Science* classes, the women learn cooking and preparing children's food, washing babies, etc., by actual demonstration.

*Sewing Classes* are held once a week for these women who sew garments either for themselves or for their children. Some of the women can't hold the needle properly, but they are learning gradually.

*Four Evening Clubs for Girls and one Sewing Class for Children* are held three times a week. The chief aim is to build up their character, to teach them discipline and cleanliness. In their clubs they have drill, story telling, games, gardening, singing, etc. They also do some handwork and sewing.

Just lately a Blue Bird Company is started under a trained leader once a week. The boys requested to have a sewing class for themselves, and their request is granted by holding a class for them once a week.

Volunteer workers who are interested in this type of social work, render their services in helping with the various activities at the Naigaum centre in charge of two permanent social workers.

The Naigaum centre is open to all without any distinction of caste or creed. The work is growing and needs encouragement and support from various directions. If adequate attention is to be given to the needs of the people in the mill area, we need assistance from :—(a) The Government in the direction of special grants to social service agencies, allowance being made for a great deal of experiments ; (b) the municipality in increasing the number of sanitary officials and social workers ; (c) the millowners in constructing creches, school buildings and in making liberal grants to the social service agencies. For after all, we are taking care of the health of the workers and thus making them more efficient.

#### D.—Concluding Remarks.

Considering the fact that there are a little more than 30,000 women workers employed in the textile mills, in the city, the existing welfare work for women touches only a very small number, there are certain things which prevent the working class women to take full advantage of the existing facilities :—(1) General illiterary and ignorance ; (2) conservatism and social customs ; (3) want of time, over and above the 11 hour working day, they have to do the household work, early in the morning and late in the evening.

Some of the following things will help in improving the conditions of work for women :—(1) The working day must be shortened and made a normal 55 hour week, and 10 hour day. (2) Knowledge of elementary laws of health and public hygiene should be first given, through talks and magic lantern slides, posters, etc. (3) At the initial stage of welfare work when one has to figure against ignorance and social custom, the only effective method will be the personal method of work. For this reason millowners should be urged to employ a trained full-time woman welfare worker wherever there are a large number of women working in the mills or factory. (4) There is a great deal of scope for this type of work to be done by voluntary agencies. Wherever they exist they ought to be backed up by millowners whose work-people are benefited by the work. (5) There is already in existence a social training centre for women, carried on by a joint committee of four societies (The University Settlement, Y.W.C.A. and two Missionary Societies). This can very well be utilized in training such women welfare workers as are needed.

Bombay being such a large industrial centre, in our opinion the millowners should be doing more social and welfare work for their employees than at present.

#### E.—Maternity Benefits.

Maternity benefits have become a law since July last, and hence in force since the last three months. But we strongly recommend to make it applicable to the whole of British India instead of only to the Bombay Presidency. Also the Government should be requested to see that the provisions of the Bill are strictly carried out by the parties concerned.

#### F.—Employment of Women in Mines.

Under the Indian Mines Act (1922–1923) the Government of India have the power to prohibit the employment of women in mines (underground). We recommend strict abolition of this pernicious system of employing women underground, as it tends to the physical and mental deterioration, and to a large extent, to the moral ruin of women workers. Women are employed in mines because they receive less wages than men.

#### G.—Factory Inspection.

A speedy increase in the inspectorial staff in the factories is urgent. We recommend that at least one factory inspectress be employed in each large industrial area.

*Adult Education.*—Adult education is a paramount national necessity. Proper provision should be made for the education and recreation of the workers, both inside and outside the mills in each industrial area. Besides education in the three R's, there should be education to the eye, e.g., cinema and magic lantern shows on hygiene, sanitation, improved methods of doing their work in factories, and evils of drinking, gambling, etc.

We also recommend that the law with regard to child labour should be safeguarded, so as to protect their future health and well-being. Indian workmen should receive better treatment than they receive now, e.g., decent living wages, better housing, etc.

Mr. TAROKNATH K. RAY-CHOWDHURY, MEMBER, INDIAN STATES PEOPLES' CONFERENCE, BOMBAY.

I tender my evidence from my several years' personal experience of Indian States. I was an official in Marwar State and an assistant engineer, P.W.D. employing a large labour force in Mewar State, both in Rajputana.

I was recently an officer in the Agriculture Department of Gwalior State, C.I., in which capacity one of my duties was to tour in British India for indirectly studying labour conditions and attracting men who have small or no lands, and such ex-agriculturists who are working in factories as well as unemployed men and ex-emigrants from the colonies to take up lands in the Gwalior State, where out of 62 per cent. of culturable lands only 32 per cent. is cultivated. I have travelled in this connection in many cities and towns of the Presidencies of Bombay and Bengal and the Province of the Punjab. I have also travelled privately in Rajputana, the United Provinces and Central Provinces. My mission had a good connection with labour in British India as compared with that in an Indian State. I can speak authoritatively on the effect of labour in British India in reference to labour conditions of Rajputana and Central India and on the subjects of origin of labour, administration and intelligence from the schedules issued by you. I do not tender my evidence from or on behalf of any Indian State or its people.

1. *Origin of Labour.*—Of the total population of 318,942,480 of India according to the census of 1921, 247,003,293 belong to the British Provinces and 71,223,218 to Indian States, i.e., nearly one-fourth of the total population of India is contributed by Indian States. Seventy-three per cent. of the population of India is agricultural; the industries having 10 per cent.; trade, 6 per cent.; transport, 2 per cent.; and organized labour, 1 per cent.

This one-fourth population of Indian States has its proportionate effect on the rest of the three-fourths of the population of India in respect of the origin of labour in India as a whole. Before the advent of British rule in India, India was mainly an agricultural country, and though there were industries like manual spinning of silk and cotton, etc., there were no factories and organized industries and labour as are growing to-day. The labour required for these organized industries has its major source in the agricultural population of India. Though the population of India has very slightly increased, yet taking into consideration epidemics, famines and emigration and the enlistment in the army and various services which absorb the increase, I can safely say that the major source of labour for organized industries is the peasantry of India. I also arrive at this conclusion from the steady falling down of villages in Indian States and rapid growth of industrial centres. In the State of Gwalior, of which I have personal experience, I have calculated that the areas of cultivated and culturable lands are decreasing for the past years at the rate of nearly 2 per cent. In the absence of statistics, I could not tell you the percentage of decrease in village population of Indian States, but from the stream of migration from these villages to industrial towns in search of employment, which I have personally seen, I am definitely of opinion that a proportion of labour of industrial centres is derived from the agricultural villages of Indian States. In the State of Gwalior a large number of villages have become entirely uninhabited and desolate. In the State, the density of population in 1911 was 124, in 1921 it had fallen down to 121. The forthcoming census would perhaps reveal a further fall.

Men from the Gwalior State have been recorded in the census report of 1921 to be going to the Assam plantations.

When I was in Savantwadi State, in the Bombay Presidency last year, I found thousands of people returning to their villages in that State for a recess during the strike. The main cause of migration in the State and Kolhapur, where I have enquired personally, is the scarcity of cultivable land and increased land revenue.

— (ii) *Causes of particular Streams of Migration.*—Some of the causes of this particular migration from the Indian States of Rajputana and Central India to British India are: (1) The increased assessment of land revenue; (2) neglect of improvement in agricultural methods by the State administrations; (3) neglect of improvement of agriculture in States by irrigation and co-operation as compared with British India; (4) the scientific agriculture and aid of co-operative societies to agriculturists in British India, who produce more at less cost and less labour than States peasants and thus under-sell their produce; (5) the consequent poverty of States peasants; (6) the earning of fixed wages at factories, railways, plantations, etc., in British India; and (7) the better government, liberty, organization, better wages, scope for improvement and amenities of life in British India, which are not available in Indian States.

137. *Effect of Difference in Law in Indian States and British India.*—No labour legislation in India would be useful for India as a whole and for the world in general if all the states are not made to enforce the broad international principles of the same. The difference between labour laws of Indian States and British India would produce discontent and there would be unhealthy competition and constant movement of labour from the one to the other. Factories established in Indian States with sweated labour at starvation wages working for 22 hours a day, would ruin factories in British India working for a restricted day. Indian States would then continue to be a menace to economic factory production in British India and to international civilization. When Britain is trying through the League of Nations for the notification of International Labour Conventions in foreign countries, they should at least get them notified in their own Indian States. A natural India cannot be divided into two artificial Indias—one to be civilized and progressive and the other uncivilized and backward. Whatever progress is made for the amelioration of labour conditions in India, the same would be incomplete, if Indian States with their one-fourth of the population of India, are not allowed as equal partners. Little improvement can be done to labour in Indian States if the States do not progress with their political administrations in uniformity with British India. The Indian States are in subordinate co-operation to British India only when the sovereign power deems the same to be to its advantage. Whatever progress British India has done is due to British civilization and the British could have done the same for the progress of civilization in Indian States if they had not neglected their duty to 71,000,000 of their subjects. Two years back the Rt. Hon. Sir V. S. Shastri said in a speech in South Africa that the cause of India's slow progress is the Indian States. These 71,000,000 of suppressed people of India are like a heavy stone chained to the leg of British India. So long as the labour administrations of British India and Indian States are not of the same type, India cannot progress and she will grow to be a constant menace to world civilization, which is bound to react on Great Britain. the Empire and the world.

My remarks, though general, do not apply to progressive states like which are exceptional.

The Indian States have pledged themselves to co-operate in Imperial. Modern labour problems are not only imperial but international. The state be glad to co-operate with the suzerain power in this matter only if the invites them sincerely to co-ordinate.

## THE SHOLAPUR BRANCH OF THE BOMBAY TEXTILE LABOUR UNION

### II.—Staff Organisation.

11, 12 and 13. We believe no system is being observed by the management in training and promoting workmen to higher posts. Invariably claims of workers who have put in long services and know of the departmental work more than any new recruit, have been set aside only because he happens to be not in the favour of the superiors. Favouritism is the only qualification that is required for a workman for promotion and even the management do not care to see how far the claims of workers of long standing have been superseded. Blacklegs are sure to be appointed to higher posts. In making appointment to superior posts, no heed is paid to the capacity of the workers themselves. It is a great misfortune that the millowners are dependent upon the so-called efficient blacklegs, who proved useful at the time of strikes without looking to their efficiency.

### III.—Housing.

16. All the mills provide housing for their employees and nearly 12 per cent. of them take advantage of it. Government has not done anything in this direction and the remaining number of the operatives, nearly 80 per cent. have been accommodated at the housings provided for by private landlords and the housing conditions of those are certainly not fair.

17. Though there are many possibilities to acquire suitable land for the use of workers, efforts have not been made so far in this direction either by the local Government or local bodies. Sholapur is not a congested place like Bombay and Ahmedabad and the housing conditions of the workers can very well be improved if the municipality takes it into its consideration, with the help of the Government.

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18, 19 and 20. Overcrowding in rooms provided for by employers is not uncommon. The rates of the rents in other parts of the town are high and the employers' chawls are more convenient to the workers in respect of low rates and the possibility of attending the mills punctually.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (iii) In some of the mills the supervisors and head-jobbers are so much after exacting work from the employees, that not even a minute's leisure is allowed to them, or if the worker absents himself for unavoidable cause, he is suspended or dismissed; even no time is allowed at times for drinking water or at the nature's call. As regards medical facilities for women no provisions have been made and the one that has been made by the employers by opening dispensaries in the mill premises, are not taken advantage of by women.

26. At work places much scarcity of water is felt. It was one of the grievances of the workers in the last strike, that there were not sufficient water taps, that is, not more than 12 in one mill. It is after the strike that the management made extra provision and the number of taps was increased. The accumulated effect of the scarcity of water and the exaction of work, was, that the workers on many occasions had to go out of the mill premises to take their food where they can get sufficient water. In many cases, too, they had to finish up their meals without having a drop of water to drink. Where there is so much clamour in mill premises, what provision the mills must have done for bathing and washing and to what extent they must have been used by the workers can only be imagined. So far as the question of water supply is concerned, we must say that the Sholapur labour is the most unfortunate in the Bombay Presidency. Sholapur is known for its scarcity of water and the hours for getting it are limited to five in the morning and three in the evening. At home places in nearly 80 per cent. of the cases the water supply is found insufficient for factory workers. We have met with instances in the employers' chawls where the woman has had to be satisfied with only two buckets of water and that too after waiting for two hours. It is a daily scene that female workers wait near the water taps for hours together, in hundreds, and get with great difficulty a little quantity of it.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. So far, we have never come across a case in which the employers were found unable to pay compensation to the workers. But it is desirable that provision be made against possible loss to the workmen by means of compulsory insurance. The Government of India have circulated letters on this question and such influential bodies as the Chamber of Commerce have given their qualified consent to the proposal. When some millowners have actually insured their concerns against possible claims, as they think it desirable, there is no harm to make it compulsory to avoid delay in payment and to ensure safety to the workers.

53. Here again the Act requires some important changes and scales require to be enhanced. We meet with instances where a workmen under a temporary disablement used to get Rs. 2½ as half-monthly compensation. The Government of India, too, seems to be of this opinion that in the cases of more poorly paid workmen, scales of compensation should be raised. In the case of temporary incapacities, whether partial or total, the recommendations of the International Conference should be brought into effect and the rates of compensation should be increased.

#### XII.—Wages.

96 and 97. The wages of Sholapur Textile workers are the lowest possible. For the present we are in possession of only two reports on an enquiry into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry in Bombay Presidency. One held in 1921, and the other in 1923. Report for 1926, is not yet ready and therefore for the subsequent changes in the wages of operatives we have no authoritative information. However, we have here relied mainly on the report of 1923 and from our experience we are sure that since 1923, there are no increases in the wages of the operatives. As regards cost of living, from the report of the Administration of Bombay for 1927-28, it can be seen that since 1923, there was a slight rise, but in 1927 it has come to the same points as in 1923. As for wages, whether of ordinary labour, in rural or urban areas, there are no increases since 1923-24, but decreases to 4 or 5 points. From the experience of the present rates of wages and from the published reports we are sure that the Sholapur workers are the most poorly paid by the most profit making concerns in the whole of India. Operatives

are employed on piece and time work systems. Those in the spinning department, mainly male workers, are time workers; female operatives are mostly employed in reeling and winding departments on piece-work system. The average daily earnings of men, women, big lads and all work people in 1923 report are shown as Re. 1; 6 annas 4 pies; 9 annas 1 pie; 12 annas 9 pies respectively. 98.4 per cent. of women operatives earn from 4 annas to 9 annas a day in any case. From the report of the enquiry into family budgets of Sholapur City, out of 290 women in cotton mill workers, 131 have been shown as earning from Rs. 6 to Rs. 9, and 139 have been shown as earning from Rs. 9 to Rs. 12. We are quoting figures as they appear in reports published by labour office. The defect of the enquiry is that "separate earnings of every individual are not known," that is, we are not in a position to say what a particular individual earned after deductions for fines, forfeiture, or when there was no work given, etc. Wages quoted above are average wages, but in the piece-work system we have instances to show that some pieceworkers, after having put in an average month's attendance, did not even get Rs. 1 or 2. There may not be many examples of such nature, but, taking into consideration the lowest level of wages, it can only be imagined what hardships labour have had to suffer when they are to lose in fines or some such deductions. We have quoted some figures for 1923, but since then changes have taken place in the earnings of the operatives, not for the better but for the worse. The average earnings of operatives in 1921 and 1923 are shown as follows:—

	1921			1923		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Men .. .. .	25	13	9	22	3	10
Women .. .. .	10	15	9	8	9	7
Big lads and children'.. .. .	14	2	0	12	7	11
All work people .. .. .	20	9	4	17	10	6

It will be seen from this table that systematic reduction in wages was made since 1921 to 1923 that is, in the boom period of the mills. The wages of 1921 were raised after the general strike of 1920. Average full-time workers' monthly earnings were Rs. 27 for men, Rs. 12 11 annas for women, Rs. 15 5 3 pies for big lads, and Rs. 21 8 annas 3 pies for all work people. With regard to male operatives the wages of those are also considerably low; men winders were shown to get 9 annas 8 pies per day at Sholapur; the male operatives in spinning departments also got no more than Rs. 16 to Rs. 18 a month. In 1923, table spinners in this department are shown to get 11 annas 1 pie for piecers and 8 annas 2 pies for tarwallas or followers. In this connection comparative tables for Bombay and Ahmedabad will be of great interest. From the study of the tables for 1923 and 1921, it can be seen that no woman gets more than Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 a month, and no male operative more than Rs. 18 to Rs. 20 a month. The disparity in the wages of the male and female workers is nowhere, in other industrial parts, so great as in Sholapur. Figures for 1926 are not available, but those that were provisionally supplied by the labour office to the Fawcett Committee published on page 125 of that report, show that wages of 1923 nearly correspond to wages of 1926. There are no increases in the wages but there must have been decreases. The percentage increase in the wages of weavers to that of spinners comes to 141, that is not the case in other industrial centres such as Ahmedabad and Bombay. Women in Ahmedabad get nearly 50 per cent. more than women at Sholapur. The disparity in the wages of male and female operatives in Sholapur is very great.

As regards movements in wages with regard to cost of living, no information is available to show the relation of wages to the cost of living in recent years. The labour office have tried in 1921 to apply the cost of living index for Bombay to other centres, but they knew their mistake, and in their report for 1923 the officiating director stated that he was not satisfied that the index numbers for Bombay would at all approximate to the other centres. Even in the United States of America the index numbers for different cities vary from 153 to 183 points. Even in official reports such as the *Labour Gazette* no information is available about Sholapur, except retail prices for food articles; even wholesale prices are not given just as for Karachi or Bombay. It will be seen therefore, that there are no statistics to show the relative value of the cost of living of Sholapur to other centres. Even the labour offices had intended to overhaul their system of arriving at the correct cost of living index. As regards the reports of the wages and hours of work that are published by the labour office, we have to suggest that complete information ought to be supplied with separate earnings and the information must not be given on voluntary lines, but it should be made compulsory by enacting a law on the basis of "Statistics Act" prevalent in Dominions and other countries for compulsory collection of statistics.

Sholapur mills are the most profit making cotton mill industries in the whole of India. One mill has made more than 3 crores on a paid-up capital of Rs. 8,00,000 and the share prices are quoted at such a high rate as 4 to 5 times their original value. The other mills also, such as Vishnu and Laxmi, are one of the most "liquid" concerns and their quoted prices also run as far as 5 to 6 times their original value. The profits of the companies are, compared with other mills of the Presidency, most exorbitant. Comparison with Ahmedabad or Bombay, will show that the profits earned by Sholapur mills are greater than what other mills had earned. It is stated that, in Ahmedabad, 48 mills in 1925 made Rs. 50,00,000, 56 mills 2,00,000 in 1926; and 51 mills 4,900,000 in 1927; while in Bombay in 1925, 79 mills are shown as having sustained losses amounting to Rs. 133,00,000; in 1916, 76 mills sustained losses amounting to Rs. 50,00,000, and in 1927, 75 mills have earned profits amounting to Rs. 95,00,000. But in Sholapur it will be found that 4 mills have earned Rs. 35,62,000 in 1925; 25,98,000 in 1926; and 26,61,000 in 1927. These figures are given approximately. We give below a table showing the net profits of mills in Sholapur from 1920 to 1927. These 4 mills absorb nearly 17,000 to 18,000 workers. Only 1 mill, that is Jam, engaging 1,400 to 1,600 hands has been omitted from this table.

Year	Profit in rupees.
1920 .. ..	1,12,09,063.
1921 .. ..	1,51,90,685.
1922 .. ..	1,27,36,231.
1923 .. ..	75,76,815.
1924 .. ..	45,35,812.
1925 .. ..	35,62,370.
1926 .. ..	25,98,996.
1927 .. ..	26,61,511.

The figures of these profits, whether in the boom period or at any other time, will show comparatively the best financial position of the mills compared with others in the Presidency. The lowest scales of wages shown above will speak for themselves.

105. One of the most intricate of the subjects in point of administration is the fixing of minimum wage in industries. The Government of India in reply to the questionnaire issued by the International Labour Office have practically dissented from applying the minimum wage machinery in India. This subject is beset with innumerable difficulties. But it should be remembered that the principle has been applied in Canada, France, Norway, Austria, Rumania, Uruguay, South Africa. The laws in force in those countries vary according to conditions. But the principle has been applied. Secondly, the principle that where workers cannot conclude effective agreements with the employers, the minimum wage principle ought to be applied. For instance, in Sholapur there are more than 2,000 to 3,000 persons engaged in hand-loom industry. They have no organization. Factory Act is not applied to them. Where wages are exceptionally low and the workers disorganized this principle ought to be applied without delay.

106. Sholapur will be undoubtedly ahead of all the industrial centres in respect of fines. Sholapur is well known for its double "Khada" system. For one day's absence two day's absence is marked. Here too, there are 2 systems. One is that the operative even if he turns up for work the other day, is not allowed to work; and the second system which is more harmful is, that the operative works at his tools but forfeits the wages earned on that day. But this is not all. We have met with instances where the workers lose more than they can actually earn for 2 days, for 1 day's absence. Suppose a time-working spinner absented for 1 day without leave. Then he is marked "double Khada". His fixed wages amount to 12 annas per day. According to the ordinary system he is to lose Re. 1 8 annas for 2 days. but in many cases the workers have lost at the rate of Re. 1 or Re. 1 4 annas when he is actually getting 12 annas or less than a rupee per day. This is simply illegal. Apart from these there are suspensions and dismissals. They are left at the discretion of the superior officers. For damaged cloth, for alleged insubordination, or some such other misconduct the superior suspends him for 4 or 5 days. The point in suspending the workman for more than 4 days, is that he, in consequence of his absence, loses his Jwari and Dal concessions. In Sholapur, the workers are given Jwari and Dal for Rs. 2 8 annas, the market price of which comes to Rs. 3 8 annas or Rs. 4. For bad or negligent work dismissals follow. There are no limits with regard to the extent to which fines were inflicted. In some cases the authorities act like criminal courts. An instance in point may be cited. A worker was alleged to have taken away a turban of another workman. The manager of the mill inflicted a fine of Rs. 10,

on the person who was alleged to have committed the theft. The thing stolen was not the mill's property. The manager had no right to inflict such fine at all. It was a criminal case and ought to have been decided by the court and not by the manager. Had the property belonged to the mill there would have been some ground for such deduction. In some cases the authority resting in the manager is simply arbitrary and illegal. The fines thus inflicted are certainly not corrective, but if they are compensatory to a certain extent, they are certainly morally and legally indefensible. In this connection also in 1925, the Government of India addressed letters to the provincial governments and asked for their opinions, whether any action could be taken to effect the wrongs.

107. Workers here are paid their wages in the 3rd week of the 2nd month, and this operates as a calamity to them. He should be paid in the 1st week of the next month at the latest.

As regards unclaimed wages, it is a common practice in Sholapur that they are forfeited, even if the worker attends the mill on pay-day. At times he is not given his wages and is asked to claim them as unclaimed wages in future. For irregular attendance, wages of the operatives are suspended and they are marked as unclaimed wages. Unclaimed wages which are not claimed within a period of six months are forfeited by the rules of the company. With regard to fines, etc., we believe that some action ought to be taken and statutory provision ought to be made on lines of English Truck Act. Even the Fawcett Committee have suggested remedies to the effect that unclaimed wages should be paid to the operative when claimed by him, if he is sufficiently identified, and have approved of Bombay mills rules to the effect that the amount of fine should not exceed in any case 2 per cent. of the operative's earnings. We fully endorse the views expressed by the committee so far as it only relates to unclaimed wages and scales of fines.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

120. Only recently a labour union has been formed at Sholapur on the 5th May, 1928. It is a branch of the Bombay Textile Union. (In the month of March, 1928, owing to the low rate of wages, a strike in the old mill took place and the workers approached some local men. At the time it was thought desirable to ask Mr. N. M. Joshi to come over here and start a labour union under his guidance. Accordingly a branch of the Bombay Textile Labour Union was formed.) Since then the union has been working. The main grievances of the workers for the mill strike were low wages, and bad treatment at the hands of the management. (The executive of the union is solely in the hands of the workers and they manage all the activities of the union. There are no outsiders except one as secretary for the present. The workers understand the importance of the organization but the attitude of the mill owners towards the union movement, and especially their campaign of victimization against those who even remotely stand in better relations with the union, has greatly come in our way. At the time of the strike some 8,000 to 10,000 persons had the courage to join the union and to fill in the regular forms, but failure in the strike brought in its turn such a set back to their enthusiasm that not many workers from the mills, where strike ended in favour of employers, have the courage to join the union now. About the attitude of the employers towards the union it is of a purely antagonistic character. So much high-handedness prevails in their attitude while dealing with union questions or grievances that they are blind to their responsibilities as employers, utterly ignorant of their duties towards their employees and even are foreign to social etiquette too. We may cite one instance in point.

*How Mr. N. M. Joshi was Insulted.*—After a normal resumption of work in old mill all the other mills followed suit and the strike continued for some days. The President of the union, Mr. N. M. Joshi, personally came down to Sholapur in order to study the situation, saw the officers of the mills and decided to call off the strike at once. On one occasion when he, along with another respectable gentleman in the city and the local labour leaders, proceeded to see the manager of one mill, the Parsee gentleman asked Mr. Joshi to apologise first for the alleged strong wording of one of the labour leaders without knowing what Mr. Joshi came for, or what he had to say. After a few exchanges of words the gentleman plainly asked Mr. Joshi to walk away. He ought to know that even a king cannot ask others to apologise without giving reasons. We would never have referred to this personal incident had it not been a sure index to show the extent of employers' irresponsibility; but this is not all. His, we may say, was a rustic part, but look at the enlightened side of the attitude. Mr. Joshi thereupon personally interviewed all the managers of the mills and finding that the strike situation would not improve for the better in the interest of the workers, called off the strike on the 10th October, 1928. The very second day workers went to their respective mills to resume their duties, but to the surprise of

all, one and all were refused admission by the four mill managers concerned. Reasons were not assigned for the refusal to admission, but it was reported to us that the managers took objection to some of the remarks of Mr. Joshi, in which he had stated that in order to get strength, we have to accept failures, at times.

121. Sholapur labour have had to tell a long tale about the defects of the Trade Union Act as well as the attitude of the mill-owners towards the labour movement. According to the present Act only registered trade unions are exempt from civil and criminal liabilities. We do not know why this restriction has been imposed upon the free combinations of workers. Question of registration is, we understand, immaterial in other countries and the same liberty ought to be given to the workers in India also. It might be argued that there are no difficulties in getting the unions registered, and it can very easily be done. Yes, to a certain extent it is so. But so long as any combination of workers is carrying activities, without criminal intentions of doing wrong to owner's business, why should that body of persons be under an obligation to have itself registered? Well, further, even if a union is registered what guarantee is there that the registered body will not indulge in activities purely on destructive lines? The whole problem comes to this that if the workers are to be given free rights of combination they must not be under any sort of imposition whatsoever, and must be exempt from civil wrongs which are ordinarily actionable. The principle of the law is that no cause of action lies when a body of persons in the interest of their accomplices only ask them to break their contract. The actual breaking of contract is actionable under the present Act, too. So, when the workers are privileged to work in combinations and to enjoy the rights of civil and criminal exemptions how does it stand to reason that only those unions that are registered are privileged? The principle has been acknowledged that even in ordinary law a doctor or physician is not made liable for civil wrongs who asks his patient in his interest to break the contract with the employer if the doctor finds that by continuing in his contract he is sure to mar his health; so also is the case with a relative who asks his dependent or near relative to break his contract. Moreover, it is not possible under every circumstance to have the combinations registered when they are of temporary nature. If no rights are given to unregistered trade unions the present Indian Trade Union Act is nothing short of an amendment to the Indian Registration Act, and not a declaration of inherent rights of the workers.

*Civil Suits.*—We have dealt with the general principle of the Act above. Coming to a specific instance of the mill-owners' attitude towards the trade union movement and how they take protection under the non-registration of unions, we narrate below the history of the civil suits filed against the Sholapur labour union officials. The case is still before the court, and the issues on which it is being fought are altogether different. Our contention is that the Sholapur union is the branch of the Bombay Textile Labour Union which is registered, and therefore no action lies. Plaintiff's contention is that it is not registered and hence the suit. The matter is sub-judice.

Even though we are barred from entering into the merits of the case extensively, we take the opportunity of presenting the only aspect prominently brought forth only so far as it reflects upon the attitude of the mill-owners' towards the trade union movement. Four mills have joined as plaintiffs, claiming Rs. 25,000 as damages, they have sustained owing to our activities, picketing, etc., as they have put it in their plaint. In their plaint they have stated that they have sustained incalculable damages but as the defendants are not men of means they have brought down the figure to Rs. 25,000. We have mentioned this incident only to show the nature of the suit. Is it a suit of civil nature or a suit of vexatious nature? If they have sustained losses amounting to lakhs, why should they not proceed to recover all? If they cannot recover a substantial sum, why should they be satisfied with only a nominal sum of Rs. 25,000? From the very nature of the suit, it is manifest that the suit is for harassment and for nothing else. Further, to recover that sum they have engaged a legal acumen of the highest standing in the Bombay Presidency, we mean the Hon Mr. D. F. Mulla. We do not know to what extent the plaintiffs have incurred the expenses. The whole thing comes to this, that the Plaintiffs are fighting for something different from the recovery of any sum. It is very clear from their past attitude towards the union that any how or other they want to kill this movement and make it impossible for a man of means to take interest in the labour work. And the defective nature of the Trade Union Act has given them ample opportunities to do so. It is said often in politics that the extremists of to-day become the moderates of tomorrow; but in Trade Union activities moderates of to-day are sure to become the extremists of tomorrow, if the mill-owners' attitude is not changed.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. The latest dispute occurred in the month of April, 1928. It affected only one mill. Low wages, the treatment at the hands of the management, the arbitrary rules of the mill, were the main grievances of the workers. Some workers were found

not to get more than a rupee or two in a month on account of the systematic cut made by the management in the wages of the operatives. The strike in the old mill ended in a partial compromise between the labour leaders and the management. In the months of June and July the other four mills went on strike; in the meanwhile the union had been formed and the grievances of the workers were intimated to the management by a notice. No consideration was given to the demands of the workers, and they had to go on strike. In those two mills, Vishnoo and Laxmi, the treatment meted out to the workers was simply inhuman. One of those mills went on strike on account of severe beating to a worker at the hands of one of the superiors of the staff. This dispute lasted to the end of September and the beginning of October. The strike was called off by Mr. N. M. Joshi on the 10th of October, 1928. The union officials tried their best to settle the disputes but the owners being adamant no compromise could be arrived at. The dispute ended in favour of the employers. During the continuance of the strike the employers did their level best to subjugate the workers and even the police authorities were at the back of the mill-owners. Workers living in employers' chawls were asked to vacate the rooms. In some cases the roofs of houses were forcibly removed. In some cases water supply was prohibited to the strikers by the mill-owners in the chawls. The manager of the Vishnoo mill delegated all his powers over the chawls to a Mahommadan contractor who took a prominent part in breaking the strike. The Government also took no small part in the struggle. Picketing was resorted to from the 24th of August, 1928, and on the fourth day the picketers were prosecuted by the police under Section 61 (Q) of the District Police Act. Some ten picketers standing by the road side could not have obstructed the traffic. It was nothing but a part played by the police in helping the mill-owners in their fight to annihilate the labour movement. We know that the police order to withdraw picketers was disobeyed by the picketers and their labour leaders; but the order itself seemed to us quite unwarranted and hence illegal, as it certainly cannot be said that a few volunteers standing by the road side could have obstructed the traffic so as to justify the police order. The police were in search of an excuse. They wanted, they found, and they used. Attitude of the police towards the movement, we are constrained to say, was not of an impartial character, and even one of the superiors of the police had to suffer for his silly words. After the prosecution of the volunteers by the police the learned magistrate convicted them to pay a fine of from 20 to 30 rupees. There still remained the union officials. The president and secretaries of the union were convicted under Sections 447 and 341 of the Indian Penal Code respectively. Thus ended the picketing, thus ended the strike, and thus were the labourers placed in their position worse than in what they were before. In the second strike in which a European firm was involved, police seemed to have taken a prominent part on behalf of the mill-owners. Black legs were being brought under police protection to the mills. During the period of three to four months of the strike not a single incident of threat, violence or breach of peace had occurred. Workers were intimidated by the agents of the employers. If Government's attitude towards the industrial disputes is to be judged from acts of the police it seems to us to be partial towards the management, especially in the second strike. The Government assumed the part of a third party. In the first strike when we approached the Government for settlement the district collector informed us, that unless both parties agree, Government will take no action. In industrial disputes it is easy and convenient for Government to take no interest unless called for by necessity of maintaining law and order, but it should at the same time be remembered that strict neutrality and silent impartiality are both dangerous to that class of workers who are not sufficiently organized to fight their own cause and who have been perpetually exploited by the capitalists. This frame of mind on the part of the Government is the more provoking when they are in a position to know the real and legitimate grievances of the workers.

### The Bombay Y.M.C.A.

*Backwardness of Indian Industry.*—In the consideration of questions affecting labour in India it must not be overlooked that there are present in Indian industry many incidental undesirable features of the West. We note a tendency to compare conditions here with those prevailing in other countries. As a member of the League of Nations, India will no doubt, both give and receive much through the International Labour Conference, and action taken for labour in western countries will ultimately affect and largely benefit labour in India, e.g., "As India was a member of the League of Nations and had participated in the International Labour Conference in 1919 she was called upon to ratify the conventions and recommendations passed at

that Conference. In view of the stage of industrial progress reached, and her peculiar position as a tropical country, the case of India received special consideration. She was however asked to introduce a 60-hour week in factories and mines, to prohibit the employment of women at night; to raise the minimum age of employment to 12 and to enquire into the possibility of granting maternity benefits to women industrial workers.\* All of which has now received attention.

*Disproportion of Sexes.*—The League of Nations recognizes India's backward industrial position, but it needs to be more generally recognized that industrialism is in its infancy in India. The proportion of factory workers and their dependants to the rest of the population is little more than 1 per cent. Out of Bombay's population of over a million, less than 200,000 were actually born in the city itself. (*Vide* Census Report, 1921, Vol. IX). In Bombay the majority of the workers have their roots in the village. The labourer by heredity, training and instinct is a villager. He comes to the factory and remains no longer than he can help. For this reason he does not as a rule bring his family to the city to make a home near his work. This in part, explains the proportion between the sexes in Bombay as 66 to 34. (The estimated population in the middle of 1927 was males 849,322, females 449,386, *vide* Administration Report of the Municipal Commissioner for the city of Bombay). If we note the proportion between men and women coming from adjacent districts, e.g., Ratnagiri, it is about 67 to 33, while in the case of those from the more distant Provinces like the U.P. it is 89 to 11, while from Madras it is as 79 to 21. We are bound to have unsatisfactory conditions in the mill area so long as a minute percentage of the Factory labourers have their families with them in Bombay. We regard this as a question of first-class importance, the solution is extremely difficult. We are aware of the main causes of the existing situation in social customs, housing, lack of education, and recreational facilities, wages, etc., but what steps can be taken to remedy matters can, we believe, be determined only after much fuller study of the problem than has yet been made. We suggest that steps be taken to have such a study made. We are aware of another aspect, viz., that the villager becomes factory hand "having a home and work to which he can return when he ceases to be employed in a factory gives him a certain strength" (†) but this *instability* of labour constitutes a fundamental difficulty for the employer as well as for all those who have at heart the welfare of the industrial workers.

*Difficulties.*—We will now refer to what, in our judgment, are some of the causes for the present discontent. We are aware of the obstacles that stand in the way of schemes for betterment, not the least being the labourer's own indifference to, and lack of desire for, improvement, but there are signs that he is becoming aware of that possibility for himself, in view of which we would advocate well conceived schemes of welfare service, which should include a co-ordinated plan of primary and adult education. For the aim of education, besides supplying the equipment needed for earning a living and preparing men to take their part in the life of the country, is to satisfy the spiritual needs of men. Our general plea, therefore, is for education and more education, albeit, suitable education, so that labour will retain its best representatives in industry.

*Housing.*—The happiness and efficiency of labour is dependent in a large measure on the conditions under which the labourer lives. It is true that the labourer is from the village and will have the habits of the villager, but the overcrowding in many parts of the city does militate against securing that privacy to which even the villager is accustomed. Much has been done in recent years on the part of Government, the various authorities in the city, and many employers to provide accommodation, but much remains to be done to relieve the congestion hereunder noted. It will be observed that there has been no diminution in numbers in the southern congested wards, as one would expect, in view of the big building schemes in the northern part of the city.

Ward.	Density of population per acre.	Census 1921.	Municipal Commissioner's Report, 1927.
A .. .. .	.. .. .	51	53
B .. .. .	.. .. .	203	208
C .. .. .	.. .. .	431	450
D .. .. .	.. .. .	89	102
E .. .. .	.. .. .	114	126
F .. .. .	.. .. .	28	34
G .. .. .	.. .. .	44	52

With this table, the figures of certain districts will make clear precisely where overcrowding exists.

\* See Labour in Indian Industries by G. M. Broughton.

† Op. cit. pp. 83, 158.

Area.	Density of population per acre.	Census 1921.	Municipal Commissioner's Report, 1927.
Kumbharwada .. .. .	.. .. .	736-86	799-57
Kamatipura .. .. .	.. .. .	714-05	786-21
Second Nagpada .. .. .	.. .. .	699-03	719-48
Kara Talao .. .. .	.. .. .	581-55	592-87
Chukla .. .. .	.. .. .	489-07	484-97
Bhuleshwar .. .. .	.. .. .	471-30	470-09
Umarkhadi .. .. .	.. .. .	469-18	477-68
Market .. .. .	.. .. .	411-69	445-20

To relieve this congestion the workers should be induced to move into the unoccupied chawls erected by the Bombay Development Department and we suggest two things, (1) increased facility of access, both by road transport and if possible by the provision of more direct footpaths from the chawl areas to mills, workshops, etc., and (2) a comprehensive scheme embracing the education and recreation of the workers and their families during their leisure time. This we are convinced would make life worth while in the chawls of Worli, De Lisle Road and Naigaon.

We agree with the recommendation in the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, viz., "To avoid congestion in future no industrial concern should be started, except in the N.E. of the Island of Bombay or in S.E. of Salsette, without the consent of the municipality" (page 283).

*Indebtedness.*—One of the chief contributory causes to the discontent in industry is, we believe, the indebtedness of a large percentage of the workers. Social and religious customs play an important part, but sickness and unemployment also drives the worker to the moneylender. When the workers can read and write and "know figures" there will be less opportunity for the moneylender to obtain the present extortionate rate of interest on loans. The existing state of affairs could be remedied to a certain extent by an arrangement whereby loans will be made available on easy terms. Co-operative credit societies serve some branches of labour, when approved security is forthcoming, but we agree with the authors of the Report of the Bombay Riots Inquiry Committee that the subject should be examined by the Provincial Banking Committee (page 88).

*Absence of Family Ties.*—This constitutes a problem in Bombay because of the presence of a vice area. Not only does it demoralise men while they are here, but the danger of returning to their village with venereal diseases can be better imagined than described. We are glad to note that Government action is contemplated to suppress the brothels, and this should considerably lessen the risk of infection, moreover the effect on the labourer of such action will be that he will no longer feel that provision is made for him in this respect by the authorities and thus many will be led to think twice before seeking gratification in this manner.

*Wages.*—It has been said that the standard of wages in factories is governed by the amount necessary to tempt the poorest type of cultivator from his holding. The first charge upon industry is a living wage for the workman and every workman should give an honest day's work in return for his wages. It is admitted that many of the mill workers are paid low wages. Standard rates of wages if adopted by all mills for skilled and unskilled labour would, we believe, remove one cause of discontent.

*Hours of Work.*—We are of opinion that there is need for thorough expert investigation of this important question. There has been much dogmatic statement in regard to the most satisfactory hours of labour, and where it has not been dogmatic it has been too frequently based on inadequate data. We suggest that the time has come when the whole subject should be submitted to scientific investigation.

*Recruitment of Labour.*—One thinks of jobbers, mucedams, mill operatives, etc., when using this term, but we believe the recruitment of labour opens up a bigger question than that of unskilled labour for mills, factories and workshops. Unemployment in the city is a serious problem, affecting whole groups of citizens, other than manual workers. With it must be considered the question of producing more educated foremen, jobbers, etc., those who will be in a position to lead labour intelligently, with a background of full technical knowledge of the particular industry they serve. At present there are very few, if any, leaders from the ranks of labour.

*Labour Exchanges.*—In this connection we suggest the establishment of Government Labour Exchanges be considered as a means of dealing with this problem. Such exchanges would make for mobility of labour and generally assist not only the labouring classes but those in other walks of life who cannot find employment at any one point. Inducements should be held out to educated youths to enter industry in larger numbers which will strengthen the ranks of labour and find employment for those engaged in the already overcrowded clerical and general



office ranks. The Indian Industrial Commission deals fully with the need for providing facilities for training middle class youths for industry. To some extent this has been done, but we believe more could be done to attract youths to manual vocations, and with this in view the curricula in primary schools should include suitable subjects. Night schools should be governed by the same principle, of course. Certain millowners in Madras give primary education to their workpeople. "The industrial bias imparted by the education given has had the result of keeping the pupils in the mills as intelligent and efficient workers instead of leading them to desire clerical appointments, and the scheme may, therefore, legitimately be regarded as a great investment." (1).

*Ex-Sepoys.*—Working as the the Employment Committee of the Soldiers Board, the Bombay Y.M.C.A. has found employment for 5,388 ex-sepoys during the past seven years.

Services such as this could be extended to meet the demands of an industrial city like Bombay; whether these should be undertaken by Government labour exchanges, or by subsidised voluntary agencies is a question to be determined.

*Adult Education.*—A well-thought out scheme of night schools for adults would appear to be a prime necessity at this juncture, but we would strongly urge the appointment of a small committee to study the question of adult education in India in all its aspects.

*Fines.*—Where fines are imposed they should be fair and reasonable, and all such deductions credited to a welfare fund for the benefit of the employees.

*Welfare Supervisors.*—We would further suggest that consideration be given to the employment of trained welfare supervisors for each mill or group of mills to deal with all questions of personnel. Such officers might have works committees to assist them. It must also be remembered that present day industry demands thorough scientific study and research, and the time is coming when specially trained welfare officers will be set to work to keep India abreast in the realm of Industrial Psychology whose "aim is to discover the best possible human conditions in occupational work, whether they relate to the best choice of a vocation, the selection of the most suitable workers, the most effective means of avoiding fatigue and boredom, the study and provision of the most valuable incentives to work, the causes of and remedies for irritation, discontent and unrest, the best methods of work and training, the reduction of needless effort and strain due to bad movements and postures, inadequate illumination, ventilation and temperature, ill-considered arrangements of material, or defective routing, layout, or organization." (1).

Thus welfare supervisors and experts in Industrial Psychology will be needed in the Indian industry of the future.

*Right use of Leisure.*—The proper utilization of all leisure time by the labourer reacts on his work. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that the temptations to drink, gambling and immorality be counteracted by agencies that attract him and whose services make for his improvement and contentment. Provision for such facilities should be looked upon as a good investment by employers of labour.

*Welfare of Factory Labour.*—We agree with the authors of the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission when they say, "The inefficiency of Indian labour can be remedied by the provision of education, the amelioration of housing conditions, the improvement of public health and a general policy of betterment." (Page 282).

*Y.M.C.A. Service.*—The Bombay Y.M.C.A. lays special emphasis on a general policy of betterment along the lines of welfare service, the programme being designed to meet the physical, mental and spiritual needs of the workers. It includes: Provision of open spaces for playgrounds, etc. "Play for all" policy is adopted (8 centres already operating); akhadas and gymnasiums; education in night schools; propaganda regarding intemperance, gambling and immorality; cinema and lantern shows; lectures and talks; hygiene and sanitation; Indian music, drama, etc.; scouting for boys—camps where boys do everything for themselves. (See separate report on scout camp).

At present we operate in the city at the following centres:—

1. Naigaon, in Y.M.C.A. hut .. ..	For mill employees.
2. Worli, in chawls .. ..	For B.B. & C.I. Railway employees.
3. Love Grove, on municipal property..	For municipal employees.
4. Arthur Road, on municipal property..	For municipal employees.
5. Dadar, on municipal property ..	For municipal employees.
6. Mustan Shah Baug, playground ..	Open to the public, no restrictions.
7. Gilder Tank, playground .. ..	Open to the public, no restrictions.
8. Ripon Road, Willingdon Memorial Playground.	Open to the public, no restrictions.

(1) Industrial Psychology ed: by C. S. Meyer page 6 (1929).

The service rendered is in line with the latest advances in Industrial Psychology. The solution of the problems ultimately rests upon the adequacy with which we deal with the human element in the industrial world. That adequacy depends upon; (a) enlightenment, leading on to correct decisions; (b) domestic comfort, ending in contentment; (c) wholesome and elevating environment, helping, or encouraging the growth of true community life.

*Development of Human Personality.*—The Bombay Y.M.C.A. would stress the importance of the due recognition of human personality, and of the necessity for providing such facilities for the labourer as will develop personality and enable him to create a standard of comfort that makes for personal happiness and contentment, and stability in industry. "The industrial world is constituted not by economic individuals acting always under the influence and guidance of enlightened self-interest, but by human beings acting under the influence of human impulses, emotions, and passions, arising out of fundamental human needs."(1).

A statement regarding welfare service already attempted by the Bombay Y.M.C.A. is attached (2). Since it was drawn up, requests have been made—and will be met—for two more welfare centres for municipal menial employees and another for Port Trust employees in their village at Antop. It is true to say that the extent of our service is only limited by our financial resources. We are in entire agreement with recommendation No. 104 of the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission which reads:—"The responsibility for general welfare work among factory labourers must devolve mainly on private individuals and associations. Government and local bodies as well as employers should, however, assist them as far as possible." (Page 283). It is our experience that all such service is better done—both in the interests of employers and employees—by unofficial agencies, to ensure the greatest and most lasting benefit.

## THE BOMBAY ELECTRIC SUPPLY AND TRAMWAYS COMPANY, LTD.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. Our labour is all recruited in the city of Bombay. Much of this labour is of purely local origin, but in our traffic department many of our tram-car drivers are up-country men, for instance, from the Punjab and United Provinces. On the other hand, our conductors are chiefly Mahrattas and Konkanis.

(i) We are not seriously inconvenienced by migration of labour. At certain times of the year, especially just before the monsoon, a large number of men avail themselves of leave.

(ii) In our opinion the attendance of our labour has improved in recent years.

2. (ii) *Extent of Permanent Labour Force.*—Abstracted from July, 1929 pay sheets:—

Officers	..	..	..	..	..	30
Clerical and kindred staff	..	..	..	..	..	591
Electric supply branch	..	..	..	..	..	660
Omnibus and tramways branch	..	..	..	..	..	3,387
						<u>4,888</u>

July being a monsoon month, these figures are somewhat lower than average, which may be taken at 5,000.

3. (i) We have no trouble at all in recruiting all the labour we require.

*Traffic Department.*—Candidates apply personally at the appointed time, and the officer responsible selects likely looking candidates from among the applicants. Fitness for service is the chief point taken into consideration, but preference is given to men who have had some education, and give intelligent answers to simple questions. Candidates are then subjected to medical examination, after passing which they are required to sign an agreement, accepting the general rules of the company embodied therein. After the formalities are completed, they are sent to our schools to learn their duties for periods varying from 4 to 10 weeks, for which they receive a subsistence allowance of Rs. 15.

(1) Industrial Psychology ed.: by C. S. Meyer page 19 (1929).

(2) (a) Social Welfare Service of the Bombay Y.M.C.A. (b) Report on a Scout Camp, held August 31st—September 1st, 1929. (Not printed).

*Engineering Departments.*—Skilled labour is recruited either on the basis of testimonials or recommendation by a trusty employee. In all cases actual engagement is subject to actual trade tests, or periods of probation. Promising unskilled labour is trained by working with skilled labour, and promotions are made, after passing trade tests, when vacancies occur. We always endeavour to promote our own rather than engage new employees.

*Unskilled Labour* is generally obtained by muccadums or employees already in the service of the company.

(ii) Our experience has not shown the necessity for any methods other than those detailed above.

(iii) Our experience has not shown the necessity for public employment agencies.

7. (i) We have no means of knowing definitely what is the extent of unemployment in this city, but we do know that unemployment must be considerable, judging by the enormous number of applications for employment which we receive.

(ii) We consider that the unemployment that exists has partly been caused by the retrenchment that has taken place in all large concerns, in consequence of the bad state of trade.

8. (i) *Traffic Department.*—The length of service, as in August, 1929, was as follows :—

Years of service.	Conductors.	Drivers.
1	123	37
2	137	42
3	190	52
4	110	22
5	160	60
	720	213
6	172	36
7	172	45
8	34	14
9	38	51
10	14	21
11 to 15	1	19
16 to 22	4	20
	435	206
Total ..	1,155	419

At the beginning of 1925, though we then employed 1,612 conductors and 712 drivers, only 42 conductors and 110 drivers had over 5 years' service. There are various reasons which account for the marked declension in the total numbers employed, but these do not appear to affect a conclusion that the duration of the service of such employers has materially improved.

*Clerical Department.*—The average length of service, as in August, 1929, was as follows :—Clerical staff, 8 years 7 months ; sepoys and office boys, 5 years 8 months.

*Workshop Department.*—The years of service, as in August, 1929, was as follows :—

Years of service.	Number of men.	Years of service.	Number of men.
1	22	8	26
2	21	9	19
3	58	10	71
4	30	11	52
5	45	12	24
6	56	13	17
7	59	Over 13	30
		Total ..	530

In this department the average service in August, 1929, was approximately 7 years.

(ii) As regards casual employment, this is practically confined to the temporary engagement of coolies for such work as laying electric cables. It seldom amounts to more than about 10 per cent. of the permanent labour force, or about 30 per cent. of the mains department alone.

(iii) (a) The numbers employed in our workshop during 1928 averaged 640 ; absenteeism averaged 62·5 daily, evenly distributed throughout the year. Absenteeism is greater amongst the higher paid men than amongst the lower paid.

In the mains department absenteeism averages about four days per month without leave.

Causes of absenteeism are sickness, domestic and property troubles, personal work at homes, long leave in employees' native places covering religious and other ceremonies.

(b) Unskilled employees usually take some leave, prior to, or at the beginning of the monsoon, chiefly to repair their houses in their native country, or to make agricultural preparations.

Traffic employees suffer more sickness in the monsoon and cold weather.

(c) It is difficult to estimate time and wages lost, but in our mains department it is estimated to be about four to six weeks per unskilled employee annually, amounting to Rs. 30-40 in wages.

In our workshop during 1928 :—299 working days  $\times$  62.5 absenteeism daily = 18,687 men days were lost, or an estimated equivalent in wages (at Re. 1-8 annas per day average) of Rs. 28,031.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

12. (i) The company relies largely on its apprenticeship scheme for filling the junior officers appointments. Young men are put through a three or four years' course as apprentices in the various departments of the company. Those that show marked promise are usually promoted to the appointment of "technical assistants" on completion of their apprenticeship. Others may, or may not, be retained in the company's service. When vacancies occur amongst the junior officers, the technical assistants are given first consideration for promotions.

(ii) No special arrangements exist, but in practice skilled men usually train unskilled men, many of whom in course of time, after passing the various trade tests, earn promotion.

13. (i) To the best of our belief the relations are generally good. It has been our experience that officers in charge of departments have, as a rule, treated complaints with consideration. The instructions to such officers are that the policy of the company is to remove a genuine grievance at once, if it is at all possible to do so. Officers are also instructed at all times to hear and consider complaints with care and deliberation.

14. (i) A special time keeping department, under the control of the secretary of the company, keeps the time of all employees. Clocks are used in certain departments where feasible, for instance in the workshop. The timekeeping department is subject to inspection and check by the company's own audit department.

(ii) From the timekeepers records, pay sheets are prepared by the same department. These are subject to audit by the company's audit department, and, prior to payment being made, all officers concerned are required to certify that the pay sheet is correctly drawn. The pay sheets are then passed to the cashiers who draw the necessary funds, handing them over to the pay clerk's department, which is responsible for placing the money due to each man in a special envelope for that man. The timekeeper issues a chit to each man, giving his number and amount due. On presentation of this chit at the appointed time and place the pay clerk hands over his particular envelope, in exchange for the pay chit or time card.

15. (i) The company maintains its own workshop, where a commercial costing system is in force. If it is considered that work can be executed cheaper by outside parties, specifications are prepared and tenders called for from outside contractors, as well as our own departments. The contract is awarded to the contractor whose tender is the most economical.

The majority of work let out on contract is for the construction of new buildings.

(iii) The company's chief officer concerned supervises the work, the contractor employing labour at his discretion, but indemnifying the company in respect of the Workmen's Compensation Act.

## III.—Housing.

16. (i) The company owns the following housing accommodation :—(a) Nineteen quarters for officers, and six small quarters for subordinates ; (b) One chawl, containing 160 rooms of which half are reserved for the traffic department, and half for the workshop department ; (c) One chawl, containing 12 rooms in the workshop compound ; (d) One chawl, containing 44 rooms at the company's Colaba depot, chiefly occupied by traffic men based on Colaba.

(iii) Officers and employees, who do not live in the above quarters or chawks, rent their accommodation from private landlords.

18. The large and modern 160-room chawl is of standard Bombay Improvement Trust design, the rooms being 120 square feet in area. The accommodation in this, and in the other chawls belonging to the company, is popular largely, we think, because we have made a practice of fitting one electric lamp in each room. Modern latrines and water supply are available in all the chawls. Considerable expenditure in incurred in efforts to keep all the chawls sanitary and clean. Whitewashing is frequently carried out as often as three times in two years.

19. The company's chawls are always full, with the exception of the 80 rooms in the large chawl allotted to the traffic department. In that block of 80 rooms practically every room is occupied, but as so many of our men are either bachelors, or married men who leave their families up-country, four such men are allotted to a room on the basis of four berths per room. Vacancies occur chiefly in these berths.

20. In the 160-room modern chawl the rents are fixed at Rs. 8 per room and Rs. 2 per berth per month, inclusive of electric light.

In the old fashioned Colaba chawl, the rentals are calculated according to the number of berths available in each room, at the rate of 12 annas per berth per month.

In the small workshop chawl the rents are Rs. 8 and Rs. 6 for the large and small rooms, respectively.

21. The company raises no objection to officers living in company's quarters, arranging for paying guests in other employ to live with them. Should any of these quarters fall vacant and not be required by any officer of the company, efforts are made to let them to outside parties.

As far as the company's chawls are concerned, every room must be let to an employee of the company, but no objection is raised to the tenant allowing close relations to live with him, provided no overcrowding is caused, i.e., in excess of four per room; two children being considered as one adult.

So far no cases of eviction from chawls have become necessary.

22. We know that other authorities who have more extended housing facilities, have less difficulty in obtaining unskilled labour than we have.

It is considered that the conditions in our chawls have certainly improved the morals of the tenants, mainly due to the strict enforcement of rules and regulations for such accommodation.

#### IV.—Health.

24. *Extent of Medical Facilities Provided*—(i) *By employers*.—The company provides free medical attendance and medicine to such of its workshop, traffic and other employees, who attend at the company's well-appointed dispensaries at Colaba and Dadar Tramway depots.

25. *Extent to which Medical Facilities are utilised*.—The average number of attendances at the dispensaries daily for the first seven months of 1929 has amounted to about 140. This figure includes cases, in which "first aid" has been rendered by the assistant surgeon in charge, to workshop men meeting with accidents.

26. *Sanitary Arrangements*—(i) *Latrines*.—Ample latrines are provided at the company's depots, the number of seats provided being in excess of that required by the Factory Act.

(ii) *Drinking Water*.—Special tanks, directly connected to the municipal mains for the supply of drinking water, are provided where any appreciable number of employees work. It is of course impossible to provide such tanks for the use of all employees in an undertaking of this nature.

(iii) *Bathing and Washing*.—No special facilities are provided, but use is allowed and made of the various taps, fitted in the depots for the purposes of washing tramcars.

30. (iii) The company's senior medical officer states that, with over 28 years of professional experience, he can definitely say that prejudices against western medicines are gradually dying out. The company's staff readily avail themselves of the treatment on western lines afforded by the company.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. (i) A special "employees welfare fund" is maintained. To this fund are credited all fines recovered from employees, donations made by passengers and proceeds of "lost property" sales.

The fund is available at the discretion of the general manager for making small loans to necessitous employees, and for other deserving cases, which cannot properly be assisted with company's moneys.

Loans, which normally do not exceed two months' salary or wages, do not bear interest, and must be repaid within one year by monthly deductions from salary or wages. Such loans are not granted to applicants who are eligible to receive loans from the provident fund.

The utilization of the credit balances of this fund is from time to time considered by the board of directors, the intention being that such surplus funds shall so far as possible be expended on welfare work to the advantage of those employees of the company, who have in part contributed to that fund in the shape of fines deducted from their wages.

33. The company does not employ any welfare officers, but a senior employee is designated "welfare supervisor," his general duties being to receive complaints and make recommendations regarding welfare, and to see that the various company's chawls, canteens, etc., are maintained in a satisfactory state of cleanliness and repair.

34. (i) An excellent modern canteen has been provided at the company's Colaba depot. A small canteen has also been provided at the company's Tardeo depot. A tea shop exists at the workshop. The two former have only been in existence for a few months, and their advantages are only beginning to be appreciated. In the workshop, however, the tea shop does a large trade amongst the 500 odd men employed there.

The company does not employ any women, consequently it has no shelters or creches.

(ii) A club building has recently been erected at Colaba tramway depot, adjacent to the company's head office, for the benefit of the men based on that depot, and living in the chawl thereat. This building, which is approximately 54 feet by 32 feet, inclusive of verandah, is divided into two portions—one half being a club room, with refreshment bar, where indoor games may be played and music availed of. The other half is used as an akhada or gymnasium, in which wrestling and various gymnastic exercises are continuously practised. The club is provided with a small garden; also with a very small paved area for outdoor gymnastics, together with a sand pit for the children living in the chawl.

Efforts are being made to obtain the use of land for two tennis courts in the Fort area for the benefit of the clerical and other staff who desire to play tennis, but at present our applications have received no reply.

Further, two large plots of vacant building land at Dadar are lent by the Bombay Improvement Trust for outdoor games, such as cricket and football. This land will however have to be vacated at 24 hours' notice, if required by the Bombay Improvement Trust for their own purposes.

The best sports club cannot at present be considered to have commenced operations, but it is hoped that it will function successfully during the coming cold weather.

35. It is too early at present to say what results have been achieved by the activities outlined above, but there is no doubt that the provision of amusement and facilities for recreation tend to improve the contentment, and consequently the efficiency, of the employees generally.

36. Except for the Company's Apprenticeship Course, and for the deputation of a few of the company's younger and promising employees, to attend instructional courses in electrical wiring, etc., at the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, the only educational activities in force at present are classes for instruction in first aid. We also have two schools for training conductors and drivers in their duties.

37. A Provident Fund has been in force since 1914. All officers and employees, other than those employed on probation or temporarily, in receipt of salary or wages of not less than Rs. 15 for a full normal month's work, are required to become members of, and subscribe to, this fund.

A member drawing a salary or wages of Rs. 100 or over per month contributes 16 pies per rupee, but in the cases of those drawing under Rs. 100 per month the compulsory contribution is 12 pies per rupee or, at the members' option, 16 pies per rupee.

The company contributes to the fund monthly an amount equal to the members' own contribution for that month and allows interest, which is credited monthly, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, calculated on the monthly balances standing to the credit of all members, including the contributions made by the company.

All costs and expenses of administering and working the fund are borne by the company.

The company's contributions are only paid in full to members leaving the company's service after completing 15 years therein. For service between 10 and 15 years two-thirds are paid, whilst for service above 5 years and not exceeding 10 years one-third is paid. In cases, however, of retrenchment or death, the full company's contributions are paid.

Members can obtain advances up to one-third of their own contributions, bearing interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, for the purposes of sick leave, medical assistance or other special emergencies.

Dismissal from the company's service for dishonesty, gross misconduct, or leaving without notice entails forfeiture of all claims on the company's contributions. Such of the company's contributions as are forfeited or withheld, revert to the general revenues of the company.

The whole of the credit balances of the fund are invested in the business of the company.

*Savings Fund.*—In addition to the provident fund, the company instituted a savings fund in 1914. Salaried members of the provident fund only are eligible to join this fund, and may contribute either half an anna or one anna for every complete rupee of monthly salary. The company allows interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, calculated and credited monthly. But, in addition, the company, on the 1st January each year, credits each member in respect of his monthly balances during the previous year, with further interest, dependent upon the length of service with the company as follows:— $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. for service exceeding 5 years but not exceeding 10 years;  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for service exceeding 10 years but not exceeding 15 years;  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for service exceeding 15 years.

Balances standing to the credit of members are invested in the business of the company.

*Gratuities on Retirement.*—The company instituted in 1921 a system of gratuities on retirement. The scales now in force are as follows:—

*To the whole of the Traffic and Engineering Staff:—*

7 years' service .. .. .	3 months' pay.
10 years' service .. .. .	6 months' pay.
12 years' service .. .. .	9 months' pay.
15 years' service .. .. .	12 months' pay.

In all the cases quoted above, whatever his length of service, no officer or employee shall receive as a retirement gratuity more than the equivalent of one year's substantive salary or wages.

In the opinion of the management, these funds tend very materially to the success of the company's working. The sums standing to the credit of various employees at the end of their service are frequently very substantial for persons in their class of life.

#### VII.—Safety.

44. The number of accidents of every description, however slight, which occurred in our workshop in 1928 was 24.

45. Accidents have chiefly been due to disobedience of orders, carelessness in transporting heavy materials, and other directions, e.g., electrical burns, and burns from molten metal as moulders refuse to wear shoes.

46. All machinery is well guarded, belting fenced, and lifting tackle tested. Men are fined for removing safety devices. Factory rules are rigorously adhered to. The factory inspectors have on more than one occasion sent officers of other firms to see, and learn from, our safety arrangements.

48. A qualified doctor attends employees who seek his advice. An assistant surgeon is on duty during working hours, in a well equipped dispensary, to render first aid.

50. The daily working hours ( $8\frac{1}{2}$ ) do not seem to fatigue employees unduly, but in the hot weather, towards the end of the day, there is a slacking off, which cannot be considered unnatural. Men are allowed to take tea or cold drinks in the shops between 9 and 11 a.m., and between 2.30 and 4.30 p.m. Thirty minutes are allowed daily as "Latrine" time. Meals can be obtained on premises at cheap rates.

General health is good; cases of long illness are infrequent; deaths amongst employees are of very rare occurrence.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act.*—(i) Those provisions of this Act, which affect this company, are utilized to the fullest extent. Employees also take full advantage of the Act on their side, not infrequently through agents, who make a business of putting forward claims, but no case has yet occurred in which the company, through taking immediate action, has not been able to ignore applications from such agents.

(ii) From the 1st July, 1924, when the Act came into force, up to the end of 1928, out of Rs. 10,685 which became payable in respect of 188 cases of accidents falling within the scope of the Act, only Rs. 38 in respect of 10 accidents have not been claimed.

It is however, to be noted that in addition to the compensation for which the company was liable under the Act, an additional sum of Rs. 2,990 was paid in respect of temporary disablement included in the 188 cases mentioned above. These additional payments were made, because it has been the practice of the company, for many years to pay full wages for the full period of disablement, necessitated by justifiable accidents.

During the above period a further 932 cases of accidents occurred, in which the employees were not entitled to any compensation under the Act. In the majority of these cases, full or partial compensation amounting to Rs. 4,955 was paid in accordance with the company's custom.

(iii) We do not consider that the Workmen's Compensation Act has caused any effect at all in this company, as it has been our custom for many years to pay full or partial wages in all cases of justifiable accidents, met with when fulfilling duties in the service, and in accordance with the rules and regulations, of the company.

53. (i) In connection with the revision of the Workmen's Compensation Act, we have already given our opinion to the Local Government that, in the cases of some higher paid employees, the scale fixed for temporary disablement is somewhat on the low side, e.g., an employee drawing Rs. 200 per month would only be entitled to draw Rs. 1 per day during disablement.

(ii) We think the conditions governing the grant of compensation are somewhat harsh and to the detriment of the employer, e.g. :—

Under Sec. 3 (1) (b), (ii) and (iii) the employer is exempted from liability, in respect of any injury to a workman resulting from an accident, which is directly attributable (a) to the wilful disobedience of the workman to an order expressly given, or to a rule expressly framed, for the purpose of securing the safety of workmen, or (b) to the wilful removal or disregard by the workman of any safety-guard or other device which he knew to have been provided for securing his safety. In such cases the onus rests on the employer of proving that the disobedience or removal by the workman was wilful, i.e., deliberate. This is an extremely difficult matter and acts unfairly on the employer.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. (i) 8½ hours daily for 5 days per week ; 5½ hours on Saturdays ; Total 48 hours per week.

(ii) Overtime worked is negligible.

(iii) The workers are not on call after the workshop closes daily.

60. (i) One hour daily for tiffin, except on Saturdays.

(iv) All employees are granted 4 general holidays annually with pay. Employees of over 10 years' service also receive full pay for about 7 sectional holidays. Part day leave without pay is also granted in cases of certain religious festivals. No pay is given for Sundays, on which men do not work but pay is allowed for 3 hours leave on Saturday afternoons.

### D.—Other Establishments.

78. (i) In the *Traffic Department* conductors work 8½ hours and drivers 8 hours respectively. The average of hours worked per month approximates closely to these figures, but the daily hours worked vary considerably in accordance with the various duties on various tramway routes.

(ii) The actual working hours, i.e., including overtime, are not materially in excess of the above hours, for, as a general rule, the working of overtime is not permitted if it can possibly be avoided throughout the company.

79. The normal working days per week are six, but in a company working the transport services, and supplying electrical energy throughout the City and Island of Bombay, work never ceases. In those departments where the nature of the work requires regular attendance on Sundays, and/or general public holidays, a day off is allowed for each such attendance. Employees working shifts are all allowed one shift off per week, i.e., their normal week's work comprises 6 shifts of 8 hours.



## XII.—Wages.

96. (i) Average earnings (i.e., Bonus, Gratuity, Provident Fund, etc., not taken into account) of certain employees during July, 1929, were as follows:—

Number on which average is ascertained.	Designation of Employee.	Average Earnings in Rupees.
8	Blacksmiths .. .. .	60
13	Cabinet Makers .. .. .	86
48	Carpenters .. .. .	69
68	Coolies .. .. .	26
8	Drillmen .. .. .	49
75	Fitters .. .. .	62
49	Fitter's Assistants .. .. .	40
10	Hammermen .. .. .	31
11	Moulders .. .. .	66
5	Painters, Good .. .. .	60
30	Painters, Rough .. .. .	39
14	Turners .. .. .	62
9	Watchmen .. .. .	38
12	Winders (Armature) .. .. .	87
28	Wiremen .. .. .	60
9	Writers .. .. .	65
1,085	Conductors .. .. .	45
390	Drivers (Tramways) .. .. .	48
83	Drivers (Omnibus) .. .. .	72
(iii) Total salaries and wages actually paid in cash for 1928 (officers excluded) .. .. .		Rs. 31,62,086
Bonus .. .. .		1,60,489
Add : Gratuity (average for 3 years) .. .. .		22,859
		<hr/>
		Rs. 33,45,434
Company's Contribution to Provident Fund .. .. .		1,89,956
Cost of medical facilities .. .. .		15,875
Difference between return at 6 per cent. on cost of company's chawls and the net return .. .. .		26,549
Clothing issued .. .. .		44,253
		<hr/>
		2,76,633
Money value of all earnings .. .. .		36,22,067

Therefore, the proportion of money wages to money value of all earnings was as 100 is to 108.26 during 1928.

97. (i) Prior to 1916 the wages generally paid throughout the company had been constant for several years, but, owing to the Great War and the consequent increase in the cost of living, the scale of wages had to be reconsidered in that year (1916). "War" allowances were then introduced, the scale being revised in 1919 as follows:—

To employees drawing from Rs. 126 to Rs. 200 per month	10 per cent.
To those drawing from Rs. 76 to Rs. 125 per month ..	17½ "
To those drawing Rs. 75 and under per month ..	25 "

This scale has never been altered and is still in force at this date, though the cost of living has varied from that in 1916 when the scale was introduced.

Several alterations in the rates of salary and wages of individuals have, of course, from time to time been made, largely in view of the additional responsibilities falling on such employees, owing to the growth of the company's business.

In 1922, strikes occurred both in our workshops and traffic departments, and adjustments in rates of wages were then made in certain cases and are still in force.

The scales of salaries and wages now paid are thought to be favourable, when compared with other undertakings of a similar nature. It is not the company's custom to adjust such scales in relation to the profits of the company earned annually.

101. In the workshops, at the time of the strike in 1922, a promise was made to the then employees that the company would pay wages equivalent to those paid by the G.I.P. Railway authorities for similar classes of work. Since July, 1927, new employees have been engaged on flat rates of pay, approximating to the rates above referred to. In no other department of the company can it be said that wages have in any way been fixed by negotiating agreements; they have usually been fixed at favourable rates, after due consideration has been given to rates paid by other comparable concerns in the city.

102. As has previously been explained, the company's business is continuous. Questions do not, therefore, arise as to work on Sundays. Those employed on shift work six shifts per week. Others, who may have to work on Sundays or Public Holidays, are allowed one day off per week.

The rules in the various departments of the company regarding payment of overtime vary somewhat.

*Traffic Staff.*—All overtime is paid at the rate of time and a quarter, but double time is paid to men called up for duty on their weekly day off.

*Workshop Staff.*—Overtime up to four hours per month is paid for at the rate of time and one quarter, but at the rate of time and a half for all overtime over four hours per month put in by workmen.

Foremen and mistries are paid at ordinary rates for overtime worked in excess of eight hours in any one month. They are not paid for overtime not amounting to eight hours.

No workman is entitled to draw extra pay for overtime unless the hours he has worked during any month amount to more than the total ordinary working hours for that particular month.

The company's policy is to reduce overtime to the absolute minimum. Consequently in practice very little overtime is worked.

106. (i) It is laid down in the company's standing orders that deductions in respect of fines shall not exceed 5 per cent. of salaries or wages, except in cases of outstandings when employees leave the company's service. Fines inflicted in excess of 5 per cent. of salary or wages are deducted in two or more instalments. All fines recovered are credited to the company's "Employees Welfare Fund." The fines inflicted on 2,754 of the company's employees during 1928 amounted to 0.19 per cent. of the total wages paid, namely, to Rs. 4,390, or Rs. 1-9-6 pies per man fined.

(ii) Deductions are made from employees' pay in respect of provident fund, provident fund advances, savings fund, fines, rental of accommodation in company's quarters or chawls, income tax, advances from the employees' welfare fund, cost of extra clothing (if any) issued, and cost of tools lost.

In the case of traffic department conductors, deficits in cash returns in respect of tickets sold, is also recovered from pay.

(iii) *Utilisation of Fines.*—This has been fully explained in answer to Question 32.

107. (i) The whole of the company's staff is paid once per month for work during the previous month. In cases in which casual labour is employed, payments are occasionally made weekly, or in some very exceptional cases daily.

(ii) The payment of the company's staff for any month's work is completed during the first 10 days of the following month.

(iii) The company opposed, with the utmost emphasis it could command, the proposals to introduce legislation with a view to regulating the periods of wages payment, and to prevent delay in such payment. Such legislation, if introduced, would cause considerable trouble and expense. It is, moreover, very doubtful whether employees would appreciate the payment of wages at intervals of less than one month. It is the custom of the country to make all purchases for payment on a monthly basis. It is considered that no deviation from that system would be welcomed either by sellers or buyers. It is strongly felt that the present monthly practice calls for no alteration.

(iv) Wages unclaimed for more than three years revert to the general revenues of the company, but can be claimed at any later date. It is not the company's practice to withhold payment of any such wages at whatever date they may be claimed. Quite recently an instance occurred of wages earned approximately eight years ago being claimed and paid.

108. (i) To minimize the burden of indebtedness by relieving them of heavy interest charges, loans are advanced to employees:—(a) From the provident fund, bearing 5 per cent. interest per annum; (b) from the employees' welfare fund, bearing no interest; (b) cannot be availed of, if a loan is permissible under the regulations of (a).

From (b) (the employees' welfare fund) loans were advanced during 1928 and 1929 as follows :—

Year.	No. of Employees.	Total amount of loans advanced.	Average amount of each loan.
1928	444	Rs. 33,713	Rs. 76
1929 } 1st 8 months }	446	Rs. 29,505	Rs. 66

The working of this fund is explained in answer to Question No. 32 (1).

109. (i) No profit-sharing schemes have ever been in force. A suggestion to introduce some such scheme was made in 1922, but it was pointed out that there would be the greatest difficulty in working such a scheme to the satisfaction of all employees, many of whom are illiterate. As an alternative, the introduction of the payment of "gratuities on retirement" was suggested and was forthwith sanctioned by the board of directors.

It has been the custom of the board of directors to sanction, and the shareholders in annual general meeting to confirm, the payment of an annual bonus to all officers and employees in the company's service since 1916. This bonus is calculated at the rate of one month's salary for salaried employees, and one-twelfth of actual earnings, excluding overtime, for other employees.

It is hard to say what the effect of the introduction of the payment of annual bonus has been. There are many pros and cons to such procedure, but it has now been in force for so many years, that extensive opposition would arise were the payment to be discontinued.

110. *Annual or other Leave*—(i) *Extent to which taken by workers*.—Mains, 4 to 6 weeks per year. Clerical, average 28·6 days; sepoy and boys, average 24·6 days—leave of all descriptions during 1928.

*Traffic*.—Statistics of actual leave availed of for 18 months, 1st January, 1928, to 30th June, 1929 :—

Particulars.	Conductors.	Drivers.
Number of men .. .. .	916	408
.. men-days .. .. .	4,34,294	1,91,352
.. men-days absorbed by long leave ..	57,402	24,603
.. men-days absorbed by sick leave ..	15,530	6,090
Average number of days long leave per man ..	62 or 13 p.c.	68 or 12·8 p.c.
Average number of days sick leave per man ..	16 or 3·5 p.c.	15 or 3·2 p.c.

*Workshops*.—Absences during the year 1928 :—

Periods of absence.	Number of Men.
Present on every working day .. .. .	10
Absent between 10 and 15 days .. .. .	189
.. .. 16 and 25 days .. .. .	96
.. .. 26 and 35 days .. .. .	86
.. .. 36 and 50 days .. .. .	90
.. .. over 50 days .. .. .	59
	530

(ii) *Extent to which countenanced and/or assisted by Employers*.—For details please see standing order 27/18 on page 31 in attached copy of standing orders.\* Speaking broadly, 15 days "leave pay" per annum is granted to workers. Clerical staff are allowed 31 days full pay per annum to cover leave of all descriptions.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. *Workshops*.—Employees have gained considerable knowledge of western methods. They do not take long to fall in with modern ideas and the handling of up-to-date machinery, thus increasing production.

*Mains*.—No very marked changes in case of unskilled labour.

*Clerical*.—Opportunities do not occur frequently to replace older clerks, etc.,<sup>a</sup> by better educated and more efficient employees. This process, however, slowly takes effect, resulting in increased efficiency. Generally the efficiency of the clerical staff might be considerably higher, and efforts are being made to achieve that end.

\* Not printed.

*Traffic.*—Since the end of the war the education of the employees has undoubtedly improved. We have many more English speaking conductors than we had in 1922, the year in which the last traffic strike occurred. The overall efficiency has also shown marked improvement. We think the improved scale of free issues of clothing has tended to increase employees' self-respect.

Speaking generally, the prevailing unemployment has acted as a restraining influence on employees. Those that have jobs intend to try to keep them; consequently they are more amenable to discipline than in past years.

115. (iv) Efficiency is undoubtedly improved by provision of housing for the following reasons :—(a) Less sickness as sanitation is much better; (b) more regular attendance at work, owing to accommodation being reasonably near work; (c) more regular meal and rest hours are possible; more hours are available for rest; (d) men on early, late, or irregular duties arrange with others sharing their rooms to prepare their food for them, and thus save the time normally devoted to preparing their own food.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (i) An entirely unofficial federation of the senior officers or partners in engineering firms exists in Bombay, under the name of "The Bombay Engineering Employers Federation." The members of this federation meet, when occasion demands, to discuss unofficially questions of interest relating to engineering problems met with in Bombay. The federation is officially recognized to the extent that the Director of Labour Intelligence usually furnishes copies of proposed legislation to the federation for opinion.

(ii) At the time when the serious labour unrest prevailed from about 1920 to 1922, many unions were formed in Bombay, amongst others being a union (Bombay Tramway Union) for the benefit of tramway employees. The company, when asked to recognize that union, laid down certain conditions to be fulfilled, prior to recognition being granted. Those conditions have not so far been fulfilled. The union, which is now known as "The Tramway Men's Union," is not recognized by the company. It is understood that in their Annual Report for 1928-29, the union claimed to have 881 members, of whom practically all were said to be employed in the company's workshop and other engineering departments. No traffic employees are said to belong to the union.

122. (i) In this company every employee has the right to appeal to the head of his department. Such appeals are made either personally, by deputation, or in writing. It is, however, generally known that, in the event of an employee not being satisfied with the decision of the chief officer of his department, an appeal lies to the general manager of the company. Judging from the number of appeals that are received, it can be assumed that this procedure is thoroughly well known. In the event of the general manager's decision being unsatisfactory, a further appeal lies to the board of directors of the company.

In the past negotiations have been, and they are still occasionally, carried through by deputations from employees in various departments to the chief officer of the department concerned, but in some cases directly to the general manager of the company.

(ii) *Workshop.*—Many employees do co-operate. Where up-to-date plant has been installed, they have increased production. Production will, it is hoped, be further increased by the formation of the sports club mentioned elsewhere, as a good foundation in sport is likely to be reproduced to some extent in work.

*Means.*—Definite improvement is noticeable in the case of skilled labour in recent years.

*Clerical.*—Response has been feeble, probably on account of :—(1) Long established traditional methods of working; (2) older employees not appreciating the appointment of new employees, who are frequently considerably better educated than they themselves.

*Traffic.*—There is a very marked inclination on the part of many of the men to co-operate, e.g., no labour trouble has been experienced since the 1922 strike. The tone of the men generally shows considerable improvement, no doubt in part due to the company's efforts to make their work as little irksome as possible, and to provide facilities for their welfare generally.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. Since the formation of the company in 1905 the following strikes have occurred :—

*Traffic Staff.*—1910. A short strike of conductors and drivers. 1920. From the 7th October to the 21st November. A general strike. 1922. From the 18th September to the 22nd November. A general strike.

*Workshops Staff.*—1919. 23rd January. 149 men struck work and were discharged. 1920. From the 26th January to the 7th February. A general strike. 1920. From the 7th October to the 2nd November. A general strike. 1920. From the 23rd December to the 29th December. *Hartal*; no work done though men presented themselves in the workshop. 1920. From the 30th December, 1920, to the 5th January, 1921. Workshop employees locked out.

The foregoing strikes occurred chiefly during the period of intense labour unrest, which prevailed for a period after the conclusion of the Great War.

The causes may be attributed to the increased cost of living, and arising therefrom to questions of pay and also partly to questions of hours worked, and leave granted.

At this distance of time, it is impossible to give information regarding the loss caused to the company and to the workers themselves, but it may be added that, in the traffic strike of 1922, 1,300 men were discharged, with loss of company's contributions to the provident fund and gratuities on retirement.

124. The difficulty that has always been experienced in handling the strikes which have occurred, has been to find any individual or any representative deputation of the employees, with whom negotiations could be carried through successfully.

In one or two cases gentlemen with no interest in the company have been agreed upon as interpreters. Assistance has not been rendered by official or non-official conciliators in settling disputes. Help has, however, been given by one or two independent gentlemen, who have advised both the company and the employees.

No use has been made of any statutory powers. No joint standing machinery is in existence for the regulation of relations between employers and employed.

(v) *Opportunity afforded to Workpeople for making Representations.*—This question has been fully answered under question 122 (1) above, but it may be added that it has been definitely proved on many occasions, that traffic employees specially take severe punishments or hardships lightly, *provided* they are given the opportunity to represent their cases. This is always done, and every man is given a patient hearing. His demands may not be acceded to, but he goes away happily, as he has attained his end by securing all he wanted, namely a full hearing.

#### XVII.—Administration.

138. The Factory Act provides that certain notices are to be exhibited in various languages in all factories. Such notices are exhibited in the company's workshop, which alone comes under the Factory Act.

139. (i) The factory inspector visits the workshop on an average twice a year, and his reports have indicated that very little of an unsatisfactory nature has been found.

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Major S. K. ENGINEER, O.B.E., F.R.C.P.E., Physician, J. J. Hospital,  
BOMBAY.

1. At present if a seaman is ill while the ship is in the docks or in the stream, he is treated on board by the company's doctor in cases of ordinary illness; if he requires special surgical treatment or is too ill to be treated on board, he is sent to one of the local hospitals for admission and treatment.

If the medical officer suspects malingering on the part of a seaman, he is kept under observation either on board or sent to the hospital for opinion.

While at sea, he is treated either by one of the officers or the chief steward of the ship who plays the part of a doctor.

2. At present there is no separate accommodation for a sick seaman. He has to sleep in the same room together with other seamen. This room contains from three to six berths for three to six seamen.

3. While at sea, if he is found suffering from any of the venereal diseases, he has to occupy his own berth together with other healthy seamen in the same room.

While in port, there is no accommodation at present in the Indian hospitals for such seamen to be treated as inpatients when surgical interference is required, then and then only are they admitted for treatment.

4. The ship's medicine chest is at present in any nook or corner. I have seen it even in the captain's bathroom. It contains drugs, instruments and such other appliances as are laid down in the Ship's Captain Medical Guide.

It contains some drugs which are as old as our grandfathers. There are others which are never used at all from the time the ship is launched till she is scrapped. There are no drugs recognized as specific for such conditions as cholera, dysentery, asthma, chronic bronchitis, rheumatism, etc.

Some instruments and appliances are not replaced even when they go out of order.

5. The doctor, the officer or the chief steward has also to do the work of the compounder and the dispenser.

6. The recipes in the Medical Guide are either obsolete or antiquated at present times.

7. The crew has to undergo vaccination two or three times in a year either in the same or at different ports without any necessity for doing so or for no fault of theirs. This is their common complaint.

8. The doctor, the officer or the chief steward does not receive any instructions in the handling of the instruments or the appliances. Whenever an emergency arises he reads the Medical Guide and tries to carry out the instructions to the best of his ability.

The officer receives lessons in first aid and has to pass the examination before he goes up for his "ticket", but it is not compulsory for the chief steward. Such certificates are valid for three years only. He is to be re-examined at the end of that period.

*Suggestions.*—1. While in port, if a seaman refuses to receive treatment or undergo an operation considered necessary by the company's doctor, he must be paid off and not allowed to stay on board under any pretext. The opinion of the company's medical officer must be final.

While at sea, if an operation is considered necessary, or the illness is of such a nature as not to be entrusted to one who acts as a doctor on the ship, he must be sent to the hospital, even if the necessity for such an operation or the treatment of the illness does not exist at the first port of arrival of the ship, for observation, opinion or treatment.

If the hospital authorities certify, he may join the ship or be paid off according to the circumstances.

2. Every ship must have a hospital consisting of two or more beds for sick seamen, while in port or at sea, suffering from dysentery, diarrhoea, gastritis, etc., in order to segregate them from others who occupy the same room.

3. While in port, venereal cases, even if suffering from a sore, must not be treated on board, but must be sent to the hospital or venereal clinics for treatment at those places where they are in existence. No seaman is to be "signed on" until he produces a certificate to the effect that he is free from the disease.

A venereal clinic card, such as one that is carried by the white crew, is to be demanded from the Indian crew, stating all the particulars of the kind of treatment he has received while at different ports, to enable the doctor in the next port to give further necessary treatment if required.

4. The ship's medicine chest must be located in the ship's hospital, and must contain such recognized drugs as are in common use at present by the medical profession.

The medical officer of the company must be held responsible for the medicine chest to be in order according to the regulations.

5. Those drugs that can be obtained in the form of pills or tablets must replace the present drugs—liquid or crystalline—to prevent any mistake on the part of those inexperienced who carry on the work as the compounder or the dispenser.

6. The Medical Guide requires thorough revision by a committee consisting of European and Indian doctors who have experience of Indian mercantile marine service.

7. Whenever the members of the crew of a ship have undergone vaccination or inoculation against smallpox, cholera, enteric, etc., each member must be supplied with a certificate to that effect signed by the medical officer. Such a certificate is to be held valid according to the regulations or the instructions of the port health officer.

8. Every officer after obtaining his first aid certificate must produce, before being promoted, a certificate of having passed an examination very nearly on the same lines as are prescribed in the book for "Home Nursing" by the St. John Ambulance Association, and on further promotion of having received instructions in the use and handling of instruments and appliances as are required in cases of emergency and for which they are provided in the medicine chest.

These instructions and certificates will not be a burden on the purse of those who have to perform these duties as they have to pay fees for instructions and certificates for the first aid, and whenever they go up for re-examinations. From my personal experience of nearly nineteen years I am of opinion that these further instructions will be much appreciated by those who have to perform their duties as doctors without any previous training. There is no necessity for an officer to get certificates in first aid every third year till he is promoted to the rank of captain. This present system is certainly a burden on his purse and unnecessary waste of his time, money and energy.

## Messrs. MACKINNON, MACKENZIE &amp; COMPANY.

## PART I.

*Recruitment etc., of Crews in Bombay by P. & O.S.N. Company.*

The Employment Bureau which exists as a sub-office of the Government shipping office in Bombay is not made use of by the P. & O. for recruiting purposes.

The method of recruiting seamen for the company's ships varies in each department and the following are the methods in use :—

*Deck Department.*—On the arrival of a time-expired crew in port, the serang reports to the marine superintendent and his name is placed on the roster.

He is told as far as practicable how long he is likely to have to wait for his next ship and is allowed to proceed to the country to await his next appointment. He is assured that his turn will not be missed and he and his crew leave Bombay for his village up country.

A serang being next on turn for employment is warned about a month in advance to what vessel he is to be appointed. A list of ratings required is given him, and he is required to present himself about 10 days in advance of the vessel's arrival with the nullies (continuous certificates of service) of his crew. These documents are carefully scrutinized by the company's marine superintendent and if satisfactory the crew are ordered to muster for his inspection. They are next examined by the company's surgeon and are then ready to be drafted to the ship.

The serang having had good warning of the date of his appointment is in nearly all cases, able to make up his entire crew from his own and adjacent villages.

Every encouragement is given to this, as it has been found on all occasions to tend to better discipline and to add to the general contentment of the crew.

*Duties.*—The Lascar seamen's duties when at sea commence at 6 a.m. and finish at 5 p.m. with two hours for meals.

On Saturdays during the forenoon a part of the crew are detailed to clean quarters. At 1 p.m. work ceases and the afternoon is allowed for washing and mending clothes.

On Sundays work ceases at 9 a.m. and the crew are allowed the day for rest.

In terminal ports the work is from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. except in winter time when it is from daybreak until dark.

It frequently happens that a vessel arrives in port during the night hours. On these occasions the crew are given time off during the next day.

*Engine Department.*—Men for the Engine room department are recruited from amongst Peshawuri Pathans, Chachi Pathans and Punjabis. The serangs are kept on a roster and given ships in order according to their suitability for the class of ship, time out of employment and the particular Jhat to which they belong.

There is a ghat serang for each community and his duties consist solely in aiding serangs to collect their crews and in providing odd ratings required for any purpose.

A serang selected for a ship is required to produce the discharge certificates of his men which are carefully looked through in the office before the men are produced for inspection and medical examination. Practically none of the men employed in the engine room crews have their homes in Bombay and, although there is generally a considerable number of men from each community staying in Jamatkanas, or boarding houses, in Bombay, it is often necessary for serangs to telegraph to their tindals or others to bring the men down to Bombay. This is especially the case during the harvest season.

It cannot be said that there is any serious unemployment amongst these men.

Unfortunately through the reduction in the number of the company's ships and the fact that many ships are now oil driven we have on our books many more serangs than we actually need. This means that serangs who have completed a year at sea are required to stand off to give others a turn of employment and that they will be on shore for a period of about 15 to 20 months.

The serangs do not wait in Bombay but go to their villages until near the time they may be required. Some even wait until they are sent for to take their turns.

This method has proved entirely satisfactory to the company and to the men themselves.

Every effort is made to prevent bribery and the serangs and men are warned at muster that any giving or taking of bribes will lead to instant dismissal from the company.

As neither the ghat serangs nor the brokers have any influence over the choice of serangs there is far less bribery than formerly and one or two cases of summary dismissal have discouraged the serangs from squeezing their men.

*Duties.*—Men are on three watches, working 4 hours and resting 8 hours.

*Saloon Crews.*—Only Goanese are employed in the native saloon crews of the P. & O. company's ships and these men are selected individually without any assistance from butlers or pantrymen.

Every man employed in P. & O. has his name registered in the company's books where a complete record of his service is kept.

When men are required for ships a list of men is made out from the register, names being taken in order according to the time they have been out of employment. If any men whose names are on the list fail to present themselves a message is sent to the man's club to ascertain if the man is in Bombay.

There are two unions in Bombay to which these men mostly belong—The Indian Seamen's Union and the Bombay Union. The majority of the P. & O. employees belong to the latter.

These unions are of assistance to us in bringing forward the men required. Although in the past the men have suffered heavily through mismanagement and defalcations in the Indian Seamen's Union, this appears now to have been remedied and as long as the unions use their funds for the benefit of their members and not for the benefit of the professional exploiters of labour, they should be of considerable service to the men during their long periods of unemployment.

The majority of Goanese are Portuguese subjects domiciled in Goa but they come to Bombay for employment, living in Goanese clubs or boarding houses of which there are over 300 in Bombay.

There is unfortunately a serious state of unemployment amongst these men and far more men are offering themselves for employment at sea than can be taken on.

With the exception of certain of the higher ratings no men are allowed to serve more than one year at sea. They must then come ashore to make room for others. The usual period of unemployment for the company's regular servants is, for pantrymen and saloon waiters about 16 months, for other ratings about nine months.

So far as the P. & O. company is concerned, this state of unemployment has been largely brought about by the men themselves or rather by unwise action of the Indian Seamen's Union in forcing them into a strike some three years ago.

*Duties.*—As in all other lines carrying Indian saloon crews.

The wages paid in the P. & O. company for ships engaging crews in Bombay is as follows :—

*Deck Department.*

Serang	..	..	..	Rs. 80 p.m.
Tindal	..	..	..	Rs. 51, 45 and 39 p.m.
Lascars	..	..	..	Rs. 32 p.m. (if with four years' sea service).
"	..	..	..	Rs. 29, 26, 23, 14 p.m., according to service.
Bhandary	..	..	..	Rs. 34 p.m.
Topas	..	..	..	Rs. 30 p.m.

*Engine Department.*

Serang	..	..	..	..	..	Rs. 80 p.m.
Panniwallahs	..	..	..	..	..	.. 44, 40, 36-3 p.m.
Tindals	..	..	..	..	..	.. 39 p.m.
Firemen	..	..	..	..	..	.. 30 "
" (2nd class)	..	..	..	..	..	.. 24 "
Bhandary	..	..	..	..	..	.. 34 "
" (Mate)	..	..	..	..	..	.. 19 "
Storekeeper	..	..	..	..	..	.. 35 "
Lampman	..	..	..	..	..	.. 32 "
Coal trimmer, Serang	..	..	..	..	..	.. 50 "
Coal trimmer	..	..	..	..	..	.. 24 "

*Pursers Department.*

(Goanese).

First Saloon Pantryman (Mail)	..	..	..	..	Rs. 100 p.m.
" " " (Intermediate)	..	..	..	..	.. 95 "
Second " " (Mail)	..	..	..	..	.. 65 "
" " " (Intermediate)	..	..	..	..	.. 60 "
Chief cook (passenger)	..	..	..	..	.. 150 "
Baker	..	..	..	..	.. 100 "
Cook (cargo)	..	..	..	..	.. 70 "
" " after two years	..	..	..	..	.. 80 "



*Pursers Department—continued.**(Goanese)—continued.*

Baker (cargo) .. .. .	Rs. 60 p.m.
Baker (cargo) after two years .. .. .	" 65 "
Troop cook .. .. .	" 75 "
" baker .. .. .	" 65 "
Assistant cook .. .. .	" 65 "
Second " .. .. .	" 55 "
" " after 5 years .. .. .	" 60 "
Curry cook .. .. .	" 50 "
Scullion .. .. .	" 30 "
Assistant baker .. .. .	" 55 "
Baker's mate .. .. .	" 35 "
" " after 5 years .. .. .	" 40 "
Butcher, mail .. .. .	" 80 "
" cargo .. .. .	" 60 "
Assistant butcher .. .. .	" 50 "
Butcher's mate .. .. .	" 30 "
" " after 5 years .. .. .	" 35 "
Iceman .. .. .	" 30 "
Knifeman .. .. .	" 30 "
Topas; .. .. .	" 30 "
Pantry boy .. .. .	" 15 "
Laundryman .. .. .	" 40 "
" " after 1 year .. .. .	" 45 "
General servants and messroom boys on promotion ..	" 25 "
General servants and messroom boys on promotion after 1 year.	" 40 "
General servants and messroom boys on promotion after 5 years.	" 45 "
General servants and messroom boys on promotion after 10 years.	" 50 "

*Bonus for Prevention of Desertion in London, Australia and China.*

Lascar serang .. .. .	Rs.20 each
" barra tindal .. .. .	" 10 "
Fireman serang .. .. .	" 20 "
Fireman tindals .. .. .	" 10 "
Coal trimmer serang .. .. .	" 20 "

## PART II.

**Resignation.**

Mazagon Dock is a marine engineering, shipwright and stores concern, dealing principally with the repairs and requirements of vessels of the P & O., B.I.S.N. Cos., and allied fleets sailing to and from the port of Bombay.

**Recruitment.**

*Labour.*—The bulk of the skilled labour employed comes from districts in the Bombay Presidency, the different classes employed are Hindu and Mahomedans, with some Indian Portuguese. The first named usually visit their homes once a year, more than the other classes. Casual and unskilled labour is not employed to any great extent in the works and is of the usual coolie class engaged as occasion requires.

*Absences.*—A small proportion of the workmen as stated above absent themselves before or after the monsoon to attend the cultivation of their fields and repairs to their homes.

*Number Employed.*—The average daily attendance of workmen in the engineering and shipwright departments is 2,300, with a minimum of 1,700 and maximum of 2,600 respectively. In addition, casual labour is engaged through the contractors, averaging 40 per day for the above, and a further number averaging about 250 men per diem are requisitioned by ship's officers for cleaning and scaling of vessels in the docks and harbour.

*Method of Recruiting.*—Skilled artisans are more or less permanently employed, with some fluctuation according to whether busy or slack times, other skilled or semi-skilled labour when required is obtained from men offering themselves for

employment and is selected according to proficiency and general ability of the applicant. The supply is usually greater than the demand and as selection is thus possible there is no need of employment agencies.

### Employment.

*Average duration of Employment.*—Workmen in the shops are allowed to work without any particular age limit, provided they continue physically fit, and some old workmen who have done good service in the past are retained under these conditions.

*Promotion.*—Skilled workmen are promoted to higher grades as opportunities occur, i.e., in the event of the position of mastery falling vacant by death or retirement.

*Retrenchment.*—This must necessarily affect the permanent workmen disadvantageously when sufficient work does not present itself to give employment to the whole number, but to minimise the hardship as much as possible the men are put on shifts during slack periods which is apportioned as equitably as possible.

*Labour for Mail and Passenger Service.*—Casual labour to the average of about 230 men weekly is employed through contractors, on the arrival and departure of vessels, in the handling of mails and passengers' baggage.

*Relations between Staff and Workmen.*—These are generally satisfactory. The workmen have always access to their superior officers and through him to the general manager, or even direct access is not denied.

### Time-Keeping.

*Registers.*—Attendance is registered by timekeeper and staff of clerks, checked by the superior officer in each department and extensions checked by accounts department. Men working outside or on vessels are mustered and sent out on a "challan" (description of work to be done form) to the officer of the vessel, or to any other party, where requisitioned.

### Wages.

*Payments.*—Payments are made in cash monthly, on a daily rate of wage; payments are made about the middle of the month, the payment boxes being filled in the managing agents' offices, brought to the works and distributed by, or in the presence of responsible departmental officer. Daily paid or casual labour engaged through contractors is paid by them.

*Basis of Payment for Overtimes.*—Overtime is calculated on the same basis as ordinary pay, i.e., 8 hours per day.

*Deduction by Fining.*—Is not resorted to.

*Unclaimed Wages.*—These are returned to the managing agents if not claimed within a week or ten days.

### Health.

*Sanitary Arrangement in Works.*—Suitable latrines and water supply is provided, with drinking water taps and wash places are provided.

*Accidents.*—There is a surgery with an apothecary in attendance, to provide first aid in the case of accidents, which if serious are conveyed to the hospital.

### Hours.

*Hours per Weekday.*—Working hours in engineering and shipwright departments are: weekdays from 7.30 a.m. to 12 noon, and 1 p.m. to 5 p.m.: 8½ hours. Working hours on Saturdays from 7.30 a.m. to 1.30 p.m., 6 hours: totalling 48½ hours per week.

*Holidays.*—There are four paid holidays in the year, viz., New Year's Day, Good Friday, King Emperor's Birthday and Christmas Day. Sunday is observed as a day of rest, except when urgent work on steamers demands attendance.

*Small Craft Flotilla.*—There is a number of tugs, launches and barges in use for harbour work, manned by an aggregate of 500 men. These men more or less live on board the craft and do not serve under articles of agreement. The Indian Merchant Shipping Act does not apply to these vessels.

*Stores.*—A large store is maintained for ships' requirements giving employment to 60 permanent coolies and about 28 occasional men per day.

### Welfare.

*Recreation.*—A teashop is run by outside agency situated on the premises and a sports club which is chiefly patronized by clerical staff.

*Loan Society.*—An employees' co-operative society was instituted seven years ago, open to all workmen and clerks, the purpose of which is to enable employees to invest savings in a safe and remunerative manner and to obtain loans on reasonable terms and so avoid usurious money lenders.

The present number of members is 888, the issued share capital is Rs. 96,501, and the outstanding loans are Rs. 81,975.

*Safety.*—Every reasonable precaution is taken for the safety of workers, which is carried out to the satisfaction of the Factory Act Inspector in the guarding of moving parts of machinery, testing of crane wires, etc., which measures are not only consistent with humanitarian motives, but in self interest. The Indian Compensation Act provides a strong incentive to safety measures.

*Workmen's Compensation.*—According to the Act employees "waiting periods" are paid for at compensation rates.

### Trade Combinations.

*Individual Trade Unions.*—One union so far has been constituted i.e., the Mazagon Dock Employees Union. This is in its infancy, and about 50 per cent. of the workmen are members. So far, its attitude generally speaking, is similar to other unions, under the management of outside labour leaders whose view point is always one-sided, without any regard to equity between the worker and the employer; the demand generally being increase of pay, irrespective of skill and efficiency in the worker, and continued employment whether there is work or not for him. Strict impartiality is observed in dealing with unionists and non-unionists. A desirable feature in these unions would be the management of their own concerns without interference from outside unions.

#### List of Minimum and Maximum Rates for June, 1929.

Designation.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average.
Blacksmith .. ..	1 12	3 6	2 6
Carpenters .. ..	1 4	3 0	2 2
Coppersmiths .. ..	2 0	2 10	2 3
Tinsmiths .. ..	1 6	2 4	1 13
Coolies .. ..	1 0	1 2	1 1
Fitters .. ..	1 8	3 10	2 8
Brass finishers .. ..	1 12	2 12	2 3
Moulders .. ..	1 12	2 12	2 3
Masons and bricklayers .. ..	2 0	3 14	2 8
Muccadums .. ..	1 13	2 8	2 3
Oilers .. ..	—	1 6	1 6
Patternmakers .. ..	1 12	3 10	2 7
Painters .. ..	1 0	3 9	1 11
Riveters .. ..	1 7	1 15	1 11
Rivet boys .. ..	1 0	1 5	1 2
Hammermen .. ..	1 2	1 8	1 5
Turners .. ..	2 4	4 6	2 12
" mistry .. ..	—	5 0	5 0
Sawyers .. ..	1 15	3 0	2 3

LETTER FROM MESSRS. MACKINNON MACKENZIE & CO., AGENTS,  
THE BRITISH INDIA STEAM NAVIGATION CO. LTD., NO. S/3479, DATED  
11TH DECEMBER, 1929.

We have the honour to address you on the subject of the evidence tendered to your Commission on 23rd ultimo by the shipping master and the secretaries of the Indian Seamen's Union and the Bombay Seamen's Union, and would make the following comments in case they may be helpful to the members of the Commission.

### Recruitment.

We agree with the shipping master that the present system is quite satisfactory to employers. It was stated by the secretary of the Indian Seamen's Union that the engagement of serangs for this company is controlled by the shipping broker, but we would point out that this is not the case. We keep a register of serangs and butlers and they are engaged direct by our respective superintendents in conjunction with

the commanders and chief engineers, and all other qualifications being equal preference is given to the man who has been longest out of employment. If we have no suitable serangs available, we apply to the shipping master for a few to be sent to our office, from which we make our selection quite independent of the brokers.

With regard to the suggestion that all seamen should be registered and employment offered to them in rotation, we do not favour this. It is our experience with regard to deck and engineroom crews that to obtain satisfactory results it is essential that the serangs and the men have mutual respect for each other and the present system under which the serang and his men come from the same locality or the same village lends itself to the smooth and efficient working of the department. It is not uncommon in the event of a serang leaving a ship through illness or other cause, for the crew to refuse to sail under another serang, and we think the idea of a serang having to engage men in rotation would prove most unsatisfactory even if found practicable. Naturally we prefer crews who have experience of our methods of working and we could not agree to being required to take men strictly in order of rotation. The company is responsible for the lives of passengers and the safe carriage of cargo, and we are therefore entitled to have a free hand in the selection of our men, in the same way as any other employer of labour.

We do not consider that unemployment is as serious as it appears at first glance, and we would point out that according to our information it is the custom for Indian seamen to return to their country for a considerable period, even up to eight to twelve months, after a year's service afloat, therefore only a portion of the seamen shown as unemployed are seeking employment, for it is our experience that, at times, serangs have difficulty in mustering a crew. We agree that the number of serangs offering is far in excess of the demand but do not think that it would be possible for more than three quarters of the serangs to muster a full crew at the same time. Most of these men would secure employment within a reasonable period if they were willing to sign on as lower ratings.

As we feel that it may be possible to arrange for the engagement of Goanese saloon crews in rotation by registering each suitable applicant for employment and engaging them in rotation, we have been experimenting in certain of our steamers. Results to date have not proved entirely satisfactory, for when the crew is appointed, the butler invariably complains that certain members of the crew are not to his liking, and it is found that the men to whom he takes exception are men who are not from his native village. When the butler is called upon to explain any shortages of plate, linen stores, etc., on the vessel's return to port, he protests that he complained about certain of the crew appointed and claims that he cannot be held responsible for the actions of men of whom he does not approve.

*Calcutta Crews on Bombay Steamers.*—It was mentioned that Calcutta crews were brought to Bombay as their wages are lower than those prevailing in Bombay. Wages in Calcutta are slightly lower than in Bombay, but when the cost of bringing the men across is taken into consideration there is little or no saving.

We may say our reason for employing Calcutta engineroom crews is entirely due to their being found more efficient under the conditions which the vessels they are employed on run. The disadvantage of employing them is that to replace men who desert or fall sick we have to send to Calcutta, and this takes a few days to do, and sometimes results in a vessel sailing without her full complement.

In April, 1928, we appointed a Bombay engineroom crew to the "Karoo," on the African Mail Line, but the result was not a success. On the first three voyages it was found that the trimmers although keeping six hour watches had great difficulty in supplying the firemen with sufficient coal. On the fourth voyage the trouble was more serious, and the steamer left Seychelles a day late, and some of the deck crew were sent below to assist the firemen and trimmers. The coal consumption of the steamer also increased very considerably owing to bad firing and we, therefore, had no alternative but to revert to Calcutta men.

In July, 1928, we tried a Bombay engineroom crew on the "Ellora," on the African Line, with similar results. As a Ratnagiri crew could not be obtained (which seems to discredit the reports of unemployment) a Punjab crew was signed on, and they were personally selected by the shipping master. Adverse reports were received after the first voyage, but the chief engineer was willing to persevere with the men and latterly they turned out fairly satisfactory. As 26 of these men refused to sign on again on expiry of articles, and it was impossible to obtain a suitable Ratnagiri crew, we were compelled to engage a Calcutta crew.

It has been our experience throughout that Calcutta engineroom crews are more satisfactory than Bombay crews on steamers which have to maintain a fairly high speed.

The following statement shows that the number of Bombay crews employed on the company's steamers based on this port is far in excess of the number of Calcutta men engaged.

	Deck crew.	Engineroom crew.	Saloon crew.
Slow Gulf Service :			
Five steamers .. .. .	Bombay	Bombay	Bombay
Fast Gulf Service :			
Three steamers .. .. .	Bombay	Calcutta	Bombay
African Service :			
Five steamers .. .. .	Bombay	Calcutta	Bombay
African Coast Service :			
Two motor vessels .. .. .	Bombay	Bombay	Bombay
Karachi Service :			
Two steamers .. .. .	Bombay	Calcutta	Bombay
Malabar Service :			
Two steamers—1 steamer .. .. .	Bombay	Calcutta	Bombay
1 steamer .. .. .	Bombay	Bombay	Bombay
Home Line :			
Two motor vessels—1 motor vessel .. .. .	Calcutta	Calcutta	Bombay
1 motor vessel .. .. .	Calcutta	Bombay	Bombay
Four steamers—2 steamers .. .. .	Bombay	Bombay	Bombay
1 steamer .. .. .	Bombay	Calcutta	Bombay
1 steamer .. .. .	Calcutta	Calcutta	Calcutta

*Brokers.*—The broker's only duty in connection with new crews is to make an advance of one month's pay to each man who is engaged. Should any man desert or be signed off articles before he has earned the amount of his advance, the loss of the unearned portion is borne by the broker. In return for this immunity from loss the company pay to the broker a commission of 5 per cent. on all advances made by him. It was suggested that this work might be performed by a Seamen's Co-operative Society, and we would have no objection provided we are guaranteed the same immunity as at present.

We trust that the contents of this letter will prove of assistance to the members of your Commission and we shall be glad to supply any further information you may desire.

Mrs. SHAREEFA HAMID ALI, VICE PRESIDENT, ALL INDIA WOMEN CONFERENCE AND PRESIDENT KOLABA WOMEN'S ASSOCIATION.

### III.—Housing.

16. Very few houses are supplied for labourers by factory or millowners. Their housing accommodation is usually extremely insanitary. Eight or twelve people sometimes occupy one small room in large industrial cities like Bombay.

There are one or two mills which have built good quarters for their workers. I consider the Sholapur mills, owned by Narotamdas Morarji as a model mill in this respect. Private houses are more expensive than those supplied by millowners or factories and their sanitary condition much worse.

It is urgently necessary that Government should appoint more women inspectors to supervise the housing of women labourers as housing accommodation has a good or evil moral effect on workers, especially the young women and girl workers.

### IV.—Health.

23. General health of working class mothers is far from good. Opium is given to babies as a rule by the working-class women to keep them quiet. This leads, of course to great infant mortality and physical deterioration of the children.

Every factory which employs women should be made compulsorily to keep a creche and to appoint a trained factory welfare worker. In this respect India is far behind England where in a place like Horrocks works for instance five welfare workers are employed. And this is pretty generally the practice in all the centres of labour in England.

25. Even when medical facilities are provided the women do not know how to make use of them. For this it is necessary either to employ or to encourage social workers to come and teach the women the necessity of using sanitary arrangements,

taking care of their drinking water, the need of bathing and washing and also more necessary than anything else the need of getting in only trained midwives or women doctors for maternity cases. Unless registration of dais and midwives is made compulsory the women labourers will undoubtedly send for the cheapest help and that will be the untrained filthy dai who is chiefly responsible for the appalling mortality amongst women and children.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

Employers must be made to feel responsible about the general welfare of their workers. As far as women are concerned they must be given the use of hospitals, creches and maternity homes, and arrangements made for their education, not in schools necessarily, but by talks on health, hygiene, food values, baby nurture, cooking, housekeeping and training of children, and arrangements should also be made to teach the three "R's" to those women who are willing to learn.

Very few mills or factories even provide a shelter for meals. The Sholapur mills is the only place I have seen where a canteen for millhands is provided.

56. Reading and writing for men and children should be compulsory, and a good deal of teaching in various domestic and health subjects should be given by lantern slides for men, women and children.

38. Co-operative grain shops and cloth shops should be provided by every mill and factory.

#### VI.—Education.

41. It is desirable to have vocational and industrial schools attached to teach the future workers.

42. The right type of education does undoubtedly increase the efficiency of industrial workers.

#### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

82. The admission of infants in factories is necessary, but employers must be compelled by law to provide a creche for each factory.

83. Women should not be allowed to work for more than six hours, because they are compelled to do a good deal of work at home before and after working hours.

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#### Miss M. KARA, SEVA MANDIR, BOMBAY.

*The Housing Problem in the district of Tardeo.*—Our knowledge of the housing conditions in the district of Tardeo is limited. Here we shall only state those facts which we have collected through the inhabitants or through our own observation of 6 or 8 chawls (tenements) we come in contact with almost daily, due to our social service centre in that district. The dwelling places occupied by the wage earning classes are of four types :—

- (i) Chawls owned by private individuals, (ii) chawls provided by the employers, (iii) chawls provided by the B.B. & C.I. Rly. Co. with somewhat modern structure, (iv) tin sheds. The plots owned by the landlords.

The Maneckji Petit Mills which is in the district where we do our social work, provides thirteen chawls with 400 rooms for their workers. The total number of workers at this mill is about 4,050. We are in touch with only one of these 13 chawls provided by the employers.

There is no building provided by the Government in our district but there are four chawls provided by the B.B. & C.I.Rly. Co., and the rest are owned by private owners.

*Nature of Accommodation provided by the Employers.*—Through the studies of the chawls of the employers, we can say in general that the housing condition of these labourers is very unsatisfactory. One room is provided for each family which is not big enough for our joint family system. Also the members are allowed to sub-let their rooms, to keep boarders even in the passages, on verandahs and also they build a shelf in the passage where people rest during the night. Very often one family has 14 to 15 boarders in such a small room. The mill authorities officially allow 4 to 5 members in one room, but this rule is not strictly observed.

*Chawls owned by Private Individuals.*—There seem a considerable contrast between chawls provided by the employers and private individuals. In the first case, the advantage is of the rent, which is practically half of that of the private owners. Also the rooms are better lighted and better ventilated because of the verandahs in the front. The employers' chawls also provide "mori" (washing place) in the room for the purpose of washing and bathing, which is a very great help to the women folk, specially at the time of sickness and delivery. Also a garbage can is provided to collect the rubbish, and we do not see open drainage in between two chawls. The above mentioned facilities are not found in the chawls owned by private individuals. The private chawls are absolutely inadequate to meet the demand of the workers. The rooms are small, dark and stuffy. The greatest disadvantage is that they have no "mories" (washing places) or no place even to throw water while cooking. We know of some cases where a temporary shed was put up in front of the room to wash a newly born baby. Every kind of household washing is done in front of the room, where the water collects. There are taps provided at the end of each storey, but there is no facility in the room. There is more sub-letting, as they are free from restrictions regarding sub-letting, cleanliness and sanitation.

*Result on Health.*—The result of such housing on the health of the workers is detrimental. The over-crowding in the room affects health and morals. There is no satisfactory arrangement as regards latrines, drainage or cleanliness on the whole, either in the chawls provided by the employers or by the private landlords. There are still some latrines where there is no flush system. Also the complaints regarding bad drainage, broken pipes, etc., are not attended to by the people in charge. The Muccadams or the Bhaiyas who are supposed to look after the sanitation and see to the regular attendance of the sweepers are very slack in their duties. The result is that there is always a terrible smell in both these types of houses. The old-fashioned latrines should be at once replaced by the new ones. During the monsoon, the water leaks from the roof in some cases. The ground being uneven the water collects during the monsoon. This results in malaria and many other diseases.

*Nature of Accommodation in Tin Sheds.*—The tin sheds are occupied by the depressed classes. These are level with the streets, and are not high enough for a person to stand erect. These tins are fitted together by stones, etc., and men, children, chickens and goats are herded together as one family. Each big shed is divided by cloth drapings into 4 or 6 rooms, occupied by 4 to 6 families. There is no light or ventilation and such huts are absolutely unsuited for any human habitation. These huts have been in existence for many years. There are no taps, no latrines, no water supply and the inhabitants have to go a long way for their respective needs. They have no baths for days and days, and we see the children covered with dirt, playing in mud by the side of the goats and the chickens. During the summer the sheds are too hot in the afternoons, so the inhabitants are found sitting on the roadside in the shade. Very little need be said in such circumstances regarding the results on health and morals. Just close to these huts there are buffalo stables, which have bad effect on the health of the people.

*Utilisation by the Workers of the Housing Accommodation available.*—There are no improvement trust chawls in our district, but the chawls provided by the employers are gladly utilized and appreciated by the workers; but such chawls are very few in number.

*Rent Rates.*—There is a considerable difference in rents of the employers' chawls and those of the private owners. The employers charge about Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-8 annas per room while they vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8.

The system of the rent in these tin sheds is very complicated. A man who owns a piece of land has given a contract for a certain sum, to another man who lives in the neighbourhood. This man has again given a contract to the Bhaiya who charges about Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per shed to the inhabitants who sub-let their rooms to others.

*Problem of Sub-letting.*—This problem is very difficult in labour classes. Often the men-folk come to Bombay from the villages and have no homes. They come and stay with their relatives and pay some money for board and lodging. The head man of the family who is directly paying the rent for the chawls provided by the employer, is not employed elsewhere, but many others in his family and the boarders, who take advantage of these chawls, are not necessarily working at the same mill or factory.

*Effect on Morals.*—The present housing system leads to overcrowding and lack of privacy. The family life hence becomes very difficult, and all the activities of the home life are impeded. One great disadvantage is that many of the men folk do not bring their wives and children to Bombay, for want of room, and hence the men lead an immoral life. Often a man lives with another woman as his wife, and everything results in misery. Also when a mother is expecting a baby, she gives birth to

a child in the same room, where there are big grown-up boys and girls. At night all men, women and children sleep together. Often a newly-married couple get half of the room separated by a piece of cloth.

There are also common latrines for men and women which also have a bad result on morals.

*Improvement Suggested.*—The workers should have at least 2 rooms with 2 windows and a little space in the front. There should be 1 "mori" in each room. Also the system of sub-letting should be entirely abolished. The flooring in the room, should be of stone pavement and not of mud, as it is at present. There should be a separate latrine for men and women and more than one tap on each floor. Garbage-cans should not only be provided, but it should be seen that they are used. The supervision of the Muccadams and Bhaiyas should be regular and strict. The municipality should take more interest, and better care of such existing huts, sheds, and chawls. The people in charge, e.g., Muccadams are very neglectful to the complaints of the workers. The sweepers should attend more regularly than they have been.

*Tin Sheds.*—It is impossible to improve upon the tin sheds in any way; and the only alternative suggestion that could be made is that the municipal authority should never allow such huts to be erected, and should see to it that the existing ones are demolished as early as possible.

*Conclusion.*—This is our general observation about the housing conditions in the locality of Tardeo, where we conduct our work under Seva-Mandir. Our institution has been in existence for the last three years only, but we have done our best to help and uplift the cause of the workers. We have often taken women to the hospitals for their confinements and other sicknesses, for the very reason of bad housing. We have given free medical help to many women and children at our clinic. To take away children from the bad housing conditions, we have organized play centres for boys and girls in the evenings. We also have given health talks in the chawls and at our centre to women. There is also a nursery school at our centre for children, who would otherwise be in the streets. Many boys and girls are taken to the municipal schools by our workers. The grown-up girls and women come to us daily for educational and social purposes.

Thus we in our small way are trying to help the cause of the needy and the poor, yet, such private social agencies can do very little till the very homes of our people are what they should be.

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Dr. NUSSERWANJEE HORMUSJEE VAKEEL, M.R.C.S. (ENGLAND),  
L.R.C.P. (LONDON).

Practising for the last 17 years in Bombay, I have been associated for the last 14 years with the textile mill industry of this city in the way of being medical officer to four different mills, viz., The Simplex Mills, the Mathradas Mills, the Hong Kong Mills, and the Wadia Woollen Mills. Of these at present I am medical officer of the first two mills only. During these 14 years, I have had a fair insight into the working of medical relief for the textile mill hand in this city, the effect of such relief on the physical well-being of the textile labourer and where such relief to my mind is defective.

In 1914, and up till the War came to an end, medical relief to the mill hands was poor indeed. Most of the mill dispensaries were very miserably equipped with medicines and the dispensaries were a disgrace. Even to-day, though several mill dispensaries have vastly improved, and some of them actually good, there are yet a good many where there is plenty of room for improvement, both in the quality and quantity of medicines supplied, as well as the general appearance and equipment of these dispensaries. In spite of this, as will be seen from the attached statistics of the two mills I have been in charge of (and I dare say other medical officers of some of the well-equipped dispensaries of some other good mills are of the same opinion), much good is done by these dispensaries; and if a personal interest is taken in the physical well-being of the mill-hand by the medical officer himself and not left to his subordinates, these dispensaries become very popular. The textile labourer shows on the whole, appreciation of work done and feels grateful for what is being done by the mill agents for medical relief.



The economic factor is largely responsible for the somewhat bad state of a good few of these dispensaries, as, much economy is exercised in the ordering of drugs. Imported drugs are very expensive in Bombay, and although much head-way is made in the way of manufacturing several drugs in India, and these can be bought in the market at comparatively low rates, they do not compare in quality to the product of the west and so the individual that suffers owing to cheap drugs bought, is the patient. In Great Britain great facilities are provided by the Government for the labour population to supply medicines cheap, and I do not see why the local Government or Government of India cannot help the mill-owners in these critical times to supply medicines to these institutions at very low rates. This can easily be done if the imported drugs are supplied to the mills at import duty-free rates. The indents for the supply of medicines for each month or each quarter of the year may be sent to special Government departments for inspection and endorsements. The medicines can then be bought at the usual market rates by the mill agents and then the Government can be asked to pay the mills the difference in the cost, which, in other words would mean that the medicines would be supplied duty-free. If this be done, better quality medicines and a larger amount of them can be bought by their agents for the relief of their employees.

In spite of much agitation, great talk and a number of strikes, I can unhesitatingly say that the health and general physical condition of the textile labourer, in general, has vastly improved since the years 1914-16, and in my opinion the factors responsible for this improvement are various :—

- (1) Better pay.
- (2) Lesser hours of work.

(3) Great improvement in the sanitary conditions of such parts of Bombay in which the mills are situated—the roads, which were the most horrible in Bombay are to-day, about the very best, minimizing the nuisance of dust (which means much less disease) ; and narrow lanes are converted into fine broad roads. The northern part of the island where most of the mills are situated is thus a different place in many respects.

(4) The chawls, though they are not all that is desirable and a few of the criticisms directed against them are certainly true, are, however, infinitely better than the horrible hovels in which the labourer used to stay in days gone by, as there is certainly more light and ventilation for fresh air in these new chawls than there used to be in the old dwellings.

(5) Lastly, the Compensation Act has been of very great benefit to the worker. Few can appreciate the real advantages of this Act more than men like me who were accustomed to see the ill-effects of the absence of this Act and compare them with the great advantages derived from its existence at the present time. It may be said at once, that even in pre-Act days, many mill agents at the recommendations of their managers were very humane and generous in compensating their men for injuries, but in most cases few cared as to what happened to the injured person—whether he lost a finger or a limb or his life, and the irony of losing a finger or a limb, was often, though not always, that he lost his job also—perhaps the only compensation he received. With minor injuries, certainly, he had to work day after day, causing him much pain and suffering and very often it was the jobber who was responsible for this cruelty as he was in those days more powerful than what he is to-day, and the movement of the injured parts with work caused not only pain, but slow healing of wounds. To-day things are vastly different. Whether the accident be small or great, the injured person is at once taken to the departmental head who sends the patient, accompanied by a jobber, to the mill dispensary. There the wound is examined and receives first-aid at once, the wound being thoroughly sterilized. If the nature of the injury is serious, the patient is at once sent to the hospital in a municipal ambulance which runs an admirable service, being always very prompt in honouring calls for accidents. If the injury is not so serious it is treated all the time at the mill dispensary and until the injured part is cured the patient is not allowed to work, and he gets full pay for the time he is recovering, provided of course, the medical officer in charge of the dispensary certifies to his regular attendance for treatment.

Although as a result of this Act, which, thanks mostly to the goodwill of the mill agents appears to work comparatively smoothly, the interest of the injured being thus secured, there must be set on foot some movement amongst the men themselves by resorting *en masse* to insurance against illness. It is a common and very often a sad sight to see men with high fevers trying to work against their strength and ability, not for one or two days but for several days together, because of the fear of loss in wages for the time they are absent ; and when recovered from the fever,

Mathuradas Mills, 1926-27.

	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	Total. in the Year
Accidents, injuries, dressings ..	749	781	758	748	646	529	564	400	306	377	239	236	6,333
Gastro-intestinal diseases .. ..	140	92	101	117	189	167	134	41	60	77	73	44	1,235
Diseases of skin .. .. .	498	556	518	735	759	560	600	469	359	483	341	394	6,271
Diseases of respiratory system ..	105	90	109	108	177	166	186	222	155	108	49	50	1,525
Diseases of genito-urinary .. ..	40	39	61	46	79	42	43	23	25	35	17	22	472
Diseases of muscles, joints and nerves	564	633	649	890	941	644	644	528	474	511	394	463	7,335
Diseases of teeth .. .. .	42	44	42	55	53	52	63	28	26	30	24	14	473
Diseases of eye .. .. .	60	60	59	71	68	61	75	33	33	34	25	18	597
Diseases of ear .. .. .	66	73	81	81	81	82	73	44	39	49	51	39	759
Nose and throat .. .. .	32	27	35	39	33	39	26	17	13	14	14	5	294
Operations .. .. .	11	6	2	11	8	7	5	5	3	9	5	7	79
A.—Fever malaria .. .. .	557	715	704	802	907	595	645	420	337	369	284	319	6,792.
B.—Other fevers .. .. .	88	104	108	129	149	100	88	50	44	53	37	41	991
													33,107

Simplex Mills, 1927-28.

	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	Total in the Year.
Accidents, injuries, dressings ..	647	744	868	568	605	475	447	521	436	464	422	476	6,673
Gastro-intestinal diseases .. ..	221	303	345	364	336	242	211	220	162	160	215	242	3,021
Skin diseases .. .. .	620	865	956	823	889	499	388	337	272	305	283	361	6,598
Diseases of respiratory system ..	130	215	186	292	329	300	235	274	234	199	206	191	2,791
Diseases of genito-urinary .. ..	39	55	68	99	110	65	81	155	116	107	115	96	1,101
Diseases of muscles, joints, nerves ..	335	332	371	419	441	378	364	357	408	368	415	369	4,557
Diseases of teeth .. .. .	47	35	34	29	36	53	66	76	85	38	51	66	616
Diseases of eye .. .. .	79	49	102	105	64	41	100	92	83	52	127	134	1,028
Diseases of ear .. .. .	125	145	222	121	102	79	117	86	82	98	85	155	1,417
Diseases of nose and throat.. ..	20	14	22	55	33	5	27	43	6	25	39	41	330
Operation and injection .. .. .	10	12	10	14	7	7	8	9	3	6	7	3	96
A.—Fever malaria .. .. .	244	333	458	511	511	418	346	304	262	253	284	292	4,216
B.—Other fevers .. .. .	73	68	71	78	97	76	82	64	60	56	62	66	853
C.— .. .. .	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
													33,300

## AMBERNATH LABOUR UNION.

## I.—Recruitment.

Workers of various communities from different parts of India are working at Ambernath in the factory owned by The Western India Match Co., Ltd. Pathans, Criminal Tribe settlers, Mahomedans from Northern India and Malabar, Navaganis from the Deccan plateau and Konkanis from neighbouring villages and the sea-coast, Malbari Hindus and Bhayas from Northern India, Christians from Goa and other parts, Telegus and others from Southern-India form the labour force of Ambernath.

In the rainy season when cultivation starts the village workers are frequently absent from work and some of them take final settlement and go away returning to seek employment when agricultural work is over. About 1,500 workers are generally employed in the factory.

Recruitment is practically through the supervisors resulting in favouritism and jobbery. If the workers are recruited by the management in co-operation with the local union favouritism and jobbery may be put a stop to.

There is much unemployment at Ambernath. Some workers have been victimized since the failure of the last strike in July, 1929. Lack of village industries is also responsible for unemployment to a certain extent. The village boys are often found seeking jobs in the factory in order to supplement their family income. There is more supply of labour than there is a demand for and this unemployment cannot be checked unless a few more industries are established at Ambernath.

*Unemployment Insurance.*—Some scheme for the relief of the unemployment at least for workers permanently settled in the Industrial Centre is necessary.

*Employment is Insecure.*—Leave rules are not liberal enough to meet human needs. Workers have often to take final settlement and go away because they cannot get leave even for a legitimate purpose. When they are able to resume work they come back to seek re-employment. Workers are in no way benefited by sticking loyally to their jobs. Absenteeism prevails to some extent. There is no difference made between regular and an irregular worker. The favourites of the supervisors are allowed all sorts of latitude while others are harassed. Agricultural operations in the rainy season, undetected and unrecorded sickness and necessity of relaxation to remove strain of work are some of the causes of absenteeism.

## II.—Staff Organization.

The manager of the factory, the works manager and the officers in charge of different departments are generally Europeans who do not know the language of the workers sufficiently well. They have, therefore, to depend on the supervisors who are recruited from English knowing workers in some cases. These middle men are in no way superior in culture to the workers and are responsible for many malpractices prevailing in the factory.

There are no facilities for the training either of the supervisors or workers. Promotions of workers are rare. There is no human touch between masters and men. The relations between them are quite mercenary. The system of employing supervisors of low standing is responsible for many malpractices. Works committees, works councils and industrial councils are not in existence. Record of work done and attendance are kept by supervisors. Wages are paid to workers in the departments through the officers in charge of the departments. Works committees started in a patronizing spirit cannot work satisfactorily. If the workers' representatives on a works committee are elected through the workers' unions, where they exist, such organizations may help both the employers and the employees.

## III.—Housing.

The majority of workers are housed by the management. There are four types of rooms built. New chawls have been recently built for higher class of workers, the monthly rent of each room being about Rs. 6 in addition to water charge at the rate of 6 annas per head per month. The second type of houses are concrete buildings and a great many workers have to live in rooms made wholly of iron sheets. These last are quite unfit for human habitation as they get very hot in the hot season and very cold in winter. Generally the working class families live in one room tenements. This results in overcrowding and is detrimental to health as well as to morals of the people concerned. Rents vary from Re. 1 to Rs. 6 per month according to the type of room occupied. During strikes the workers do feel the disadvantages of living in houses built by the employers. If workers are encouraged to build cottages in village fashion on modern plans they can be housed very cheaply and each family

may be allowed to have as many rooms as its number require. If Government and the management encourage the workers in organizing a Co-operative Housing Society the above suggestion may be carried out resulting in removal of overcrowding and consequent physical and moral improvement of the workers.

#### IV.—Health.

The general health of the workers is not satisfactory. There are annual visitations of malaria and other epidemics. Evil effects of disturbance of sex ratio are also marked.

Medical facilities are provided by the employers by maintaining a dispensary for workers. But as the present doctor in charge of it is very unpopular with workmen they use it only when they cannot do without it. They often prefer to go for treatment to another local doctor who is in charge of a dispensary in the Dharamsi Morarj Chemical Works, even though they have to pay for it. No provision is made of women doctors, trained midwives or dais. Sanitary arrangements are not satisfactory. Latrines both in the factory and the chawls are often out of order. There is a scramble for water supply at certain common water taps where water can be had only at stated hours and crowds are always seen doing penance for water. Bath-rooms and washing places are not provided.

Sickness insurance is urgently needed by working class people. They are in a great plight when they fall sick as their absence from work even for a single day deprives them of their wages and they have to incur additional expense to get cured.

A nursing home conducted with the ideal of service will make medical help popular with the people.

Maternity benefits have not yet begun. There are cases of women who have even lost their jobs after confinement.

#### V.—Welfare.

There is no welfare work done by the employers. The labour union has recently made a small beginning by organizing a Co-operative Credit Society and a store for the workmen. The management is willing to help such activities.

Two shop-keepers are allowed to run refreshment rooms in the factory. These rooms are shabby and are far from satisfactory. The so-called creche in the factory is a mockery. There is no systematic attempt made for provision of physical culture recreation and amusements.

The labour union since it started work in May, 1928, has arranged a few dramatic performances, a magic show and two magic-lantern lectures for the recreation of the workers.

For adults no education facilities are made available. For workers' children a primary school is maintained by the employers, but as its working is entrusted to a christian mission it is not as popular as it ought to be.

Provision ought to be made for old age and premature retirement of workers; otherwise they are sure to be stranded when they are no longer able to work and they are no more able to earn their living or be a drag on the earning members of their families. The necessaries of life such as food and clothes ought to be supplied to workers at cost price so that their meagre earnings may be made to go a long way.

#### VI.—Education.

There is a local board school at Ambernath for the children of the locality in addition to a school maintained by the match factory. There are no facilities for adult education and industrial and vocational training.

#### VII.—Safety.

"Safety first" propaganda ought to be carried on by the employers even in their own interest. Some measures ought to be immediately adopted for the prevention of cases of burning and other accidents in the match factory. Accidents are very frequent at Ambernath.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

The workers are benefited by the Workmen's Compensation Act. The union and the employers co-operate in seeking that due compensation is paid in each case. Insurance by employers ought to be made compulsory so that the employers may not be tempted to deprive the injured of their dues. Workers, meeting with accidents, ought to be paid full wages till they are in a position to resume work or they are compensated for the injuries sustained.

**IX.—Hours.**

Hours of work per day should not exceed eight. Ten hours a day causes too much strain and is responsible for much of the loitering and irregular attendance by workmen. Generally six days are worked per week.

The workers go to the factory at 7 a.m. and work up to 12 noon. They resume work at 1 p.m. and leave at 5.30 p.m. or 6 p.m. There is one hour's recess after five hours' work. If there are two recesses instead of one at the end of each three hours' work there will be less fatigue and there will be more output of work. There is generally one holiday in a week.

**XII.—Wages.**

Rates of wages as cut down in 1927 prevail at present at Ambernath. The workers are paid twice a month. The wages vary between 10 annas to Rs. 3 per day. In surrounding agricultural area the wages are as low as 8 annas per day but the worker is fed in addition to his daily wage once during the working hours.

Overtime and Sunday work is paid at  $1\frac{1}{2}$  of the usual rate. Minimum wages ought to be fixed by law. At present the minimum wage earned by a woman comes to about Rs. 14 per month and that by a man to Rs. 20, a minimum fixed by law ought to be at least Rs. 30 per month.

Fines are imposed for absence without leave at the rate of half a day's wages for one day's absence. A worker is also fined for negligence. Rent and water charges are deducted out of wages.

Amounts collected as fines are distributed as bonus amongst workmen meeting with accidents. Wages for fifteen days are in the case of each workman withheld and then payments are made. Unclaimed wages ought to be paid whenever demanded by the worker to whom they are due.

Workers are heavily indebted. The rates of interest range between 75 per cent. to 300 per cent. in the industrial areas and between 25 per cent. to 50 per cent. in the villages.

Bonus and profit sharing schemes are not in existence. Supervisors are paid bonuses according to the production of workers.

All leave is without pay. Since the starting of the union leave is granted for legitimate purposes on representations being made. Workers from neighbouring villages go on leave generally in the rainy season and unreported sickness is also a cause for absence. Generally it is difficult for workers who are illiterate to obtain leave even for legitimate purposes on account of the unsympathetic attitude of the supervisors. Some privilege leave ought to be granted every year to every workman after one year's service in order to enable him to go on a holiday.

**XIV.—Trade Combinations.**

The Ambernath labour union was formed on the 1st May, 1928, during a strike. The strike ended successfully on the intervention of Mr. N. M. Joshi the president of the union. There was another strike at the end of July, 1928, owing to the management's policy of victimization. This strike was also successful. The union has represented about 500 grievances of the workers to the management and majority of them have been redressed. Night work by women was detected by the union. The union has successfully exposed many of the malpractices practised by supervisors and some of them have been brought to book. Two supervisors have been fined in Law Court. One has been dismissed by the management after an enquiry instituted on representations made by the union. One has been transferred to another department and still the management is partial to supervisors and hard on workers.

The workers as a class appreciate the work done by the union so far but religious differences between Hindus and Mahomedans are hampering the progress of the union; there was an unsuccessful strike in July, 1929. The failure was due to communal differences of which full advantage was taken by the management. Since this event the union's activities have suffered to a certain extent though all the activities started by it are still going on. Three workers have been sacked and about twenty workers have been still kept out of employ.

The attitude of the directors and the manager is not unsympathetic. The union has established a practice of meeting the management once a week to get all grievances redressed. This method wards off all avoidable trouble and maintains peace and order in the working of the factory.

There were three general strikes since the union was started. Two of them were successful and one failed. The first strike lasted for two weeks, the second for a week and the third only for a day. The first two strikes were amicably settled and the third failed owing to communal tension amongst the workers.

The union has affected the conditions of workers to some extent. Dismissals have become very rare. Fines are in some cases cancelled when imposed without sufficient reason. Jobbery is checked and all sorts of legitimate grievances of workers are redressed. Physical punishments and abuse of workers have vanished.

The union has organized a Credit Co-operative Society and a store for the benefit of all workers and an out-door dispensary has been recently started.

Ambernath is surrounded by a group of villages the residents of which are also being beneficially affected by the activities of the union. An association of farmers has started work and it is undertaking co-operative sale of paddy this year and intends to organize social work for the betterment of village people.

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#### THE COMMITTEE OF THE MAHARASHTRA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

*Introductory.*—The committee of this chamber are alive to the fact that capital as well as labour are both essential to industry and that their harmonious relations are a *sine qua non* of the prosperity of industry, other factors being what they should be. The committee, therefore, have always tried to view with sympathy and understanding all proposals, from whatever source emanating, for the good of labour. They desire, however, to emphasize that unless there is an appreciation and understanding of the whole situation by the workers themselves and unless they are alive to the exigencies of the true industrial position in this country, no great advance is possible in the direction of amelioration of the working classes. The committee have watched with increasing uneasiness the recrudescence of working class unrest all over the country, during the last year or two. It is rather unfortunate that frequent stress should be laid upon the want of identity of interests between labour and capital by even those who claim to be working for the good of labour. This unnecessarily creates cleavage and fanned class-feeling and even at times class-hatred, rendering reciprocal appreciation of each other's difficulties extremely difficult, due to the generation of heat. An atmosphere of suspicion or mistrust, wherein each party views the other's expressions and actions as moves calculated to deliberately defeat its own purposes, is certainly not conducive to the mutual understanding or to the solution of difficulties facing both the parties. The committee, however, have to say that such an unpleasant atmosphere has existed in this country in any case so far as Bombay is concerned, for some time past, and consequently the task of adjustment of mutual differences has been rendered very difficult.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

*Genuine Trade Unionism is in every way desirable.*—The committee take this opportunity to state that they stand for genuine trade unionism and its healthy growth. The rank and file of labour can only learn to correctly appraise labour problems and see things in their true perspective through the schooling of such a growth. That will, in course of time, render it possible for both labour and capital to understand each other better than they are doing at present. It is always preferable to have an organized and intelligent labour than to have a large crowd of workers without any organization, cohesion, or discipline. It is desirable more particularly from the point of view of the employers, as it is more convenient for them to understand labour grievances from the unions than from the individual workers, who often number several thousands in any decent-sized, well-established and organized modern industrial establishment.

*Workers are fairly well organized in the Cotton Textile and other Industries of the Country.*—As far as the cotton textile industry is concerned, the workers are fairly well organized in unions. The Bombay textile workers are organized to the extent of 70 or 80 per cent. The textile workers at Ahmedabad also are similarly organized. The other industrial centres in India, like Cawnpore, Calcutta and Nagpur, have also unions of their workers. The workers in the match industry and the steel industry in the country are also organized. The growth is more or less recent and covers for the most part a period of about a decade, the period that has elapsed since the close of the great European War (1914–1919). The value of trade unions is being increasingly appreciated both by the workers themselves and by the capitalists. Although trade-unionism in this country has had the advantage of experience of the movement in other western countries to guide it, and although its growth has been rapid enough, it is still in its infancy and trade-union activity is not still regularised, although the 1926 Trade Union Act has gone a great way in putting trade unions on a proper basis. As has been earlier observed the rank and file have not yet learnt

enough and naturally their control of the unions' policy is not quite effective. It must, however, be noted that the workers are becoming more intelligent day by day and they are evincing greater interest in problems that affect their interests. After all the workers are not so ignorant as they are commonly supposed to be. The attitude of employers is no longer one of hostility or opposition to these unions, though in some cases one may occasionally see unwillingness on the part of the employers to recognize the union. This is not quite an unusual or a new thing to notice in the early days of trade union movement in a country. Similar opposition was evinced in England by the employers in the infancy of the trade union movement. Both the employers as well as the employees will have to adjust themselves to the requirements of the new situation which the evolution of the modern organized industry has called into being. The question is only one of time. The railways in this country are gradually passing into the hands of the State. There is no valid reason why employees in State-owned industrial concerns should be in a different category, so far as the application of trade union principles to them is concerned. It is possible to say that the employees in the "public utility" services stand on a different footing on account of the nature of the services in which they are employed. Even there it is only a question of how and where to draw the line of demarcation between these and others.

*Strike is a Weapon to be used in the Last Resort; Many Grievances can be removed by Representation and Negotiation.*—It is rather unfortunate that strikes are often, and at times, one is tempted to say, unnecessarily declared even for redress of smaller grievances as could be seen from the history of the recent Bombay strikes in the textile industry. They are sometimes declared even without the knowledge of the union officials. The workers are not yet educated in the true principles of trade unionism and they naturally think that strike is the most handy weapon. It is not, as a matter of fact, a weapon to be so lightly used now and then, it is to be used only in the last resort. Many grievances are such as can be at once removed by means of representation and negotiation. There may be others which cannot be at once removed by these methods, but which surely yield to the same treatment if persisted in for some time. It will be yet some time before labour leaders rise from the rank and file of workers themselves and make outside help unnecessary. The mass from which the average industrial worker in this country is recruited is illiterate unlike the general mass of people in the western countries. Naturally they lack, at least in the beginning, the sense of responsibility. The blame for this appalling illiteracy of the working class rests primarily with the Government of the country which has done so little to wipe it off.

## XII.—Wages.

*The General Lowness of Wages in this Country is due to a Variety of Causes.*—It is true that the general level of wages of industrial workers in this country is low. The committees, however, think that no comparison could be usefully instituted between the wages here and those in the West. It would lead us nowhere. Unlike the advanced countries of Europe and America, this country is industrially very backward. Not only are there few industries, but even those that exist are mostly quite in their infancy; and none have grown to a robust height mainly on account of the *laissez faire* policy followed by the alien Government of this country. When the industries themselves are not thriving and prosperous, it naturally follows that wages have to be low. Apart from the smallness of wages and causes such as want of thrift, lack of foresight, etc., on the part of the workers, the principal and the most powerful cause which accounts for the miserable condition of the Indian working class is the wide-spread drink evil. He has little savings, if any, due to the smallness of his wages, and these again are frittered away in drink.

*The Drink Evil is the Bane of our Industrial Worker.*—The general conditions of life in this country are different from those that obtain in the west; and hence the generally recognised western standards of a worker's life, must not be applied here, in their entirety without due regard to the factors which mark the conditions here.

Wages in manufacturing industry are higher than those in agriculture. The Bombay mill workers are not at present adequately remunerated as the industry is not paying. Bonus is paid to the workers but the committees are not aware of any profit sharing scheme instituted anywhere except for an attempt that way in one place in the country. The extent of the exploitation of workers by jobbers deserves to be investigated. The committees do not consider that it would be either advisable or possible to establish minimum wage by law in this country to-day.

It has to be admitted that labour has become more efficient than what it was some years back. It is, however, still behind the western workers in point of efficiency. In India a large percentage of factory workers are still not industrial workers throughout the year and attend for some months to their fields also. This



has some advantages but from the point of view of the efficiency of the workers it has some disadvantages also. The class of workers however, who are purely industrial workers is steadily growing. The tropical climate of this country as also the conditions under which he works have also something to do with his comparative inefficiency as compared with the western worker. With all this our workers, it must be said to their credit, are giving a very creditable account of themselves and there is no doubt they will soon equal the western workers in this respect.

### IX.—Hours of Work.

“Shorter hours” principle and its value are being increasingly appreciated by our industrialists. The working hours are at present 10 in factories and in course of time as conditions permit they would be still reduced. The G.I.P. Railway have adopted an 8-hour day recently. But unlike other industries which have to work under a regime of free competition both internal and external Railways are in a peculiar position, due to their being in the position of monopoly public utility services and hence unaffected by competition. Shorter hours will rather therefore be slow in coming in industrial establishments. Shorter hours of work are needed for workers, so that they should have leisure for recreation, etc., but this is not possible all at once. This country has subscribed to the International Convention adopted at Washington. The committee are, however, unable to endorse the view that this country must allow itself to be dragged along with the more advanced nations in these reforms without consulting the convenience of its own national economy. The example set by the great American motor manufacturer in respect of short hours and high wages is there for the world to copy, but it will be a long time before we reach the stage when we can do that.

*Trade Unions being in their Infancy, they are rather in a Militant Mood to-day.*—There are few agencies, if any, to induce and encourage the habit of saving amongst the workers. Trade unions are a plant of recent growth, and they are too much in the militant mood of mind at present to attend to any other consecutive schemes of work for the betterment of the conditions of the working class. Their whole faith seems to be in fighting the capitalists in order to obtain better wages, not knowing that this can only be possible if the industry itself prospers and pays well. They appear to think that wages being increased other things can adjust themselves. If a tenth of the zeal and energy which the labour leaders are at present expending in fruitless fights were devoted to weaning the workers from the drink evil or to teaching them the habit of a cleaner and more hygienic living or inculcating in them the spirit of co-operation and self-help, some real and lasting good could surely have been done and the workers would have rendered a better account of themselves both in working as well as fighting. The committee note here with regret that the government of the country are mainly to be blamed for the drink evil in this country.

*The Government of the Country are mainly to be blamed for the Drink Evil.*—Workers' efficiency as well as their general condition will both be much better if this evil is root and branch destroyed. The testimony of Henry Ford is overwhelming on this point. The committee therefore urge that the Government should take immediate steps to put a stop to this drink evil. The steps will materially and markedly enhance the efficiency of the workers.

*No General Economic Policy for the Industrial Development of the Country followed by the State.*—Not only have the Government failed to encourage the industrial growth of India by following till very recently a free trade policy against which Indian political leaders and Indian economists have protested *ad nauseum*, but on the contrary they have tried to burden the infant industries by prematurely trying to give effect to the new fangled western ideas of labour benefit here. They have promptly ratified the International Labour Conference conventions and recommendations; it would, however, have been to their credit if they had equally promptly shown the desire to help industries either by trying to negotiate a settlement of trade disputes or by promptly setting up protective tariffs where a case is clearly made out. The Government are however, moving at snails' pace in this direction. The development of industries in this country has been without any plan, as no definite and general policy for economic development of the country is pursued by the State, the Government always considering that industry was no part of their business.

*Naturally, therefore, no Co-ordination of Industrial effort in the Country.*—Nothing has been done by the Government either to bring about or accelerate the growth of industries in this country. Whatever has been achieved so far is due to private initiative and enterprise. There is naturally no co-ordination of effort in the industrial development in the different parts of the country. No wonder then that machinery, chemicals, and other things have still to be wholly imported. The State has not only not cared to develop other industries, but it has not also done anything to develop even those industries which are considered to be key-industries.

Further the State has never cared till very recently, and even that under the great war time pressure, to patronize the products of Indian industry. All this has reacted very unfavourably on the industry as well as on the general economic condition of the country. The workers, as a consequence have suffered. Indian agriculture is no longer able to support the population with its growing needs.

*The Committee are for giving every Amenity of Life to the Workers, but consistently with the ability of the Industry to bear the burden.*—The committee of this chamber stand for giving every amenity to the workers—amenity which can be given consistently with the ability of the industry to bear the burden. This central fact can never be lost sight of, and it need not be pointed out that all attempts at improvement of the condition of the working class means additional expense. It is not to be inferred from this that the committee do not want to see labour benefited further. They would like to see all recognized and proved grievances redressed, either by administrative action on the part of the industry concerned, or by legislative process. In all this however, it must be stated, that due regard should be had to the Indian conditions and to the state of the industry itself which ultimately has to foot the bill. Legislative action should only be taken when both the workers and the employees have asked for the same, and after a careful consideration of the question. Howsoever desirable it may be to have a nation-wide uniformity in this respect, the committee think that in many cases it would be found to be useful as well as convenient to carry such legislation through the provincial legislatures, as conditions differ widely from province to province, this country being a sub-continent in itself.

### III.—Housing.

A fair amount of work is done for the working class in respect of housing, at least so far as Bombay is concerned.

In the matter of housing of the textile workers in Bombay, the industry, the Government and private individuals have all done work in their own ways. The housing may not be quite up to the mark from hygienic and other points of view and it can be conceded that there is scope for improvement. But what exists to-day is a distinct advance on what existed before. Housing of a big industrial population, like the one in Bombay, is no easy thing in a costly place like Bombay. In the matter of lighting, conservancy and water supply there is generally no ground for complaint. Rent charges for houses are rather high, but recently it is understood, they have been reduced to enable the workers to take advantage of the development department chawls. Sanitary arrangements both at home as well as at the places of employment are fairly satisfactory. There is enough water provided for drinking, bathing and washing purposes. If there be noticed any defect, the employers and landlords set matters right as soon as it is brought to their notice. As regards medical facilities, it can be stated that the employers, Government, the municipal corporation of Bombay and private agencies have done much in this direction.

### V.—Welfare Activities.

Welfare work is also undertaken by employers and other agencies such as the Social Service League. Employers have often done it unasked. There is much scope for work in this direction. Arrangements for recreation and education may not be quite satisfactory. They may be meagre but the industry has done something in this direction. The committee however like to state that the responsibility for seeing the masses equipped with the elementary education rests primarily with the Government and they cannot shift it on to the employers after the fashion of log-rolling as they call it. Provision of play-grounds for workers' children is not an easy question in a costly place like Bombay and the Government ought to co-operate with the employers for providing them with plots at a nominal charge, or even absolutely free of charge. It has to be admitted that there is ample scope for health and other welfare work for labour. But there are difficulties in the way even here. Incidentally it may be mentioned that some of them are so serious that it is not possible to overcome them unless state takes prompt and effective action. For instance, it is no exaggeration to say that milk sells in Bombay dearer than in the biggest cities of the world. This most essential product has now gone almost beyond the reach of the working class people. Unless the Government take prompt action by stopping the daily slaughter of milch cattle in the Bombay slaughter houses and make it obligatory on the railways to allow a larger quantity of milk free of charge to come into Bombay as they do at Calcutta and to charge nominal freight rates for taking dry buffaloes out of Bombay, no improvement in the milk situation seems possible, and milk is so essential for children, in fact it is the very best food for them. Even the middle classes are experiencing great difficulty in securing pure milk at reasonable prices.

### V.—Industrial Disputes.

*Some Machinery for settling Industrial Disputes desirable.*—The committee would like to suggest that there should be set up some machinery for bringing about a peaceful settlement of the industrial disputes between the employers and the employees on the merits of the points at issue, always bearing in mind of course the supreme interests of the industry concerned. Some such machinery would be to the interest of both of the parties for some years to come at least. Even a step in the direction of compulsory arbitration as in Germany will not be unwelcome as an experiment to begin with.

If its results are good, the same might be extended. That will save the industry from the frequent shocks and the course of economic life of the society also will not be frequently disturbed. An independent tribunal would render possible an unprejudiced and impartial handling of the points of difference.

*Forced Labour should be Abolished.*—The committee would like to suggest that the Royal Commission will do well to recommend forthwith the abolition of forced labour throughout the country. The committee would suggest its abolition, even in the Indian States, but, unfortunately, the Indian States do not come in the field of the Royal Commission's enquiry. The Royal Commission can usefully enquire into the conditions under which labour is recruited in this country for the tea estates and for emigration.

In conclusion, the committee would like to emphasize the need of (a) abolition of the drink evil in the country. That will mean increased efficiency so far as the worker is concerned. It will also better the workers' health and improve his economic condition. It will radically alter the tone of the life of our worker. (b) The committee would further like to point out the great difficulty experienced in Bombay in getting pure milk at a reasonable price. The Royal Commission would render a distinct service to the working classes if they urge upon the Government of Bombay the necessity of taking immediate steps to ensure sufficient supply of pure milk at reasonable price in this city so that the same may come within the reach of the working classes. Their children do not at present get enough milk, as the cost of the same is very high. (c) If the workers' condition is to be bettered, the State must undertake to compulsorily give to all, free elementary education, both to the children and to the young people who may be without it. (d) The committee do stand for the amelioration of the worker's conditions and for providing amenities of life for him, things which would make him better socially, physically and morally, but they like to state it as their considered opinion that these things can come only in proportion to the ability of the industry concerned to bear the consequent burden. The committee has not tried to have their say on each of the subjects in the extensive list issued by the commission. They have referred only to a few of them and expressed their views. The *laissez faire* policy followed by the Government of the country has proved detrimental to our national interests. It has reduced the economic stamina of the nation and seriously handicapped the industrial development of the country.

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### THE BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION.

In submitting their memorandum on the questionnaire forwarded to them by the Royal Commission on Labour in India, the Corporation feel that, owing to the insufficient time at their disposal, they have not been in a position to answer more fully and in greater detail the questions relevant to the scope and work of the Municipality. Besides, it appears from the terms of reference that the work of the Commission is mainly confined "to inquire into and report on the existing conditions of labour in industrial undertakings and plantations in British India," and consequently, although the Corporation employ a considerable section of labour in their various departments, they do not come directly within the purview of the inquiry before the Commission.

The Corporation, however, feel it necessary that such information as they are in a position to supply about recruitment, health and education of their labouring staff should be made available to the Commission when they enquire into the conditions of labour in the city of Bombay as a whole. The Corporation understand that the Municipal Commissioner has already furnished certain information required by the

Royal Commission regarding the conditions of housing of the Municipal employees. Hence, the Corporation have selected only those questions "in the subject-matter of which their experience mainly lies," and furnish brief answers to them. They are as follows :—

### I.—Recruitment.

1. The labour employed by the corporation is recruited locally as both skilled and unskilled labour is always available in the city. Both the classes of labour come in search of employment from the Konkan districts, the Southern Maratha country, and the Gujarat. The Mahars in the Health Department are recruited mainly from the Ratnagiri district, while the Halalkhores chiefly come from Kathiawar and Gujarat and a few depressed class people from the north western provinces and the Punjab are also engaged.

3. No special method of recruitment is adopted. Persons in search of employment apply for work at the different ward offices and the workshops and are engaged by the sub-engineer at the various ward offices so far as unskilled labour is concerned. All skilled and unskilled labour at the workshops and pumping stations is engaged by the mechanical engineer. Other skilled labour is recruited by the local offices of the departments in charge of the wards.

7. The greater part of municipal labour staff is recruited on temporary basis. Nevertheless, care is taken to see that the same men remain in employment as long as work is available for them. Unemployment is, therefore, not common among them, but occurs at times on asphalt works and on work in connection with the tarring of roads by the road department, owing to the closing down of such works in the monsoon. Some men in the health department are being thrown out of employment owing to the adoption of a system of removal of refuse by mechanical power and the conversion of basket privies into water-closets.

8. There is no turnover in the case of permanent labour staff, but the men on the temporary staff do not always continue in employment throughout the year. They generally go to their native places before the rains for tilling the fields and return at the end of the monsoon after gathering the harvest.

### II.—Staff Organization.

10. The unskilled labour is under the sub-engineer, or the chief inspector, or an officer of corresponding rank in charge of the wards. They have under them a number of overseers, sub-overseers, maistries and mukadams to supervise the labour staff. The skilled and unskilled labour at the municipal workshops and pumping stations is under the mechanical engineer.

11. The managing staff consists of heads of departments who are appointed by the corporation subject to confirmation by Government in the case of the executive engineer, the executive health officer, and the hydraulic engineer.

12. (i) The supervising staff in the engineering department is recruited from graduates in Civil engineering, mainly from the Bombay University. Some of the supervising staff hold foreign university degrees. The superior supervising staff in the health department, which is the other department of the municipality employing labour on a large scale, is recruited from medical graduates mainly of the Bombay University. Some of them hold health diplomas of European universities. A few of the superior officers of both the engineering and the health departments have undergone training in Great Britain. Some of the subordinate officers of both these departments also hold engineering and medical degrees of the local university, while others are practical men who have acquired their training and experience in the municipal employ.

(ii) No special facilities are provided for the training of workmen but some of the skilled supervising staff is recruited from men who have passed out from the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay.

13. The relation between the staff and the rank and file is cordial as a rule, because in the matter of wages, conditions of work, as well as provision for old age and death, the workmen employed by the corporation are at least as well off as those employed by any other body in Bombay, public or private. It is only in the municipal workshop which numbers among its employees a larger proportion of members of the municipal workmen's union than any other branch of municipal service, that there is occasionally a certain amount of discontent and friction with the immediate superior officers.

### III.—Housing.

16. and 17. Information in regard to these questions has already been supplied by the municipal commissioner, a copy of which is appended to this memorandum.

18, 19, 20 and 21. Information in regard to these questions has already been supplied by the municipal commissioner, a copy of which is appended to this memorandum.

### IV.—Health.

23. The general health condition of workers in municipal employ is satisfactory. There is no employment under the municipality of such a nature as affects prejudicially the health of workers.

24. No special medical facilities are provided for the municipal labouring staff, but free dispensaries and hospitals are provided in the city by Government and the municipality, of which the labour staff avail themselves. There are also charitable dispensaries where medical treatment is available. Trained municipal nurses and midwives in each ward visit the labour areas periodically.

25. The class of unskilled labour employed by the corporation do not take as much advantage of these facilities as they should.

26. (a) Where labour is stationary such as at the municipal workshops and pumping stations, latrines, water pipes and other sanitary conveniences are provided. Other workmen in the road and drainage departments, who are working in all parts of the city, make use of public latrines, water fountains, bathing places, etc.

(b) Sanitary arrangements are fairly satisfactory in the chawls provided by the corporation for the accommodation of their workmen. The nature of sanitary facilities in private chawls inhabited by municipal workmen, however, varies from bad to indifferent.

27. The chawls provided by the corporation for the accommodation of their workmen are regularly visited and inspected by their officers.

31. Maternity benefits in the shape of six weeks' leave on full pay is allowed to all women employees of the corporation.

### V.—Welfare.

32. The corporation, through the agency of the Y.M.C.A. and the Bombay Youth League, have started several welfare centres for their menial employees. Grants are made by the corporation to the organizations running those centres.

33. Welfare officers and workers, honorary and stipendiary, are appointed by the organizations running the welfare centres.

34. The nature of other welfare activities consists in providing means of recreation, amusement and physical culture. Several night schools are also conducted by the agencies.

35. Although the welfare work of the nature stated in the reply to question No. (34) has not been going on for a long time, its beneficial results are already appearing in the contentment of the workers and particularly of their children. In the opinion of the corporation the extension of such welfare work is one of the best antidotes to industrial unrest.

36. Please refer to replies on questions Nos. (41) and (42).

37. Special disability leave is granted to the municipal employees of the labouring or artizan class, whether permanent or temporary, on account of injuries received in the course of their duty, provided they are not caused by their own negligence or disobedience of orders. The period of leave on full pay varies from 1 to 4 months, according to the length of service, the minimum service required being 5 years, and in addition, 2 months' leave on half pay is granted.

As a provision for old age, a municipal servant, whose pay on retirement does not exceed Rs. 100 per mensem, and whose length of service is not less than 25 years, and whose services are required to be dispensed with owing to old age, is granted a gratuity equal to seven times his average monthly salary. If, however, such a municipal employee dies before being made to retire, the gratuity mentioned above is paid to his widow or children or in their absence to his parents, brothers and sisters, if any. Advantage of this benefit is granted to all kinds of labourers including scavengers and halalkhores, provided the conditions specified above are satisfied. The number of gratuities so granted is fairly large.

Since October, 1920, the municipality has established, on a voluntary basis, a provident fund for the benefit of its officers and servants, including labour class, whether permanent or temporary. In the case of labourers, the employee subscribes at the rate of one anna and four pies or one anna in the rupee on the amount of his monthly wages, according as such wages do or do not exceed Rs. 50 per mensem. The municipal corporation contribute to the provident fund at the rate of 100 per

cent. on the subscribers' subscription at the end of each official year and allow interest at 5 per cent. per annum on the subscriber's subscriptions as well as the municipal contribution. Advances are also granted to the employees out of their provident fund, subject to the rules made in that behalf. It is also open to subscribers to the provident fund to take out a policy of life assurance with any approved insurance company, and facilities are accorded, by way of advance, to pay the premia out of their own subscriptions to the provident fund. However, employees of the labouring class have not yet begun to take advantage of life assurance.

Subscribers to the provident fund do not get the gratuity for old age mentioned above when the amount of such gratuity plus the amount of the municipal contribution credited to the provident fund account exceed their 10½ months average monthly salary. The provisions of the Provident Fund Act of 1925 have been extended to the provident fund established by the Bombay municipality and therefore the municipal employees get the benefit of the protection afforded by the Act against attachment under any decree or order of the court in respect of any debt or liability incurred by them.

Although the benefits of provident fund are open to temporary municipal employees, the municipal contribution is paid to them only after a minimum service of five years.

38. The corporation have got no special co-operative societies for the benefit of their staff, but an effort was made in this direction by the Social Service League, which effort, however, failed owing to the fact that the corporation cannot recover the dues by deduction from the pays of their employees as desired by the League. The starting of societies, particularly for debt redemption, under the advice of the registrar of co-operative societies, is under contemplation.

40 (i) In Bombay, the labour population is mainly located in the F and G wards of the city. The population of these two wards together comes to a total of 3,14,205 persons (1,97,666 males plus 1,15,539 females as per census taken in 1921). Since 1925, the corporation have made primary education free and compulsory for all children between the ages of 6 years complete and 11 years complete residing in these two wards. Moslem girls were exempted at first, but this year such girls in these two wards between the ages of 6 years complete and 10 years complete are made to attend schools compulsorily from the 1st August, 1929. On 30th June, 1929, there were in these two wards, 14,605 children, exclusive of Moslem girls, liable to be made to attend schools compulsorily and out of them, 11,624 were actually attending schools and 2,981 were defaulters.

(ii) and (iii) The corporation have not opened special schools for children employed in factories. A few night schools attended mostly by grown-up children and adults are run by the corporation.

41. On the recommendation of the Industrial Commission, the Bombay municipal corporation resolved in 1925, to give an industrial bias to primary education in the municipal schools. Handicraft classes were accordingly started in suitable schools and the corporation are running 14 centres, where pupils from surrounding schools are given instruction in handicraft. These centres are mostly situated in schools, in which the children of the labouring classes attend in large numbers. At the end of the year 1928-29, 3,001 pupils from 26 schools were receiving instruction in handicraft in these 14 centres. The instruction imparted in handicraft classes covers a wide range of subjects, including paper-folding, paper and card board modelling, flower-making, fret-work, wood-work, wire-work, book-binding and cane-work. The work of instruction in these classes is carried out by 11 special teachers, with 1 superintendent over them, all of whom possess special qualifications in these subjects.

42. It is yet too early to pronounce opinion upon the effect of education on the working classes as a whole, because compulsion was introduced in F and G wards only just four years ago, and the children so educated have not yet been employed in industries. But even before compulsion was introduced, a good number of the labouring population had been attending schools and the corporation think that education is having a good influence upon their general habits and outlook on life.

#### VII.—Safety.

46. Adequate and proper precautionary measures are taken to prevent accidents on works.

47. The Workmen's Compensation Act does not apply to the entire labour staff employed by the corporation. But as regards the staff to whom the act is applicable, full compensation admissible under the Workmen's Compensation Act is granted to proper claimants.

Statement—continued.

Name of Department.	Extent to which housing is provided for manual workers.	Nature of accommodation provided.	Utilization by Workers of the accommodation provided.	Rents Charged.	Whether persons other than those in employ are allowed to occupy the tenements.
K.E.M. Hospital College and G.S.M. College.	228 employees of the labour Staff are provided with housing accommodation of 173 rooms.	5 chawls comprising 173 rooms.	The house accommodation provided is utilized for purely residential purposes.	Accommodation provided is rent free.	No.
Gardens Department	All the 39 employees are provided with housing.	2 chawls consisting of 39 rooms.	The house accommodation provided is utilized for purely residential purposes.	Out of 39 rooms provided, 22 are charged 8 annas per month per room, other rooms are rent free.	No.
Drainage Department.	13 employees out of 600 have been provided with housing accommodation.	8 rooms and one C.I. shed.	The accommodation provided is utilized by workers.	Rent free .. ..	No.
Engineering Department (General Branch).	All the 289 employees are provided with housing accommodation.	Permanent and semi permanent chawls.	All available accommodation is fully utilized	Do. .. ..	No outsiders are allowed to occupy rooms except nearest relatives dependent on the employee.
(Mechanical Branch)	104 employees out of 664 are provided with housing accommodation.	Permanent chawls ..	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..	No outsiders are allowed to occupy rooms.

Statement—concluded.

Name of Department.	Extent to which housing is provided for manual workers.	Nature of accommodation provided.	Utilization by Workers of the accommodation provided.	Rents Charged.	Whether persons other than those in employ are allowed to occupy the tenements.
Engineering Department—concluded. (Roads Branch) ..	165 employees out of 1,545 are provided with housing accommodation.	Semi-permanent chawls and temporary sheds.	All available accommodation is fully utilized	Rents charged are :— 10 annas per month for a male labourer and 5 annas for a female.	The relatives of the employees are allowed to occupy the tenements on payment of a monthly rental of Rs. 2 in case of a male and Re. 1 in that of a female.
Markets Department	106 employees out of 135 are provided with housing accommodation.	Chawls and Zawli sheds, Single room tenements of permanent nature. The dimensions of the room vary from 12 ft. x 10 ft. to 18 ft. x 12 ft.	The accommodation provided is used for residential purposes.	Rent free. .. ..	No outsider is allowed to occupy the tenements. If relatives of the labourers other than those forming his family are found sharing the room, they are charged at the rate of Rs. 2 per male and Re. 1 per female.
Water Department	279 employees out of 605 are provided with housing accommodation.	Chawls and semi-permanent C.I. sheds having single and double room tenements.	Do. .. ..	Do. .. ..	No outsider is allowed to stay in the quarters.



## THE WORKERS EMPLOYED IN TANNERIES AND LEATHER FACTORIES AT DHARAVI.

1. *Hours.*—The workers in those tanneries and leather factories to which the Factory Act is not applicable are required to work daily for 12 to 14 hours, for earning a bare subsistence. These 12 to 14 hours are to be spent by the workers in performing dirty tasks in unhealthy premises.

2. *Wages.*—The workers in the tanneries and the leather factories get a very low wage. Their earnings vary from 12 annas to Re. 1 per day. They are forced to accept a wage established by competition. Hunger is the impelling motive in such competition. They are thus virtually wage slaves of the employing class. Almost all the workers are piece workers and low wages is one of the main reasons why they are required to work longer. This proves the necessity of fixing the minimum living wage by statutory law in this industry.

3. *Housing Conditions.*—It is very difficult to give a graphic picture of the houses occupied by the workers. Dharavi is the most insanitary place and its sanitation has been criminally neglected by the Bombay Municipal Corporation. It is notoriously malarious. During the rainy season many of its roads are impassable owing to the accumulation of slush and overflow from drains. The houses are not fit for human habitation.

4. *Health.*—The workers in the tanneries and the leather factories suffer from ill health. It can well be imagined how physically feeble a worker is bound to be when he is required to work in the factories for more than 12 hours, to be satisfied with two meals of the meanest stuff and to shut himself up in a dungeon during the night.

Neither the factory where they spend the whole day is an ideal place where they can work without injuring their health, nor the place where they take shelter during the night. In the absence of nutritious food, the exhaustion from hard strenuous work for over 12 hours naturally damages their health.

5. *Other Complaints.*—The tannery work is a blind alley occupation, there being no prospect of promotion to higher grades or increase in wages. In some of the factories the wages due to the workers remain in arrears and the workers continue to work without receiving their wages for three or four months. It is difficult to describe the sufferings of the families of such workers. Non-receipt of wages at regular intervals plunges the workers into chronic indebtedness. The workers being "parias" (men belonging to the so-called untouchable caste) and not knowing any other trade have to accept all these conditions if they want to keep body and soul together. They are at the mercy of the Mukadom (foreman) as he enjoys the power of dismissing them at his sweet will. They often fall victims to his tyranny and harassment. They are not free to join any trade union and they are always afraid of being victimised if they dare to form a union against the wishes of the factory owners and the Mukadoms.

6. The workers in the tanneries and leather factories are not entitled to benefits under the Workmen's Compensation Act as the factories in which they work do not come under the Factory Act. To remedy this disability as well as to put a legal restriction on excessive hours of work the Factory Act should be so amended as to include all tanneries and leather factories.

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Mr. G. C. SEERS, Managing Director, GENERAL MOTORS INDIA LTD.,  
BOMBAY.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. *Origin of Labour.*—Mainly local. India is in its infancy with regard to the motor industry, and the number of workmen—fitters and metal workers—trained yearly in the various workshops of the railways and engineering firms, dockyards, etc., creates a supply which is in excess of the demand. Peculiar to Bombay, the recent disturbances in the mills have instilled into the minds of their quondam workers a sense of uncertainty, even fear that not only are their jobs of indefinite duration but their lives also. Apart from a very few highly skilled positions, e.g., armature winders, high grade mechanics and coach and body strippers, boiler makers (first class), etc., the greater portion of the other sections, viz., fitters, painters, tailors and less skilled mechanics can be obtained any day at the factory premises. This situation obviates any necessity of having to resort to outstations for men. Further, after a short period of operation in our plant the men are loathe to go when laid off for a very short period, and return eagerly on the appointed day. The conclusion one is

compelled to draw is that the conditions under which the men work and their environment are conducive to mental and bodily satisfaction and improvement. Furthermore the fact that the wages are slightly higher than the average obtainable elsewhere, is an additional attraction. Added to this is the treatment they receive from their sectional and departmental heads. It appears, from the fact that positions in our factory are so eagerly sought after, that the general conditions of employment are entirely satisfactory.

2. Much was heard of the bogey of workmen wishing to return to their native villages. In our case this has proved to be almost a myth, for, whilst we have not been entirely free from this experience, the percentage has been insignificant and not worth recording. This again can be attributed only to the pleasant conditions, financial and physical, under which the men work.

3. *Method of Recruitment.*—A little has been said of this earlier.

(i) At present the men are questioned separately and their credentials and certificates examined carefully. Where the nature of the work is skilled, a test of skill is imposed. All individuals are subjected to a medical examination. Thus, the plant is assured of none but the best for each job.

(ii) and (iii) Not experienced—not necessary.

4. At the outset, reports of deaths, accidents and disturbances in families of employees were not infrequent. These reports were not accepted too readily, but were investigated personally whenever possible and convenient. This method of procedure served to check satisfactorily the frequency of complaints.

8. Probably 10 per cent. of the labour over the period experienced has changed due to all causes. The period of operation does not cover a year, so statistics cannot be compiled.

(i) At least 11 months in the year possibly.

(ii) Nil.

(iii) Illness constitutes an important factor in absenteeism. Malaria, influenza, dysentery and other tropical diarrhoeas are the principal diseases concerned. Surgical accidents do occur on the average of 12 per diem both of a serious and trivial nature. Cases of malingering to get away on leave to their native places or to attend to private business or festive occasions often arise; but shamming is reduced to a minimum by efficient collaboration between the departmental heads and the medical officer, to whom such cases are always referred. On an average three medical certificates are passed daily for short or long leave, depending on the medical or surgical aspect of the case, and this in a factory which employs close on 1,000 hands. During the monsoon months, i.e., June to September, the curve of absenteeism always rises, due principally to the increasing prevalence of malaria and the migration of the agricultural labouring classes to their homes to till their soils.

Turnover for period commencing June, 1929, and ending October, 1929 (Actual):—

Number of employees on register .. ..	950	
Number of discharges from June/October .. ..	350 (approximately)	
Total number .. ..	1,300	
		Percentage.
Resignations, from June/October, 1929 .. ..	85	6.5
Continued absence, from June/October, 1929 .. ..	91	7.0
Sickness from June/October, 1929 .. ..	9	7.0
Reduction .. ..	102	8.0
Undesirable .. ..	32	2.46
Inefficient .. ..	21	1.6
Labour turnover .. ..	342	26.3

#### IV.—Health.

23. (i) *Figures of Mortality.*—Only one fatal case of tetanus occurred since the inception of the factory, in an otherwise clean and healthy wound, which was being dressed daily by the dresser. This patient used to open the dressings when at home, despite repeated warnings. He was dressed with the best and latest antiseptics at the dispensary.

(iii) The working conditions are highly satisfactory *vide* the incidence of medical absenteeism and the negligible occurrence of industrial diseases. The ventilation and sanitary systems are up-to-date and perfect, the site of the factory ideal and the water supply chlorinated and wholesome. Suitable guards are provided at danger spots, gloves and respirators are provided for the men in the paint and spray section. Conditions at home are not known to us, as the personnel reside in various parts of the city and suburbs.

(iv) The dietary of the inferior factory hand is far from satisfactory except in the case of the Pathan, Muslim, and the Northern Hindu. The meagre vegetarian fare of the local and Southern Hindus and the poorer Christian is insufficient to cope with the physical strain involved in manual labour, and must cause an appreciable amount of industrial fatigue. The remedy lies in the assimilation of better food and hygienic housing conditions. A vegetarian diet consisting of lentils (dhal), ghee, nuts, butter, bagri and jowari should be substituted for the wholesale and indiscriminate consumption of rice which is the staple diet of the Indian. The mixed vegetable diet suggested above is more nutrient and will furnish all the necessary ingredients necessary for the cells of the body. Rice alone furnishes carbo-hydrates, to the entire exclusion of proteins, fats and the necessary vitamins.

(v) Roughly speaking, 75 per cent. of the men may be said to possess the necessary physique; the rest are either below weight, under-sized or ill-nourished. The European, Pathan, Muslim and the Bhaya races of Northern India stand industrial fatigues well, their diet and inherent constitution standing them in good stead. The worst recruit is the local city man in this respect. The recruitment of weakly individuals is totally eliminated by the medical test for physical fitness. Employees going downhill are provided with intensive tonic treatment at the dispensary and otherwise advised. Men with strong lungs are selected for the duco and spray sections. These are given periodical advice on health and hygiene. A change of department or even of climate is advised in deserving cases.

(vi) The housing conditions of the factory hands are unknown, as they are spread over the city and the suburbs of Bombay. It is self-understood that the more hygienic the housing conditions are, the less the mortality will be.

24. (i) *Extent of Medical facilities provided by Employers.*—A well-fitted surgery and dispensary is provided on the spot, centrally situated for all the sheds. A qualified half-time surgeon attends from 9 a.m. to 12 noon and even later. From 12 noon to 5 p.m. the latter is at his residence for any emergency case that may occur within factory hours. An ambulance service is permanently on the spot and the patient is speedily conveyed to the surgeon by two attendants for treatment, after being rendered "first-aid" by the dressing-compounder, on the spot. The case is often treated by the surgeon at his residence, or sent in the same ambulance to the nearest hospital if very serious, or taken to the patient's home, if the latter so desires and the doctor opines likewise. Cases under the Factory Act are duly reported to the Chief Inspector of Factories, and those under the Workmen's Compensation Act to the insurance company. Fatal and severe cases admitted to hospital are reported to the police. The dresser-compounder and the hamal are on the spot during the factory hours, i.e., 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. rendering any aid then. Up-to-date drugs are provided. The "first-aid" room contains the Bets operation table (U.S.A. Army model), a stretcher, a Berkfeld's filter and a fine almirah for medicaments. All treatment is gratis. The Government aids in a very few cases that need major operative treatment or special nursing. The Jamssetjee Jeejeebhoy Hospital, the King Edward Memorial Hospital, and the St. George's Hospital are sometimes utilized for serious cases. Private treatment is taken by a few factory hands and officials, but this is almost negligible. No agencies of any kind exist to give medical aid to the employees nor is there need of any, as the existing arrangement at the factory is quite satisfactory.

(ii) *Provision of Women Doctors, Dais, etc.*—This does not arise as there is no female labour.

25. The "first-aid" department is well patronized by surgical as well as medical cases. The most illiterate coolie and the highest official in the factory come up with a tiny abrasion for a touch of tincture of iodine and a bandage, or even for a tablet of calaspiran for a headache. The daily attendances of all cases ranges between 30 to 50. A thorough course of treatment is patiently gone through, and the advice of the surgeon faithfully followed in 99 per cent. of the cases. The remaining 1 per cent. may be influenced to take indigenous treatment or to consult the charlatan. The extent to which medical facilities are generally utilized will be best appreciated by the divers types of cases treated.

Wounds and burns of all varieties and intensity, on various parts of the body. Foreign bodies in the eye. Fractures, dislocations, and sprains of minor members.

Frequent syncope. Nail injuries. Skin diseases, e.g., dermatitis, scabies, eczema, etc. Abscesses, cysts, etc. Protean inflammation. Anti-tetanic treatment (phrophylactic). All endemic diseases. Infectious diseases (so far only 1 case of small-pox and 2 of chicken-pox have occurred).

26. (i) There is an up-to-date latrine flushing system for the three sheds "N", "K" and "O" consisting of 50 latrines within and without the factory. The washing tap arrangements consist of 8 wash basins for the higher officials and 11 tap arrangements for the menial staff. The water supply of the Bombay main is stored in a sanitary tank with a separate connection from the one used for drinking purposes. The former is used for flushing purposes. The sanitary and drainage system is regularly looked after by the staff of the maintenance department, some of whom have expert practical knowledge of the subject. A corps of 17 factory cleaners and 3 sweepers is always on the spot to sweep the place and attend to cleansing measures in general. The Bombay Port Trust inspector makes periodical visits to the plant to detect larvæ in any collection of water on the premises and reports to the medical officer of the plant. A joint occasional inspection is made by the medical officer and the malarial inspector, and anti-malarial measures are discussed and used, if need be. Up to now no infectious larvæ have been detected. For the extermination of rats, which really breed in the granaries of the Bombay port sheds, rat poison has been used in the plant. The closing up of pits and burrows has been carried out, and the employees have been warned not to throw about morsels of food etc., on the factory premises. In fact, it has been decided to inflict a small fine on any one eating within the factory and neglecting the above warning. The latrines and washing places are regularly disinfected with phenyle. The medical officer submits all dead rats to the Director of the Haffkine Institute for a report. So far 6 have been sent and all with a negative report. The spot where the dead rat has been found is immediately cleansed with carbolic lotion. The ventilation of the plant is adequate, both internal and external, the open site in Sewri contributing to the latter. Exit arrangements for all effluvia is satisfactory. A special dumping place is provided at the rear end of the "N" shed. Special attention is paid to the condition of the booths and sections of the paint shop, where the men have to work in enclosed places. Cases of industrial fatigue are few and far between, and this goes to prove that the ventilation is satisfactory.

(ii) The drinking water system is put up in a good storage tank of the capacity of about 500 gallons. The fact that no water-borne diseases, e.g. typhoid, cholera has occurred shows that the water supply is so far not polluted. The chlorination of the Bombay water supply from which our supply is drawn is also responsible for the prevention of disease.

29. (i) Cases of industrial diseases are very few, and these might have been brought on by pre-existing disease in the employee, who joined prior to the appointment of the medical officer. A few cases of dermatitis of the hands and arms were noticed in the beginning in the enamel department, but these have been wiped out by the use of gloves, medical treatment and observation and hygienic advice to the patient. In the spray section (duco), only hands with sound lungs are taken on, and no case of any chemical poisoning has, as yet, occurred. The men in the paint shop are always watched for anaemic or bronchitic taint. They receive intensive medical treatment, advice on personal hygiene, diet, etc. Efficient ventilation, both at home and the factory is the principal prophylactic remedy, together with wholesome food. The medical officer and the paint shop foreman keep a constant watch on any suspicious case, and generous leave is given for a change of air to a deserving case, whose health remains below par, in spite of care and advice. Mild cases of industrial fatigue have occurred, on the average, three a week. The fatigue is mainly manifested by syncope and giddiness. Rest and stimulants have revived them very soon, often instantaneously. No case of chronic fatigue has yet occurred, necessitating a change of work or invaliding. The heat of the tropics, hunger and low diet of an individual contributing greatly to fatigue, and this case of genuine industrial fatigue may be said to be almost negligible.

(ii) No case of cholera or plague has occurred. Hookworm is rare in this Presidency, and no case of this nature has yet been detected. Hardly any labour in this factory is recruited from the Bengal Presidency where hookworm is badly endemic. Three cases of guinea-worm cysts and abscesses had to be invalided, owing to frequent absenteeism. This infection was from Poona district and not local. The employees were all vaccinated during the severe epidemic of smallpox in March last. The one coolie who refused to be vaccinated after three requests contracted the disease, but fortunately survived and rejoined the factory. He was immediately removed to the infectious diseases hospital and quarantined for four weeks. Roughly 10 per cent. of the personnel are chronically infected with malaria, which is the principal factor in sick absenteeism. The malarial curve in Bombay rises from June to October and during this period more cases are seen. The bad housing conditions, poverty and

neglect of proper food and treatment contribute to this cause. Those so infected are given routine intensive treatment at the dispensary, followed by a change of air or invaliding in the severe cases. Candidates with enlarged spleens of whatever nature are rejected from admission to the factory. Cases of tropical diarrhoeas and dysentery rank next to malaria in incidence amongst tropical diseases. These are mainly caused by chills and indiscretion in diet, and are not the result of factory conditions. Suitable treatment for bowel diseases, viz., chlorodine, bismuth and castor-oil emulsions, emetine, yatren, is given.

30. (iii) Speaking generally, the staff of this factory wholly accept western medicine, as full advantage is taken of the facilities provided by divers castes and creeds, be the case surgical or medical. Much depends on the personnel of the medical department. The results include good medical care, a perfect faith in the doctor, and the doctor's patience, and personality eliminate nearly every difficulty as regards the acceptance of allopathic medicine. Persuasion, tact and even gentle force have to be used in the small percentage of the illiterate or stubborn or superstitious cases. Gratuitous and good treatment encourage the patient to accept western medicine.

#### VII.—Safety.

44. From 1st March, 1929, to 31st October, 1929 :—Cases within the Factory Act (major), 31 ; cases without the Factory Act (minor), over 2,000.

45. *Causes*.—(1) Neglect, absent-mindedness, ignorance of handling work and material ; (2) necessary, unavoidable (pure accident) ; (3) industrial fatigue (a minor cause) ; (4) Absence of proper preventive measures for safety ; (5) enmity and jealousy ; (6) haphazard condition of material or machinery or uneven ground.

46. Accidents can be prevented by the following measures :—(1) Provision of proper guards and fencing to machinery ; (2) selection of competent men who have handled the same machinery previously ; (3) proper care and attention on the part of the operator ; (4) proper allocation and fixity of machinery and material ; (5) selection of men of sound presence of mind, good physique, clear vision, good nerves and of a healthy dietary : industrial fatigue would be thus reduced to a minimum ; (6) a thorough training in the handling of machinery by the foreman and appreciation of the possible dangers in dealing with such machinery ; (7) removal and segregation of all dangerous waste material, e.g., nails, etc., to a safe dumping place.

48. *First-aid Medical Relief*.—The half-time medical officer, the full-time dresser-cum-compounder and the hamal comprise the staff of this section. The employment and assistant employment manager give ordinary assistance to the patient, such as provision of ambulance, removal of the patient to the doctor's residence or hospital. No fatal case has as yet occurred on the premises, nor any grave case of a surgical nature, e.g., avulsion of a big member, rupture of internal viscera, etc.

*Treatment—Wounds*.—The antiseptics used are :—(1) Lotions—hydrogen peroxide, camphenol, boric and carbolic ; (2) Dressings and disinfectants—tincture Benzoïn Co., tincture iodine, iodoform and boric, etc. ; (3) Johnson's & Johnson's cotton wool, lint and bandages.

The Bets operation table, U.S.A. army model, is provided, together with Esmarchs rubber tourniquet. An ambulance stretcher is always provided for the more serious cases. The dressings are changed ordinarily every 24 hours. A prophylactic dose of Hoefts antitoxin (tetanus) of 3,000 units is administered in all infected wounds and burns, especially if the former are caused by rusty nails. Serious cases, surgical or medical, are taken in the ambulance with one or more attendants to the patient's home or hospital, after rendering first-aid at the dispensary or the doctor's residence. These cases comprised so far major wounds, fractures, dislocations, appendicitis, hyperpyrexia due to malaria or pneumonia, and synopes. Treatment is continued at the factory or hospital depending on the condition of the patient. A serious case may be admitted in a hospital for a short time and discharged. The treatment is continued at the factory and the patient certified to resume duty only when thoroughly fit. Cases of wounds requiring suturing, haemostatics or minor amputations are dealt with on the spot. Thus tendons have been stitched and arteries ligated, apart from ordinary stitching. Crushing injuries are treated with continued soda chloride solution compresses with stimulants.

*Fractures, Dislocations and Sprains*.—Cases of fractures of the fore-arm and dislocation of the shoulder have occurred. These have been set and immobilized. Subsequent splinting, massage, passive and active movements have been carried out. Ample leave is given for such conditions within the Factory Act, and none permitted to resume duty till the disjoined parts are normal. The help of the X-rays is used both

at the onset of the accident and even later. Sprains and traumatic synovitis are fairly common. Scott's dressing, lin. Iodi, and lin. Belladonna with lin. Saponis used judiciously in these cases have shown good results.

*Burns.*—Cases of burns of various degrees have been met with. These have been satisfactorily treated with carron-oil dressings, picric acid, and later with other ordinary emollients, e.g., petrolatum and weak boracic ointment.

*Foreign Bodies in the Eye.*—Pieces of metal, wood, chemicals, have entered the eye during work. Removal of the foreign body, cleansing with a daily wash of zinc and boric lotion, and shielding the affected eye have given satisfactory results as no complication has so far occurred to cause loss of the eye or even defective vision. Chemical agents in the eye are cleansed with distilled water and neutralized suitably, or treated with instillation of castor oil, depending on the type of case.

*Syncope.*—These generally occur from high fever, haemorrhages from wounds, hunger, heat or industrial fatigue. The patients are put on a stretcher and brought to the first-aid department. Sal volatile, spirit ammon. aromat., and even stimulant hypodermic injections are administered, if necessary. Ordinary cases that revive soon resume duty after little rest in the dispensary; serious cases are sent home or to the hospital, depending on the etiology of the attack. Only one mild case of electric shock came to my notice, which recovered promptly with ordinary stimulants and a little artificial respiration.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. Compensation is given to all cases injured on duty, provided neglect or shamming is not involved. Wages are paid for short absence, and for those accidents which require more than 10 days' leave full pay for the absent days is given. In case of a permanent injury when a function or functions of a particular member are lost, compensation is given proportionate to the extent of loss of function. The disability of the employee and his wage-earning capacity are always taken into consideration in estimating the amount of compensation. The employees take full advantage of the Act, some of them even going to the extent of shamming and sending legal notices. No deserving claim can be overlooked as the Commissioner of the Workmen's Compensation Act enquires into these cases, as well as the Government Factory Department. Locally, the accountant, medical officer of the plant, the insurance company and the employment manager deal with any such claim as to its merits or demerits. Two claims of supposed permanent injuries are being discussed at present, though hardly tenable, and the commissioner has not yet been appealed to, despite voluminous correspondence between solicitors and this firm. The fact is that the onus and blame often rests on the employee for neglect in such cases and not on the employer.

53. (iii) A very few mild cases of industrial diseases have occurred, and these have readily responded to medical treatment and hygienic advice. None have been invalidated on this ground so far, and the question of compensation has not arisen. If an otherwise healthy individual contracts industrial disease in the course of work, he is liable for compensation. A regular watch kept on any susceptible employee by the foreman and the medical officer would eliminate this factor or at least check its progress by suitable medical advice and treatment.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency.

114. If industrial fatigue can be reduced to a minimum, then, *ipso facto*, efficiency of workers will correspondingly rise. To effect efficiency a sound physique and good health are absolutely essential. The test for physical fitness should eliminate all weak and unsuitable candidates. A thorough knowledge of the work and machinery and healthy standards of diet and sanitation go a long way towards efficiency of workers. Addiction to drugs, owing to loss of nervous and muscular control, tends towards deficiency. Climate is an important factor both of the factory area and the native home of the employee, as the hardy races of northern India stand industrial fatigue far better than the denizens of the plains and coasts, their dietary contributing greatly to this factor. Malaria is a crippling factor and a very serious one in the causation of inefficiency in workers.

115. Selection of men of good physique, proper medical advice and treatment, with good hygienic conditions at home and the factory, should certainly turn out a better production, and easily cover the expenditure involved. The formation of workmen colonies under ideal hygienic conditions if managed well should prove an asset to both the employer and the employed.

The staple food of the factory hand and the Indian in general is rice, which does not give sufficient calorific energy for hard manual labour. A strict vegetable diet, viz., lentils (dhal), vegetables, ghee, wheat, bagri, and jwari would be ideal.

Alcohol and drug habits affect the efficiency of men and therefore production by absenteeism, also causes deficient output due to loss of nerves and muscular control. Men addicted to *ganja*, *charas*, *dhang*, or opium would be ordinarily inefficient workers. Industrial fatigue would be detrimental both for the quality and quantity of the outturn of labour.

116. *Possible methods of securing Increased Efficiency.*—(1) Selection of men of good physique in general.

- (2) Selection of men of sound experience and commonsense.
- (3) Selection of men unaddicted to drugs.
- (4) Efficient medical service to keep the men fit and regularly advised.
- (5) Elimination of the incidence of malaria and provision of proper sanitary quarters for workmen colonies.
- (6) Insistence of a suitable dieting for men with due allowance for their religious ideas.
- (7) Selection of men from Northern India and the Mofussil.
- (8) Proper supervision, instruction, and sympathy by the foreman.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. *Hours Worked per Week and per Day*—(i) *Normal.*—Eight hours per day, first five days of week; five hours on Saturday; 45 hours per week.

(ii) *Actual.*—Not exceeding 11 hours per day; not exceeding 60 hours per week.

(iii) *Spreadover.*—Workers not kept on call to exceed hours as shown in (ii).

56. *Days Worked per Week.*—Five-and-a-half days.

57. *Effect of 60 Hours Restriction*—(i) *On workers.*—Increases efficiency due to conservation of strength.

(ii) *On Industry.*—No effect in this factory.

59. *Possibility of Reduction in Maxima.*—Not considered advisable without provisions to take care of emergency cases such as breakdowns.

60. *Intervals*—(i) *Existing practice*—(a) *In relation to fatigue.*—Not exceeding four hours.

(i) (b) *In Relation to Workers' Meal-times.*—O.K.

(ii) *Suitability of the Law.*—O.K.

(iii) *Suitability of Hours during which Factory is Working.*—O.K.

(iv) *Number of Holidays given.*—All major gazetted holidays.

61. *Day of Rest*—(i) *Existing practice.*—Saturday afternoon and Sunday.

(ii) *Suitability of the Law.*—O.K.

62. *Exempting Provisions and the use made of them.*—Have been used only on two occasions this year.

## XII.—Wages.

96. (i) *In Industry.*—In this factory: Re. 1-4 annas per day minimum; Rs. 5 per day maximum. Average earnings Rs. 60 per month.

101. *Method of Fixing Wages*—(i) *By negotiated agreements.*—Yes: with workers. Starting pay based on experience of worker.

102. *Basis of Payment for Overtime and Sunday Work.*—Overtime at rate of one-and-a-half times standard rate paid for all over 8 hours on weekdays and all over 5 hours on Saturday.

103. *Extent of Standardisation.*—Wages about 50 per cent. standardised on basis of skill. Will eventually be 100 per cent. standardised.

105. *Minimum Wages—Advisability and possibility of statutory establishment.*—Considered advisable and practicable.

106. *Deductions*—(i) *Extent of fixing.*—Not in effect.

(ii) *Other Deductions.*—For lost tools only.

(iv) *Desirability of Legislation.*—Not necessary.

107. *Periods of Payment*—(i) *Periods for which wages paid.*—For calendar month.

(ii) *Periods Elapsing before Payment.*—One week after end of calendar month.

(iii) *Desirability of Legislation.*—Not considered necessary.

110. *Annual or other Leave.*—None in effect. Workmen allowed leave if considered necessary.

Rev. A. L. BRADBURY, Manager, INDUSTRIAL SETTLEMENT, HUBLI (DHARWAR).

I have noticed from newspaper reports the proposal that wages should be paid weekly has not been strongly urged before the Commission, and so I venture to ask the Commission to give this proposal further consideration.

As manager for nearly 10 years of a settlement of 2,500 people, most of whose male members are employed in the Bharat Spinning and Weaving Mill or the M. & S.M. Railway workshops, I have had a good deal of experience of Indian industrial workers, and this experience is widened by my association with a co-operative credit society and a grain shop.

A worker in the railway shops gets pay for the month on the 15th of the next month, and a worker in the mill on the second or third Saturday of the next month. That means that on pay day he is owed about six weeks' wages and that at no period after his first fortnight is he owed less than a fortnight's wages. I have considerable sympathy with the employer in the matter of keeping some pay in hand but I think that a week is ample.

The English members of the Commission know the purchasing customs of the British workman. I think it is true to say that practically all his purchases are on a cash basis. Marketing is done on Saturday. Enough money is retained to pay the rent on Monday and also to pay subscriptions to friendly societies, clothing clubs, holiday clubs, Christmas clubs, and so on.

The purchasing arrangements of the Indian workman are a complete contrast. Nearly all his purchases are on credit. His grain is purchased on credit and he is frequently two months in arrears with his payments and very likely this credit costs him two annas in the rupee. His clothes and his wife's clothes are purchased on credit. His wife purchases glass bangles on credit. His barber gives him credit. Meat, firewood, petty groceries, pan, bidies, medicines, liquor, mineral waters, are all bought on credit. The half-timer boy or girl in the mill runs a credit account with the sweetmeat roadside stall at the mill gate. The oil seller with his hand-cart of oil going from house to house gives credit. The only cash business I can think of is the cinema. Even the shroff will sell jewellery on a first payment of a quarter or a half. Add to these the serious debts at the time of marriages and births. The railway company does not give tickets on credit, but the money for a railway journey or holiday is very frequently borrowed.

I do not claim that the British workmen's weekly wages keep him on a cash basis, and the Indian workmen's monthly wages compel him to live on credit, but I am convinced that there is some considerable connection between these facts.

A few years ago a private member introduced a weekly wages bill into the Assembly. It made very little progress, and was defeated after a very inadequate debate. A Government speaker opposed the bill and stated that it would damage credit. I may have misunderstood him but if he meant that it would injure the workman's credit, and if he was right in saying this, then I maintain he advanced a most powerful argument in favour of the bill. I am confident that the very best thing that could happen to the Indian workman would be the destruction of his credit.

If the workman could be paid weekly, and get on to a cash instead of a credit basis for his purchases, I believe that before long an immense amount of his indebtedness would disappear and that slowly a habit of saving would grow with, in consequence, an immense improvement in his whole economic condition.

There are other arguments for this reform, but I venture to urge this especially for the consideration of the Commission.

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Mr. H. H. STRUTTON, Manager, SHOLAPUR INDUSTRIAL SETTLEMENT,  
AMERICAN MARATHI MISSION.

The fact of being in charge of a settlement of criminal tribes for over 12 years in Sholapur, where we have never had less than 1,000 of them employed in the mills, and, at times, have had about 1,800 thus employed, has given the writer good opportunities of studying the labour problems in this place.

It has been the practice of the settlement authorities to distribute its workers in each mill, in proportion to the total hands employed therein, rather than to allow the settlers to chose their own mills, and the changing about from one mill to another for trivial reasons, or without proper notice being given has been discouraged.



In the early years of the settlement, the mills accepted the tribes people when they were only able to do unskilled work. They were sent here after being found committing crimes and wandering about the district, and were new to restraint of any kind, nor had their children ever attended schools. They were, in addition to being unskilled and unruly, always ready to lift yarn and small movable articles from the mills, as well as money from the pockets of other hands.

These cases of theft were always sent, by the mill authorities, to be dealt with departmentally by the manager, and the culprit, after punishment, was usually given another chance at his job. Sometimes he was fined or required to furnish sureties for good behaviour, but in all cases the managers were notified, and unless the offence was very serious, the mill accepted him back again the next day, if not on his old job, on another that he could do. In this way, by showing co-operation and a certain leniency, police court delays, with the necessity of mill clerks or departmental heads appearing as complainants, and wasting a lot of their time, was avoided, and the settlement people and its authorities were greatly helped.

No discrimination has been made in the treatment meted out to settlement people and that given to town hands, nor has any resentment been shown by other mill hands when called upon to work side by side with tribes people.

An agreement was arrived at some years back, by which the proportionate number in each mill should be maintained, even though hands had to be sent off for various reasons. This has enabled us to count on the mills as a regular source of labour absorption, and by having the younger members of settlement families trained from half-timer age onwards, we have been able to get a higher percentage of skilled workers in the mills than was possible at the outset.

The ultimate result of the mill work as a successful source of income to such people as these tribes is evident from the fact that though the settlement had a population of 2,300 in 1917, when the present manager assumed charge, it has now a population of 4,500; is the largest C. T. settlement in India; has about the smallest percentage of absconders, and the crime statistics have gradually improved, as the settlers have earned better wages and become used to mill conditions.

This improvement each year is due, in a large measure to the increased earning capacity of each settler's family, and to the persistent teaching and supervision of the children in the schools, where enforced attendance daily has been the rule all along. When the jail commission visited Sholapur in 1920, the earning capacity of our people was under Rs. 15 per month as an average, due to so many being unskilled, and a large percentage being on temporary work only. But since then the average has gone up considerably, and with the grain bonus added, we have no complaints from anyone re. low wages. In fact, our difficulty here is to refuse admission to tribes from other settlements, who are continually asking to be drafted here for mill work, or relatives of present settlers who try to get in, either inside or outside the wire enclosure.

Many of our families are obtaining from Rs. 45 to Rs. 80 in wages, from the fact that more than one member is on regular work, and this makes for great contentment.

We have been able to place from 200 to 300 settlers on work other than as mill hands. Some have been taught masonry and carpentry; others have become motor drivers or railway hands. Certain of them are too wild to ever take up work inside a mill, and these are placed on outside work for the municipality on roads, or under some settler contractor who takes up a job of supplying road metal to the P.W.D. or the railways. This latter is paid for at piece-work rates, and is very suitable for tribes who will only work outdoors.

Owing to the impossibility of obtaining sufficient cultivatable land in the settlement area, which is about 175 acres, we have not been able to take up field or farm work as a means of employment and therefore are limited to using one irrigated field of about 10 acres only as a means of employing a few troublesome lads, and those whose health unfits them for mill work.

Technical school work has been carried on, with a trained staff, for several years. The mill authorities recognize the value of this as a means of getting the boys and girls familiar with work they will, later on have to do, and, for several years past, three mills have given a liberal grant towards the expenses of this school. The children are examined by the Government inspector each year and the results are satisfactory.

In addition to the technical school grant, four mills have given us a grant towards our medical work from the beginning, and this has helped us to maintain a good standard of health amongst the people. All of them mainly live and sleep in the open air, and we have followed the system of allowing them to erect their own huts and houses rather than build chawls for them, and this mode of living suits them better, as we have proved by comparing those at Umedpur settlement with those

using some of the old police line quarters in the Kalyanpur settlement in the city. We seek to enforce cleanly habits, and have our own staff of sweepers to deal with refuse and rubbish.

About 2,000 settlers and their dependents have now either been proclaimed free, or have been placed outside the settlement enclosures on probation. In addition to these, many families have, from time to time, been allowed to leave Sholapur, after purchasing land for themselves in the districts around, and are now settled down as farmers. We keep an oversight over such families by means of probation officers, and they are only required to live honest lives, send their children to school, and, in general, fulfil the conditions expected of all honest citizens wherever they may be living. After a period of six years these people are no longer classed as criminal tribes, provided they have shown a clean record during their probation. The recalls back to settlement life and conditions are less than 2 per cent. so far.

One of the benefits that the mills have derived from the employment of the tribes people is that they can count on the number as being regularly maintained, no matter whether the local labour market is disturbed on account of strikes, virulent epidemics or bountiful harvests. During strikes here we have been able and allowed to send our people to the mills to carry on essential outdoor or unskilled duties, if only because we have put it to the strike leaders that over 1,500 idle tribes people were likely to take the opportunity of helping themselves to valuables and property in the town if idle all day. In the strike of 1920 the officials of Sholapur applied to the Government for troops to be sent here, because of the danger of looting on the part of our people, or "due to the fact that there are 4,000 criminal tribes people here who are liable to break out and cause looting of shops, etc.;" but in any cases of disturbances due to strikes our people have never been involved.

In plague, cholera and smallpox outbreaks, by a system of compulsory inoculation, not only have our people been immune from attack but they have not stampeded away, no matter how serious the outbreak.

Regular attendance at the mills is maintained by a system of settlement inspectors appointed to check the attendance of about every 300 workers employed; they report and enquire into every case of absenteeism every morning. Those who are sick are given medical attention and a certificate which prevents them losing their job.

I have gone thus far into some of the history and methods of the settlement work, not because of any need to advertise such, but to illustrate that certain of the methods adopted in the settlement to ensure regular attendance, health of workers and housing under more or less healthy conditions; technical training of the young; regular reports about, and checking the delinquency of idle workers, might possibly be adopted or developed by any labour organization or institution that may undertake to look after the benefits of any group of mill workers.

In the first place, Sholapur seems to rank a bad third in competition with Ahmedabad and Bombay, in three important qualifications for successful mill work: (1) skilled labour; (2) regular attendance of weavers and higher paid hands; (3) stable mill population, due to migratory village hands.

It is common knowledge with all engaged or interested in mill industries, that the Ahmedabad mill worker is in a class by himself. The average Guzerati man is smarter in every respect than the average Mahratta. This is partly due to the fact that one has been familiar with cotton from infancy, whereas the other has seen little but the cultivation of food grains under difficult circumstances, and he has only comparatively recently been driven to take on mill work as a dire necessity, while the Guzerati has taken it on because he likes it and is prepared to stick to it.

Then the average Mahratta mill hand still has his family fields and will stay on in his village as long as those fields yield a good return, or he will go for a few months to the mills, and back to his village to help in the annual harvest, to say nothing of the fact that he has probably left his wife and family in that same village. These facts serve to show the difficulties Bombay and Sholapur mills have to meet in the classes of labour available.

For several years I ran a hand loom weaving factory for Christian employees. I found that the only ones who made a living wage on an average of 8 hours a day were men who had been gathered, as orphans, from Guzerat; these married and maintained a family on the outturn of their looms, whereas others, from the Deccan, failed to make a living.

Sholapur, whether in spite of its mills or because of them, is said to hold the record for the Presidency, for the prevalence of the hand loom industry. From the experience gained by going in and out of the houses of hand loom weavers here, I would say that the industry is only maintained, or able to continue, because the men work at least 12 hours a day, and have the help of their women folk in the preparing and sizing of the warps, and of their children in the filling of bobbins. They have few holidays and are seldom seen idle. One can hear the looms working at all hours of the night, and if a parade of hand loom weavers was called out, few would pass an average medical test.

Another reason that it continues to hold its own is because of the facility for buying cheap yarn in Sholapur. Not only are coloured yarns of all textures that have become tangled in dyeing or by rough handling in the mills, sold at greatly reduced rates as waste yarn—a lot of which is capable of use by hand loom weavers, with their family free labour to unravel same and wind it on to bobbins or into warps; but it is a well recognized fact that a lot of yarn pilfering goes on in every mill, and much walks out of the gates every evening on the persons of women employees, the searching of whom is a task that no one will undertake.

But the chief reason that the industry continues is that these weavers came here long ago from the Nizam's dominions, a Telegu crowd, and they still have the natural desire to be their own masters, and to work at whatever class of work, little or much, as they choose. Others have joined them, and from their numbers younger men have become mill weavers. They are, to a considerable extent, hag-ridden by local money lenders, and in grievous debt to yarn sellers.

There is little doubt in the minds of employer and employed alike, that labour for the mills should be organized, and unions formed, but success in this respect will be slowly obtained. It would be a mistake to try and organize unions immediately along the lines that meet with success in the Western countries.

Experience in strikes here leads everyone to the conclusion that anyone with a glib tongue can sway the average mill-hand crowd. It will be a matter of considerable time before a union of mill hands can attain the position of winning the confidence of employed and employers to anything like the extent that this is possible in lands where two or three generations have enjoyed the benefits of sound education.

For this reason the aims of any trades union organization ought to be modified into dealing with matters that can be definitely chartered out or laid down, and such unions should have linked with them, in some capacity, an officially recognized labour expert, qualified by experience in the industry concerned, as well as experience with the Indian employee, and a working knowledge of their vernacular, to maintain some balance in the matters under dispute.

Too often, the type of union representative Bombay Presidency has had experience in, so far, has not been of the kind that will eventually serve the best interests of labour, or get for it any concessions worth while.

*Labour Arbitration.*—It may be possible to establish some kind of a labour arbitration court in the three large mill centres, later on; but before this is done, it will be necessary to have the profit-making capacity of the industry, and the efficient earning capacity of the employees properly explored and tabulated. If unions as such are established, then the various branches of employment, relative to the skill or importance of the workers should have separate union committees, and it should never be possible for a small portion of employees in a mill to engineer a strike in that mill, which might have the effect of involving others, merely because they themselves have a grievance, or because, as in many cases in the past, a worker or jobber has been discharged for some offence committed in the mill.

That there are uneven rates of pay in certain mills, due to various causes, such as long usage; special kinds of cloth or yarn manufactured in particular mills, or special processes used, that will bear adjustment after looking into, no one will deny. But such problems can best be dealt with by a small committee of experts, on which labour can have its representative. Only in this way will it be possible to arrive at standard rates of pay that will be practical and satisfactory.

*Welfare Workers* appointed to any mills will have little or no power to deal with serious cases of breaches of mill rules or the discharge of any person, even if the welfare worker is appointed by the mill itself. The few exceptions to this will be found to be men of outstanding ability and infinite tact. It stands to reason that the sub-manager or master of each department must reserve to himself the right to discharge any person for inefficiency, for insubordination, or for incitement to refuse to do any work he may allot to any hands under him. Such discharged workers always have the right to appeal to the higher authorities in the mills, if they are hands of any standing; if they are not, they use the bazaar writer. In cases where bad judgment or vexatious dismissal occurs very often, it very soon becomes evident to the management that the particular master concerned is not getting the best out of the hands in his department, or treating them with due consideration. Such a man runs greater risks here than anywhere else.

*Jobbers and Bribery.*—This question is a very old one, and there is little doubt that each mill, sooner or later, has to deal with some of its jobbers for this sort of thing. Taking the question as a whole my experience has been that such charges are usually exaggerated by disappointed workers failing to obtain work, or the particular kind of work they wanted, men who have often moved from mill to mill to see where their system would obtain for them the best job. As in the previous

paragraph referring to vexatious treatment, jobbers who are in the habit of taking bribes never get a very long run for their money, unless they are careful to stock their department with efficient and contended hands, a thing hard to do if they are ready to lay one man off against another.

Anyone really familiar with mill conditions will agree, in any case, that far less of this bribery goes on to-day than was going on five years ago, and the remedy for it lies exactly where the remedy for other inefficient work lies, in an improved mill-hand. Good workers do not need to bribe their way into any mills. Bad workers will continue to do it, jobber or no jobber.

Being one who has been aptly described as a "glorified jobber" myself, and one who has, of necessity, to get all of his able bodied men into the best possible jobs available for them, I would say that until labour is sufficiently well graded, as well as organized, to ensure the mill management being able to pick the best available workers from the local labour market, the jobber has to continue his job. I know some very decent men amongst them. Besides these, several of my best crims have been made jobbers in the local mills. I would very soon hear of it, if they started taking bribes.

*Technical Education.*—If asked to emphasize the greatest need the mill industry has to-day, I would say that it lies in the substitution of more technical education, in place of the policy of giving every bright lad, and many others, a chance to go on and get what passes for a high school education in India.

There is no remedy for the present glut of unskilled mill labour on the market—these people will live and die unskilled. But that is no reason why the rising generation should not be made skilled in many trades. The material is there, sufficient to equip and thoroughly equip every trade with efficient workers, but the dearth of properly organized technical schools throughout the Presidency is deplorable, and until the education department and each local body or municipality wake up to the need of properly training the youth of their schools, whether they will or no, into expert tradesmen, at the same time making their high school standards much higher, India will have to buy its best articles abroad, or have other countries dump them here at prices they cannot compete with.

There is no reason discoverable why Sholapur should not have one or two large and well-equipped technical schools, one of which should specialize in training lads as mill hands, in every department of such work, from raw cotton up to the best grades of yarn and cloth. Attendance at such schools should be as compulsory as at others. The marvel is that this city has escaped having such schools till now. The mills, even if they can get back to the rosy period of ten years ago, cannot run such schools here, any more than they do such things in other countries. It is as much a municipal task as keeping a city clean, or combating disease, and the education department is at last waking up on the matter, or beginning to, and will give grants, within a year or so to all local bodies who are willing to open them. Let us hope they will withhold all ordinary grants to those who will not.

Technical night schools, also, should be opened for all lads from 12 to 16, already in the mills.

*Welfare Work; Medical and Housing Schemes.*—The amount of activity along these lines should be left to each mill to decide on the grounds of its own workers' needs, plus the profit earning capacity of the mill concerned. At all events, this is not the time to offer advice to the mills on the subject when most of them are struggling with adverse balance sheets.

The fact that most of the well-managed mills started out to do something worth while along these lines when profits were good, is enough to show that they can be trusted to look after the interests of their workpeople, apart altogether from the fact that they know it is in their interest to see to this. In these days of great advancement of ideas of social work for the masses, no one can shut their eyes or pockets for long to urgent needs of this kind. To say, however, that a lot of the welfare work begun in this and other presidencies on behalf of the mill workers, has not met with a great deal of gratitude on the part of those catered for, is merely to state a fact.

With regard to the special problem of housing it is only fair to expect that if the mills are to build special houses for their workers, who then contribute in a large measure to the revenue of the city, they should not have to pay the highest possible market rates for any land they require for such purposes, especially as the rental returns they charge are nominal only. At present they have to buy in keen competition with others in the open market, or if Government land is available they have at times been asked the highest rate obtaining for the best land in the place. Wherever such land is available the lowest rate rather than the highest should be charged.

I would rather be inclined to favour co-operative building societies to cope with the housing problem in most places.

*Women Workers—wages and benefits.*—From 200 to 300 women and girl workers from the settlement are at work in the Sholapur mills.

In no department of the mills is there so great a difference in the wage earning capacity of the workers, as in the winding and reeling departments. Other jobs, where fewer women are employed need no comment, as they are stocked with older unskilled workers.

Certain women, clever and skilled, make good wages, and these are employed on the better classes of work. Mr. Shaw, when out here, put the ratio of efficiency of the men in mills as compared with Lancashire (skilled only), as four against one. He was silent about the women.

In every mill in Sholapur, I would say 20 per cent. more women can be found each week than the actual work calls for. From my own observations, it seems that quite a number are employed because they will not leave, or because they would sooner be there and do some work which will bring them in a certain amount of wages per month, plus a bonus for attendance and the grain allowance, than remain at home, and be limited to the lesser amount of pity gossip they would hear, or be idle. Certain it is, that if a minimum amount of wage was introduced into their departments, many of them would be idle. If the mills were short of space, and flush with work, then the survival of the fittest would begin, but as things are, the women will not give you correct answers if you ask about their pay; they will not thank anyone who would try to weed out the inefficient, and they have their own way of sorting themselves into or out of the different mills, till they are all somebody else's relatives.

To introduce better conditions of work and pay, or any form of social improvement into the women's departments in mills will always be difficult, if only for the reason that most of the muceddam women (jobbers again) in charge are of doubtful local repute. No other kind will undertake the job of bossing women about in any department, their tongues are not free enough.

*Maternity Benefits Bill.*—The less one says about this the better. If it were a social measure for the benefit of women in the mills, surely it would not have suggested that the women should leave an all-day standing-up job not one month before confinement, but three. It is probably meant to be a real benefit to the young women who have to go to the mills for work, but the fact that the benefit amount is fixed at about the highest wages earned by women, will have the effect of closing up many younger women's jobs, when jobbers can get older and more efficient ones, for it is age that makes for efficiency in women's work. I very much doubt whether any mill will be able to stand the extra cost that this rate will involve, if properly adhered to. For the mofussil the rate is much too high, especially in view of the fact that the women have the option of using the maternity wards that most mills either run or subscribe to. It seems to be a hurriedly conceived Bill that needs amending and adjusting to city and mofussil requirements and conditions.

It is my experience here, that the women are well treated in all of the mills, that they are keen to accept work on the present pay and existing conditions, though I occasionally have complaints as to their wanting better-class work, but these are, as often as not, made by the more troublesome types amongst them. They also have the pick of the rooms, as far as fresh air and light go, in all of the mills. The fact that we do not have to watch their attendance records as we do the men's speaks for itself.

In conclusion, I would say that I think there is a genuine desire on the part of most, if not all, of the mill managers to improve the general conditions under which mill labour exists; and if there had not been so many varied interests involved, and so much anti-capitalistic propaganda put before the ignorant masses of mill hands during the past three years or more, with its consequent dislocation of, and loss to the industry, labour conditions would have been better to-day than they are.

Intimate contact with mill managers and mill hands for 12 years convinces me that there is a far better feeling existing between the two parties than can be gathered from newspaper reports, and there is a genuine desire on the part of most mill owners and agents to tackle the question of removing removable grievances, if, and whenever possible.

Though the question may be outside the province of the Royal Commission on Labour, it is a fact that stares everyone in the face, that until some change is made in Indian tariff rules that will rectify the unfair competition that Japanese and Chinese as well as continental goods are able to come into India with—if only for the reason that India's cotton trade was established under conditions prevailing before the war—then any rules framed for the benefit of mill labour are likely to become a dead letter and unworkable.

I am an Australian, and have carefully watched for 40 years the struggle of that country to establish self-contained industries and although messes enough have been made there with tariff bolstered and subsidised industries, she could not have established what sound industries are found there now, without tackling the serious economic and tariff problems involved.

India is going to change from a self-centred, self-contained country into one that will want to increase its exports and decrease its imports. Farmers are no longer content to grow food enough for themselves and their cattle, and live on in the old communal exchange style that was the vogue when I came here 35 years ago. They want money now, so they grow peanuts for cash. They even go so far as to export the Indian egg.

Their sons are going to be industrial workers in cities, good or bad ones, according to the way they are trained. The father will introduce improved methods into his farming, not because he is advised to, but when he realizes there is money in it.

Greater changes have come into agricultural labour conditions in India during the past 10 years than are generally known. The fact that exporting firms can afford to, and already have, placed thousands of well-paid buying agents into all the large towns in India, and the Indian firms also are taking this export trade up, has to be taken into account when rural and urban labour conditions are reviewed, as it is a big factor in the increase in the cost of living for all workers, whether they live in cities or villages. The days of cheap grain foods are gone, never to return.

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LALSHANKER J. BHATT, MEDICAL OFFICER, THE CHANDRODAYA MILLS, LTD., VIRAMGAM.

I am connected with the mills at Viramgam since last 13 years as medical officer, and during the period for about 3 years worked as representative of the official liquidator.

Mills being in existence here since last 45 years, labour is mostly local and is recouped from surrounding villages and from Rajputana, especially Marwar.

Unemployment here is generally in educated classes, and retrenchment, whenever it occurs, affects these classes (clerks, etc.) more than any other body.

Relations between the staff and rank and file are generally fair. The Chandrodaya Mills, Ltd., have got works committee out of the workers, and its existence lessens the chances of strike, etc. Attendance registers are kept by the timekeepers and wages are actually paid by the office staff. Viramgam Mills have got chawls for their workers and if provision for sullage, water, etc., is made, they may prove a blessing. Workers lose money by indebtedness and drinking, etc. To cure root cause of illiteracy and its consequences, Primary Education Act, passed by the Bombay Government, must be put in force at any sacrifice, by which morality and homely life will also come in order. Medical facilities in a limited sense are provided. To improve physique, and to reduce heat, some facilities and contrivances ought to be kept to have the temperature cool inside the mills' departments.

Illness is often the cause of absenteeism, as malaria is chiefly prevalent here. Surroundings of the mills are such, that unless these are mended it cannot be prevented.

Welfare work is not carried out here, but shelters and refreshments are kept in mill's compounds. Employers have got insurance for their workpeople and its advantage is fully taken. Wages are earned by workpeople more than other persons of the local and surrounding places, but due to their ignorance and indulgence, more money is wasted by them than others.

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R. B. Dr. V. V. MULAY, L.M. & S., PRESIDENT, MUNICIPALITY, SHOLAPUR.

*Notes on Sholapur Municipality.*

Income, about Rs. 9,00,000. Population, 114,000. Octroi, Rs. 3,00,000. Taxes, Rs. 3,50,000. Rents on land, Rs. 35,000. Market and slaughter-house, Rs. 30,000.

The rest include sale proceeds of land, fees, Government contributions, etc.

Municipality spends on Capital works about Rs. 1,50,000.

Housing quarters for municipal menials Rs. 50,000 spent in last three years.

Housing sites for the poor are provided for in town planning scheme No. 1 and No. 2.

The whole of Telangi Pachha Peth, occupied by the weaver class people, purchased by the municipality in town planning scheme No. 1 for the benefit of the tenants.

S. No. 96, occupied by the poor class people is under development at municipality's expense.

New Tirhegaon, occupied by menials belonging to railway, mills and other working class and depressed class people, developed entirely at the municipality's expense and efforts.

(1) Credit Co-operative Society for the municipal employees; (2) Credit Co-operative Society for municipal school teachers; (3) Credit Co-operative Society for municipal staff under formation; (4) Municipal Staff Association with definite aims and objects to improve their general conditions.

Health welfare work :—Two maternity homes; three dispensaries; one Lady Dufferin hospital; Leprosy treatment centre and asylum; periodical celebrations of health and baby weeks.

Education :—Compulsory primary education adopted. Depressed class hostel maintained on municipal contribution. Industrial school under contemplation.

Extensive schemes for improvement of water supply and drainage and town improvement are already undertaken and being executed successfully during the last six years.

#### THE NARSINGGIRJI MANUFACTURING CO., LTD., SHOLAPUR.

Double khada system, whereby operatives were cut two days pay for one day's absence without leave, was stopped about a year ago. Absentees have gone up, as a result, about 5 per cent.

##### *Examination of Indebtedness in the Narsinggirji Mill, Sholapur, 1929.*

Total employees on books	..	..	..	..	..	4,035
Absentees	..	..	..	..	..	390
Half-timers	..	..	..	..	..	250
Reeling women	..	..	..	..	..	700
Winding women	..	..	..	..	..	495
						1,835
						2,200 men.

The 2,200 male workers were individually questioned regarding their debts.

In some cases they have apparently given figures which are excessive, but on the whole their statements may be regarded as reasonably accurate.

The total indebtedness of the 2,200 persons was 3,17,000. Out of the 2,200, 1,250, or 57 per cent. were in debt.

The average indebtedness per indebted person is Rs. 254.

The average rate of interest worked out on individual rates and not on the debt basis is 30 per cent.

450 out of the 2,200 indebted persons hold land or other property from which they derive income.

The average income per head per month of these 450 persons is practically Rs. 6.

##### *Some useful Information from the Narsinggirji Mfg. Co., Ltd., Sholapur.*

(1) Total number of hands on roll: 4035. Male, 2208; women, 1327; children, 500.

(2) Percentage of absentees, 12 to 15 per cent.

(3) Average number of substitutes engaged daily, 80 in spinning; 85 in weaving.

(4) Maternity benefit given per month (since Act came in force): average to 8 women.

(5) Number of accidents, 8 to 12 per year. Majority of these are minor accidents.

- (6) Percentage of Mahommedans amongst the millhands, 15 per cent.
- (7) Half-timers, boys and girls attending the school : 199 boys on register, about 164 boys present.
- (8) Average wages (including high price allowance—30 per cent. on fixed wage and 35 per cent. on piece work) :—
- |                          |                            |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| Spinning men .. .. .     | Rs. 17 to 20 per mensem.   |
| Spinning women .. .. .   | Rs. 7 to 8.                |
| Half-timers—Boys .. .. . | Rs. 7-12-9 pies.           |
| Girls .. .. .            | Rs. 7-12-9 pies.           |
| Weaving men .. .. .      | Rs. 20 to 25, single loom. |
|                          | Rs. 35 to 55 double loom.  |
| Grey winders .. .. .     | Rs. 6 to 8.                |
| Coloured winders .. .. . | Rs. 8 to 10.               |
- (9) Grain Benefit.
- |                      |                                    |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Spinning men .. .. . | 7 to 8 per cent. on their wages.   |
| Weaving men .. .. .  | 5 to 6 per cent. on their wages.   |
| Women .. .. .        | 14 to 16 per cent. on their wages. |
| Children .. .. .     | 8 per cent. on their wages.        |
- (10) Concession of house rent in mill chawls, to those only who are housed there, 45 to 50 per cent.
- Percentage of benefit on wages comes to spinning men, 8 per cent. ; weaving men, 5 per cent.
- (11) Total number of blocks, 309 tenements in chawls ; about 1,300 people living there.
- (12) Daily bonus to half-timers,  $\frac{1}{4}$  anna (for regular and punctual attendance).  
Daily bonus to women, 1 anna (for regular and punctual attendance).  
Percentage of benefit of bonus on wages : half-timers, 11 to 12 per cent. ; women, 22 to 23 per cent.
- Every year regularly bonus is being distributed to workers.
- Last year out of 4,000 people, about 2,695 hands received full bonus, i.e., 65 per cent. of the total ; about 265 hands received  $\frac{1}{4}$  bonus, i.e., 7 per cent. of the total.
- Condition of distribution of bonus (307 working days in a year) —(a) The workers who are absent up to 76 days in a year get full bonus, (b) The workers who are absent up to 105 days in a year get  $\frac{1}{4}$  bonus, (c) the workers who are absent for more than 105 days get no bonus.
- (13) Separate latrines and urinals and drinking water taps for men and women.
- (14) Medical help given free to all millhands.
- (15) Hospital, primary school, dispensary, creche, are maintained.
- (16) An Indian gymnasium and recreation ground is kept in chawls.
- (17) After allowing for repairs, the interest on capital on chawls comes to less than 2 per cent.
- (18) Humidifying and cooling carrier plant is installed in all the three floors of carding and spinning rooms, cost of which was about one and half lakhs.
- (19) In weaving department there is underground humidifying plant and arrangement for sprinkling water on roofing also is made.
- (20) Supply of filtered cold water to the workers for drinking is specially maintained in hot season.



# ROYAL COMMISSION

ON

# LABOUR IN INDIA

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TO

Volume I, Parts I and II

**BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.**



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ROYAL COMMISSION  
ON  
LABOUR IN INDIA.  

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**EVIDENCE.**

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## THE PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

### Introduction.

1. The Punjab motto "*crescat e fluviiis*" is in itself an indication that the fortunes of the province stand mainly on agriculture, and a confession that of the three constituents of large scale industry, i.e., adjacent water, coal and iron, only one of these is abundantly available. With its Himalayan forests and its Himalayan water power the Punjab has a fair field for industrial development despite the handicap of its remoteness from seaports, but with agriculture as its supreme industry the concomitants of industrial activity, viz., specialization and urbanization have yet to make their appearance. The main class of Punjab factories, viz., the cotton ginning factories, are seasonal and spring from the cultivation and not the mining of the soil, and the process of production are complementary to agriculture and not linked in contiguity with other processes as in professional industry precipitating itself in urban agglomerations.

2. The following paragraphs from the memorandum prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission by the Government of the Punjab, Volume I, Part I.—Descriptive matter may be referred to for a description of the province :—Paragraphs 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 26.

3. The best comment on the present importance of the "field of industry" is the shortness of the paragraph devoted to it. The chief existing industries are weaving, dyeing, woodwork, ironwork and tanning. Among agricultural industries may be instanced oil-pressing, flour milling, cotton ginning, sugarcane crushing, rice hulling, and other processes in the preparation of raw produce for consumption. These are indigenous industries. As regards newer industries based on agriculture there should be mentioned sericulture and silk, the manufacture of paper from grass, fruit and its preservation and canning, lac, oil refining and hydrogenating. Examples of industries derived from agriculture are petroleum and its derivatives, cement, glass, and industries based on the utilization of forest products, i.e., turpentine and resin, and for this group both capital and trained skill are required.

### Descriptive Matter.

The following subjects with which the present enquiry is concerned are distributed under the portfolios mentioned :—

Portfolio of the Honourable Member for Revenue	.. Forests, irrigation, industrial matters (reserved), criminal tribes.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Agriculture	.. Public works.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Education	.. Industries.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Local Self-Government.	Medical and public health.

For a description of these subjects reference may be made to the following paragraphs in the Punjab Government's memorandum prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I (Description Matter) :—

- Forests—paragraphs 90 and 91.
- Irrigation—paragraph 96.
- Industrial matters reserved—paragraphs 101–105.
- Criminal Tribes—paragraphs 107–113.
- Public Works—paragraphs 159–164 and 177–187.
- Industries—paragraphs 188–195.
- Medical—paragraphs 202–203.
- Public Health—paragraphs 217–231

### I.—Recruitment and Employment.

1. Agriculturally there is neither a shortage of labour, nor any superfluity. The Punjab colonies in their gradual development in the last 30 years have relieved the congestion in the thickly populated districts of the central Punjab, and the only mobility in agricultural labour is in this irregular trend to the colonies, and in the

seasonal influx of harvesters to the colonies either from adjoining dry Punjab districts or from arid Rajputana from where is also derived a considerable volume of migratory unskilled labour (including women) for building and construction work in the Province. This mobility, limited as it is, is automatic.

2. According to the census report of 1921, the total number of persons employed in 763 industrial establishments in the Punjab was 61,236, or about 25 per cent. of the total population of the province. It was then reported that 70 per cent. of the skilled labour and nearly 50 per cent. of the unskilled labour was recruited from the district of birth. According to the latest annual report on factories (1928), the total number of persons employed in all factories in the Punjab is 51,613, of which 43,296 are men, 7,534 women and 783 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 13,629, are employed in railway workshops, 4,743 in government factories such as military workshops, arsenals, etc., and 33,241 in all other factories.

Of the total number, 21,763 are employed on seasonal work, of which 21,335 are in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 428 in rice factories. Women are mostly employed in cotton ginning factories as unskilled workers, numbering 7,123 out of a total of 7,534 employed in all factories.

Of the total number of children, 93 are employed in textile mills, 246 in cotton ginning factories and 444 in other factories such as sports works, printing presses, match factories, cement factories and oil refineries.

Workers in factories other than those employed in railway workshops, textile mills and a few other engineering works belong mostly to the agricultural class and they seek employment in factories only with a view to fill in their time between harvests. The majority of skilled workers in railway and engineering works are imported from other provinces and having no interest in the land are keen upon improving themselves. Bombay and the United Provinces supply certain numbers of factory managers, engineers and head mistris, many of whom are Parsees. A fair number of engineers and boilermen are Sikhs.

The labour in factories is mostly unorganized, only the highly paid men holding positions of responsibility such as factory managers and engineers continue to remain in service for any length of time in the same factory. It is rare to find a worker earning less than Rs. 150 a month, who has been in the same factory for more than three or four years.

3. The development and maintenance of the Punjab Canals affords employment to a large body of workers. Table I contains a statement giving the gross area for each canal, or circle of superintendence. There is little, if any, migratory labour on open canals: local labour is obtained from neighbouring cultivators or village menials, who take up work on the canals where agricultural operations are slack.

As regards canals under construction, the chief engineers report that "the employment of 'local' or 'imported' labour depends on the conditions of the tract in which the canal is being constructed. In tracts thinly populated, practically all labour is 'imported', but there have been cases recently of new canals being constructed in tracts already poorly served by inundation canals in which 'local' labour was easy to get, in these, 'local' labour has been mainly employed.

"'Imported' labour comes from the north-west frontier province, Afghanistan, Bikaner State, and the dry districts of the Punjab where rainfall is scanty and conditions bordering on famine frequently prevail. Labour from the North-West Frontier Province and Afghanistan works only under contractors from its own tracts and always returns home for the hot weather; labour from Peshawar will sometimes remain throughout the hot weather, but only with great difficulty.

"The amount of 'imported' labour obtainable from the dry districts of the Punjab and Bikaner State depends almost entirely on the monsoon; if rainfall is good very little labour is obtainable in the following winter and then only at high wages.

"Statistics of labour employed on Open Canals are not maintained; statistics maintained on canals under construction show that: (a) in one circle the average number of men employed daily from 1st January, 1925, to 31st October, 1926, was 6,644, the maximum number was 12,414 in February, 1926, and the minimum 3,431 in October, 1925; (b) at a headworks, now nearing completion, the average number employed daily from beginning of November, 1926, to end of June, 1929, was 2,172 men, the maximum number being 5,448 in February, 1929, and the minimum 945 in August, 1927."

4. In the industrial field such migration of labour as there is tends towards (a) the canal colonies, (b) such business and industrial centres as Lahore, Amritsar, Ludhiana, Sialkot. The Director of Industries notes, "It was noted by the district census officer of Amritsar in 1921 that of 5,000 labourers at Amritsar in the busy season not more than 500 were permanent labourers. Most of these labourers

are drawn from the agricultural class. They frequently return to their villages at sowing and harvesting time or for ceremonial purposes. The labour employed in factories cannot be described as an industrial proletariat whose only source of livelihood is work in factories. On account of the development of agriculture in recent years the movement of labour towards the canal areas in Lyallpur, Montgomery and Multan has considerably increased. It may, however, be noted that most of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories in these areas is seasonal. It should also be stated in this connection that so far as the unskilled labour is concerned it is so plentiful that on no occasion has any difficulty been experienced in obtaining it." Skilled labourers, i.e., technical workers, foremen, mistries, have in the past been imported from the United Provinces, and from Bombay and Calcutta, but the growth of technical institutions in the Punjab in recent years is supplying the want in the way of qualified engineers, surveyors, draftsmen, mechanics and fitters. In areas where factories have been established a tendency is reported on the part of labour available in surrounding villages to take up factory work in preference to work on the field on account of its being more remunerative, but the volume of such work is small indeed, and the Punjabi, possibly from lack of sufficient opportunity, has still to take kindly to factory work.

5. As regards the method of recruitment, there is both direct recruitment, i.e., the applicant applies for employment usually in the evening for work on the next day, or the factory owner sends out agents to secure the labour he needs. The cotton ginning and baling factories usually employ a labour contractor who makes a daily payment to the labour he has recruited. In other industrial establishments labour is, as a rule, recruited directly. In the North-Western Railway workshops recruitment is now done through a labour bureau. On canal and construction works contractors have to look for their labour from the neighbourhood, and imported labour usually will not make a move till advances of money are given. In the Forest Department (felling and other work) labour is often nominally recruited by petty contractors, but actually cash advances against promises to work are made by the Forest Department on behalf of the contractors. Employment agencies and exchanges could perhaps be usefully employed with regard to the recruitment of skilled labour, but as regards unskilled labour, the present methods of recruitment work satisfactorily enough, and have the merit of being cheap.

6. *Unemployment.*—The Punjab Government in 1927 appointed a committee, whose terms of reference were:—"To investigate and report—(i) The extent of the existence of unemployment among (a) educated, and (b) the uneducated classes of the community in the Punjab; (ii) the causes of unemployment; and (iii) the possible remedies for unemployment."

The committee's report was published in pamphlet form in 1928. The committee came to the conclusion that there is no evidence of any serious and widespread unemployment among the uneducated classes, and such unemployment as did exist was voluntary rather than forced. The Director of Industries points out that in western countries where occupations are properly classified and where workers belong to sub-groups of a specialized trade, it is easy to determine the extent of unemployment, but in the Punjab where an ordinary mistry may take a job wherever he may get one without reference with any specialization on his part, it is by no means easy to appraise the quality and extent of unemployment. There is no such unemployment in the Punjab amongst skilled workers.

As regards the so-called unemployment among workers in cotton ginning factories, the committee were of the view that "as the cotton ginning season only lasts for four or five months it would appear to be more correct to say that the cotton ginning season is the off-season for their other employment." In fact, such labourers as are not in any way connected with agriculture (and this proportion is very small) easily find other employment on the termination of the ginning season, in the building trade, with local grain dealers or as private servants.

There is then little, if any, unemployment in the Punjab as far as labour is concerned. The reason is that there have been no great material developments carried out under any industrial system of private enterprise, bank credit and the specialization of labour, and consequently there is as yet no price to pay for these developments in the way of unemployment. Normal periodical unemployment due to cyclical fluctuations of trade is negligible, but here and there may occasionally be found an instance of unemployment incidental to industrial change and growth, as for example, at the Khewra Salt Mine, where the introduction of up-to-date plant has decreased the demand for manual labour in an immobile professional population.

As the report of the committee on unemployment shows, the local government is greatly exercised about possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress among the educated youth of the country, but so far as industry is concerned, the



Punjab is not an industrialized province, and consequently the effects of maladjustments in industry are on the whole negligible, and, therefore, no unemployment insurance scheme is needed for individuals condemned in virtue of their specialized trades to involuntary unemployment. The unskilled labour is mainly casual, and neither asks for nor needs decasualization. As regards the applications of international conventions, the need thereof may be gauged from the following ambiguous approval of the Director of Industries :—“ It appears that the Articles contained in the International Draft Conventions are indeed beneficial to the case of the working classes and may, therefore, be applied to the Punjab with certain modifications to suit the local conditions.”

7. The Director of Industries' opinion is that for skilled labour the average duration of employment varies from four months to four years, and that of unskilled labour from two to three months. The Inspector of Factories would put the period of casual employment in factories from four to seven months, depending on the season; the remaining portions of the year are spent in working on the land. In the forest department, seven months is the average duration of employment in the case of extraction of timber from the hills and resin tapping. Mr. Charles, Superintendent, Central Workshops, Public Works Department, Amritsar, which employ 400 to 500 men, has supplied the following note on unemployment and labour turnover in his workshops :—

“ *Skilled Men.*—That there must be a certain amount of unemployment among skilled men is indicated by the ease with which I can secure fresh men, but among skilled mechanics, etc., I do not think the matter is serious. I receive about six to eight applications for work in a month for skilled men.

“ Apart from temporary labour to meet specially urgent work, only about four or five of my regular men leave me of their own accord in a year. Many of these are young men who, having been taught their trade and gained some experience at these works, are looking out for advancement.

“ It is naturally my object to keep the labour turnover as small as possible and I have several men who have worked in these workshops for 15 years or more. These are mostly skilled men.

*Unskilled Men, Coolies, Menials, etc.*—In this case the matter is entirely different; there appears to be a lot of unemployment and the labour turnover is high. Many of them leave of their own accord, but there are plenty to fill their places. Half of those leaving go in order to try and get better pay. The remainder for no particular reason, for family reasons or merely for a change.

“ Out of 97 coolies employed, 6 have been at these workshops over 10 years and 35 over 2 years. During the year 1928, 39 coolies left and others were engaged to fill their places. Approximately one-third of the coolies leave every year.”

## II.—Staff Organisation.

1. In large scale works, e.g., the Attock Oil Co., Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, the Portland Cement Works, the managing staff is recruited from abroad. The subordinate supervising staff is drawn from the province itself, but recruitment from among the operatives is rare. There is a wide gulf between skilled and unskilled labour. Workmen are usually illiterate, and an unskilled worker has no opportunity of qualifying himself as a skilled worker. There are no facilities for workmen corresponding to technical evening classes in England. Lack of education is likely to stand in the way of any forwarding of the purpose underlying works committees and the like.

2. The notable personage in India is the contractor. If a job has to be done, or things or men are to be got, you employ a contractor. No task is trivial and possibly no task is too big for an Indian “ thekedar,” who may be described as being a public utility undertaking, operating nearly always with profit to himself. Works committees, works councils, and the like all coalesce here in the contractor, and his universal function of a supplier of labour. In Government construction works “ mistris ” or men of little education, and mates—themselves of no education—super-vice work done by labour supplied by contractors. The pivot is the contractor. For example, though piece-work records are kept in the Forest Department by the subordinates of the department, wages are paid by contractors or their agents, and all felling, logging, sawing, carrying and floating of timber is given on contract.

3. The Inspector of Factories has supplied the following note :— . . . . .  
“ Wages are sometimes withheld for two or three months, and then the employer takes an opportunity to get rid of the worker.”

4. Technical institutions in the province are proving increasingly useful in supplying subordinate supervising staff both in public concerns and in private enterprises.

### III.—Housing.

As far as Government is concerned, a lively road policy is being pursued, but it is not an integral part of any deliberate housing scheme. No enquiry has been conducted into the housing conditions of labour in towns and municipalities or into facilities provided by employers for their operatives. Big towns like Lahore and Amritsar are badly congested. In Lahore an improvement trust has been established which works in conjunction with the municipality, but there is no labour tenement or particular area in Punjab cities. Housing finds no part in public utility undertakings, and there is practically no expenditure on housing out of rates.

2. In its own factories and undertakings, Government provides housing accommodation for both the supervising and subordinate staff. No rent is charged for occupation of quarters by menials, but in the case of subordinate and clerical staff a deduction of 10 per cent. by way of rent is usually made from salaries. For unskilled labour a quarter 10 ft. by 10 ft. with a verandah is the prevailing type.

3. In privately-owned factories of any size, quarters are provided for the permanent staff, and some of the bigger mills house a proportion of the entire staff within the factory at a nominal rent. In cotton ginning mills no accommodation is provided—workers return to their homes at night and this is the common rule. In canal colony areas, where villages and small towns are planned by the Colonization Officer in consultation with the Director of Public Health, space is allotted round the walls of a factory for workers who can build their own quarters or huts for themselves. Workers are only too glad to get any accommodation provided by the employer, but the need to provide accommodation is rare.

4. There is not in the Punjab any differentiation between the housing conditions of industrial workers and their neighbours in the same social grade. There are no industrial slums as such, or any peculiar urban inflammation due to the presence of agglomerations of factory or other workers, and the housing of labour is not to be differentiated from that of the ordinary poor citizen. The North-Western Railway has set up its own colony at Moghalpura, but it does not cater particularly for the labour employed in the workshops.

### IV.—Health.

1. As regards the organization of the Department of Public Health, reference may be made to paragraphs 217-231 of the Punjab Government memorandum, prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I, Descriptive Matter.

2. Labour, as regards health, groups itself under the following classes—mill and factory labour, industrial and artisan labour, certain classes of railway and public works labour, migrant labour, and labour under restriction in jails and criminal tribes settlements.

In the Punjab there is no Ministry of Labour with a health side. The Public Health Department works under the Ministry of Local Self-Government, while labour interests are looked after in a number of other portfolios, e.g. :—

Labour generally .. .. .	H. M. R. portfolio.
Criminal tribes .. .. .	" .. .. .
Convict labour .. .. .	H. M. F. ..
Factories .. .. .	H. M. E. ..
Industries .. .. .	" .. .. .
P. W. D. labour.. .. .	H. M. A. ..

while railways are the concern of the Government of India. None of these departments have public health advisers of their own. The needs of labour are therefore not envisaged at first-hand with emphasis on its needs for public health and sanitation. The sanitation of the quarter of towns, in which industrial and artisan labour mainly live, is of course the direct concern of the Ministry of Local Self-Government, which also controls the Health Department, but here, too, there may be room for greater control of local bodies with a view to secure better housing and better health amenities for the poor.

3. As regards vital statistics in relation to labour, the Director of Public Health has supplied the following note :—

#### Vital Statistics.

1. *General population.*—The birth rate and death rate of the Punjab during the past sixty years is shown in the attached chart (Table II)\*. It will be seen that the death rate is extremely high. The mean death rate during the past five years was 33 per mille, or about 3 times the death rate of England and Wales. The most striking

\* Not printed.

feature, however, is the extreme variability of the death rate, which is attributable to the peculiar liability of this province to be the scene of virulent epidemics, and it is due to this circumstance that the death rate of the Punjab usually exceeds that of any other province of India and, indeed, of most other countries in the world.

2. The infantile mortality rate is likewise extremely high—approximately 200 per 1,000 births (as compared with 70 in England and Wales)—and as this rate is not greatly affected by epidemics (except malaria), it indicates the existence, apart from epidemics, of a low grade of health. A favourable and hopeful feature is the high birth rate—40 per mille as compared with about 20 per mille in England and Wales. That the province should exhibit a remarkably high birth rate, in spite of being constantly decimated by epidemics, indicates not only the high fertility, but also the great recuperative power, of its inhabitants. Given good health, the population should at least have doubled itself during the past 40 years, but as a matter of fact, instead of increasing by 100 per cent., it has only increased by some 3·7 millions or less than 20 per cent. during this period or a mean annual increase of about 100,000 as compared with 262,000 in England and Wales during the same period. Another striking feature of the vital statistics is the disparity between the sexes; the number of males exceeds the number of females by over 2 millions in a total population of 20·5 millions. This feature is mainly attributable to the fact that the female death rate under almost every head of mortality is invariably higher than the male death rate, whilst the contrary is the case in England and Wales, where the female death rate, after the first year of life, is lower than the male death rate at all age periods.

3. Of special interest from the point of view of labour is the fact that the urban death rate is relatively and absolutely high as compared with the rural death rate, which is indicative of the fact that the artificial conditions associated with an urban environment are peculiarly prejudicial to health.

The death rate under all heads of mortality, except malaria, which is essentially a disease of rural areas and the outskirts of towns, is appreciably higher in towns than in rural areas. The most striking feature is the high respiratory disease death rate of towns, which in 1928 was 5·79 per mille as compared with 2·18 per mille in rural areas. This feature is in large part due to the great prevalence of pulmonary tuberculosis in towns which is the outcome of neglect of sanitation, intense congestion, and bad housing, to which must be added such disgenic habits and customs as child marriage and the purdah.

The death rate from dysentery and diarrhoea in towns is also about three times higher than it is in rural areas, and this fact is attributable to the gravely insanitary conditions prevailing in urban areas.

4. *Labour.*—It is unfortunately impossible to quote any statistics bearing specially upon the health conditions of the labouring classes, and it is only possible to state in this regard that as for the most part the death rate increases *pari passu* with a decline of social status and as labour is almost solely drawn from the poorer classes the remarks made and the conclusions drawn in respect of the general population apply with special force to the hewers of wood and the drawers of water.

5. *Summary.*—This brief review of the vital statistics permits of the following conclusions:—

The Punjab is inhabited by a vigorous and prolific people, where "natural increase" is held in check by the high mortality occasioned by disease and pestilence. The low grade of health is indicated by the high death rate, apart from epidemics, the high infantile mortality rate and the high female death rate, all of which are characteristic of a society in an early phase of social, economic, and cultural development. The relatively high insalubrity of towns, where, owing to congestion of the population, the need of sanitary safeguards is infinitely greater than in villages, is a reflection of the low standard of municipal and domestic hygiene.

4. In discussions with the Director of Public Health the following weak points have been brought to notice by him:—

(a) While general health problems of the people as a whole as has been shown in the account of the organization of the department are dealt with by the Department of Public Health, the special problems of the health of labour are not specially or directly dealt with. This is mainly because labour questions, as has been shown above, are the direct concern of departments, who do not possess public health experts, and are dealt with, in the first instance, from an angle of view in which health is not necessarily a primary or prominent consideration.

(b) In his opinion the Public Health Department should advise (and their advice should be followed) in connection with large concentrations of labour employed by the Public Works Department or railway on works. Though after his advice adequate provision for the health of labour has now been made in one instance, i.e., in the Hydro-Electric Scheme, similar provision

on similar advice should be made in the case of all works. The difficulty of the problem is enhanced because much of the work is carried out by contractors and the labour works and is paid in the main not directly by Government departments but by the contractors.

(c) As regards factories, we may state his view that, in addition to the appointment of the Director of Public Health and the Assistant Directors of Public Health as additional inspectors of factories, district medical officers of health should also be appointed.

(d) The Director of Public Health should be concatenated with the Colonization Officer who founds new towns, and with the newly sanctioned town planning engineer to secure planning and building regulations on hygienic lines.

(e) The Director of Public Health should be more closely and continuously connected with planning and management of criminal tribes settlements.

(f) As regards municipal committees, notified area committees and small town committees, although many towns have now inaugurated a policy of better drainage and water supply and some have effective health officers and staff, many are still careless as regards sanitary and health measures generally, and pay much less attention to them than is required, particularly in the poorer quarter of the towns, where the industrial and artisan population mainly dwell. The question of giving a more effective voice to the expert opinion of the Director of Public Health and his officers in such matters is largely mixed up with the general control of the Ministry of Local Self-Government over municipalities and local bodies.

5. As regards medical facilities, reference is invited to the extracts previously quoted from the Punjab Government memorandum prepared for the Statutory Commission (paragraphs 202-203). The State provides necessary medical aid free of cost and workers are entitled to receive free medical attendance, free medicines, and free lying-in accommodation in hospitals and dispensaries maintained by Government and local bodies. There are in the Punjab 964 hospitals and dispensaries of all classes. . . . . Medical facilities are provided in some of the larger factories and undertakings, for example, in the Dhariwal Mills and Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wah, and a few factories have an arrangement under which a doctor pays a weekly visit. Mention should also be made of a private hospital—Sir Ganga Ram's hospital at Lahore—which gives free medical aid to all comers.

6. A great need in the province is the provision of medical aid for women by doctors of their own sex. Provision has been made in the scheme for expansion of medical relief for (a) the building of a hospital for women at the headquarters of each district; and (b) the addition of a female section to hospitals at the headquarters of selected tahsils. Women are trained at present at the Punjab Medical School, Ludhiana, and are now admitted to the King Edward Medical College, Lahore.

The untrained indigenous "dai" continues to ply her trade, and she is largely responsible for the high infant mortality. There are, however, now many centres in which modern training is being given to dais.

7. As regards official supervision, a properly qualified medical officer is in medical charge of every jail where convict labour is employed. With reference to factories, the Indian Factories Act provides for the appointment of certifying surgeons in all factories, but the functions they discharge are limited to certifying the age and physical fitness of persons seeking employment and do not extend to providing medical aid for factory employees.

8. To quote from paragraph 3 of the review of the latest annual report on Punjab factories :—

"The supply of water both for drinking purposes and for meeting the ordinary requirements of factories was adequate throughout the year. Lighting arrangements were on the whole satisfactory: almost all the perennial factories were fitted with electricity, while the newly erected factories provided ample light. The conditions in factories situated in congested city areas, however, are not quite satisfactory. Sanitary conditions were generally satisfactory. Ventilation in all the newly erected factories, particularly in perennial, showed a distinct improvement, and the Governor in Council is glad to note that the Banktेशwar Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills, Amritsar, has given a good lead in this direction. The Government Demonstration Weaving Factory at Shahdara should serve as a model of the standard in this respect. Ventilation in cotton ginning factories is a difficult matter, but it is satisfactory to read that the palliative of having doors and windows open is generally observed. New rules with regard to the control of artificial humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills have since the close of the year been introduced, and it is hoped that they will ensure comparatively comfortable conditions for the workers."

These special rules for the control of temperature and humidity have been recently framed by the Punjab Government under Section 37 (2), Clause (g) of the Indian Factories Act for the control of temperature and humidity in cotton factories. There are three cotton spinning and weaving mills in which artificial humidity is at present being used affecting 750 operatives.

As regards the control of the construction of new factories, the Government of India was of opinion in 1926 that it is desirable that local governments should be vested with the power of controlling the construction of new factories. At the same time the Central Government held the view that the most that the Government of India could do would be to ask the Central Legislature to pass a measure giving powers to local Governments to adopt such methods for the control of factory construction as they considered suitable. Provincial Governments were accordingly asked to submit legislative proposals if they desired to proceed further in the matter. The Central Government has not as yet passed any enabling measure, nor has any province so far as it is known framed any rules except the United Provinces, which has framed some model bye-laws for the guidance of municipal and district boards for the purpose of regulating the construction and alteration of factory buildings in the province.

9. No industrial diseases have been reported in any of the factories in the Punjab. There is irritation, malaise, worry and monotony, and all the disadvantages of a larger labour turnover, and there is no due allotment of time between work and leisure.

10. The Draft Conventions and Recommendations concerning sickness insurance adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference, 1927, were placed before the Indian Legislature and the following resolution was adopted by the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly on the 20th and 27th March, 1928, respectively:—

“That this Council Assembly having considered the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Tenth Labour Conference recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should not ratify the Draft Conventions, nor accept the recommendations.”

The Government of India, however, were of the opinion that the possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance required further examination, and requested that the question may be investigated by the local governments by a small and informal committee, including a few representatives of employers and employees.

Accordingly an informal provincial committee consisting of seven members, with the Director of Industries, Punjab, as chairman, met on the 12th February and 2nd March, 1929, to discuss the points mentioned in Government of India's letter No. L. 1518, dated the 20th September, 1928, which formed the agenda of the meeting.\*

11. The Punjab Government in submitting this report to the Government of India noted that inasmuch as the province is not the home of any such large scale industries the question of the introduction of sickness insurance is not of much practical importance for the present, and from a provincial point of view there is no need for any legislation, but should the Government of India decide to take up central legislation the local government will make no opposition, provided the legislation is made elastic enough to leave the province sufficient powers to adopt any such legislation to suit local conditions. The Punjab Government, while commending for consideration the recommendation of the committee that any scheme should be applicable to any permanently employed workers (which term should include within its scope the classes specified by the committee), suggested that a beginning should be made only with workers coming under the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Factories' Act, and the Indian Trades Union Act. Further, Government desired to dissociate itself from any acceptance of the suggestions in the committee's report defining the measures of State assistance which should be afforded, though liability for the cost of administration was accepted.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing).

Such welfare work as there is in the province is paternalist. In the way of what is termed “Rural Uplift” on the part of the State, the district of Gurgaon, with which the name of Mr. F. L. Brayne will long be associated, has done pioneer work, but in towns and urban areas welfare work is confined to the ministrations of State departments such as Public Health (including health schools, health visitors, and municipal welfare centres), medical and education. Employers, speaking generally, are not interested in or alive to the need for welfare work, and the idea of a works

\* The report of this committee is not printed here, but is given in full in Appendix V to the memorandum of the Government of India.

committee has yet to form. The number of large establishments in the province is small, and the teaching of mutual responsibility has only occasional scope. Punjab labour is largely unorganized, partly migratory, illiterate and apt to return to the land. Employers have little money and no concern for benevolent activities, and too often are criminally indifferent to statutory rules. The vagaries of weather and markets occupy their attention. Recent enactments such as the Workmen's Compensation Act, Trades Union Act, Trades Disputes Act, and the protection afforded by these measures may herald the beginnings of some community spirit both among workers *inter se* and in the relations of employer and employee.

2. Some welfare work is attempted in a few important mills. At the New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal, playgrounds are provided by the mill authorities for the use of their operatives and are kept in good condition. An uplift club is also provided for the subordinate staff and a well run social club for the supervising staff. A hospital and a school both for boys and girls have also been started by this mill. The mill also runs a co-operative society for the benefit of the workers. In addition to this, two other factories, *viz.*, the Punjab Portland Cement Works at Wah and the Bankteshwar Cotton Mills at Amritsar, have also evinced some interest in this direction in providing recreation grounds and clubs for the benefit of their employees. So far as the provision of educational facilities is concerned, Dhariwal Mills alone provide facilities for their workers. The Amritsar Carpet Manufacturers have been recently urged to provide half-time facilities for education of the children employed in the factories. They agreed, in theory, to the desirability but have afterwards professed inability to translate the suggestion into practice.

3. In the way of co-operation, factories are backward. At Dhariwal there is a flourishing co-operative society among the employees of the New Egerton Woollen Mills. This society does both supply and loan work, and is very keen on the improvement of its employees' conditions. There is also a large supply society at Moghalpura, whose members are employees of the railway workshops. The criminal tribes also have supply societies in their settlements and plantations.

4. The annual report of the Co-operative Department is also interesting in this connection. In 1928, the total number of non-agricultural societies in the Punjab was 2,616, with a membership of 88,613 and a working capital of over Rs. one crore. These societies include (a) credit, (b) purchase and sale, (c) production and labour, (d) production and sale and (e) thrift societies. Most of the credit societies consist mainly of Christians or menials. The menials' societies, particularly those of Chamars, are said to have worked very satisfactorily. Among Production and Labour Societies there are two presses in Lahore one of which is said to be doing well and the other badly. The number of Industrial Societies is 289, with a membership of 5,313 and working capital of Rs. 6 lakhs. Industrial societies include all kinds of artisans like weavers, woodworkers, shoemakers and goldsmiths, etc. Special mention may be made here of a few societies which are known as Better Living Societies. Their number is 231, with a membership of 8,665. The object behind the formation of these societies is to discourage expenditure on ceremonies and jewellery, etc. The remarkable success that has attended the co-operative movement in rural areas, though due undoubtedly to the heavy rural indebtedness which distinguishes the Punjab, would seem to indicate that its further infiltration into industrial spheres may in course of time stimulate team work on the part of workers themselves to speculate on questions affecting safety at work, improvements in environment, better cleanliness and air and recreation and the like.

## VI.—Education.

For a general description of the growth of facilities for general education reference is invited to Chapter VI of the Memorandum prepared for the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I, descriptive matter. The marked progress of recent years is bound to be a potent factor in raising the standard of living.

2. Industrial areas being mainly in municipalities or small towns, children not in employment come under the control of the system of compulsory education covering the primary classes, but such compulsory education stops at the fourth primary class, *i.e.*, many years before the age of fifteen. No special arrangements exist for the education of children employed in factories. Indeed, such children are few, except in the carpet factories at Amritsar. A suggestion has been recently made to the carpet manufacturers that with the double object of restricting the hours of the children's labour and giving them the elements of education, half-time classes should be started either in the factory premises or by arrangements in neighbouring municipal schools. But the factory owners shelter themselves under the opposition of the master weavers to any such restriction of hours, and the children continue their blind alley occupation.

3. Facilities for the education of adults have been increasingly provided in recent years. There are now over 2,000 schools for adults maintained by local bodies with help of grants-in-aid from Government, with an enrolment of over 5,000 pupils. These schools, it has to be noted, are not confined to urban or industrial areas: they are mainly in the villages, and the establishment of village vernacular libraries in nearly 2,000 village schools is a benefit which only the rural classes enjoy. Some 35 small towns in the Punjab have attempts at libraries, but these libraries are in English and they suffer from lack of suitable accommodation and adequate funds. It is also only in the country that odd examples can be found of private employers maintaining schools for the benefit of their employees, e.g., Major Vanrenan on his estate at Renala Khurd (Montgomery District) for the children of his tenants, and Rai Bahadur Ram Saran Das at Kot Mela Ram (Multan), for the same object. An organization like the Workers' Education Association, or any Institute of Adult Education for getting together a sufficiency of industrial workers for evening tutorial classes is yet to be born, and there are no indications that a Sir Ernest Cassel will appear in the Punjab.

4. On the other hand, industrial and vocational training under direct State guidance is making good headway. In 1912, an engineering school was established at Rasul to train sub-overseers for both branches of the Public Works Department. In 1923, the MacLagan College of Engineering was opened with the object of providing efficient and practical training for young men in mechanical and electrical engineering.

5. There are now over a score of industrial schools in the Province, and all the schools have recently been provincialized. These schools, with the exception of the Government Technical School in Lahore, are middle schools with nearly half the pupils coming from the artisan class. The main crafts taught are carpentry, metal work, weaving, lacquer turning, and copper smithy. A full-time inspector of Industrial schools was appointed in 1928, and in the current year a scheme of studies has been prepared for type I schools (middle), type II (high), and it is hoped in course of time to establish type III schools which will include in their curriculum, mechanical and electrical training and practice. The Government Technical School, Lahore, has an attendance of nearly 800 pupils, 86 per cent. being sons of artisans, and the progress of the school can be indicated by recent appointments to the staff, such as an electroplater, padder, polisher, smith and pattern maker. For technical institutes of various descriptions, reference may be made to the list in paragraph 192 of the Punjab Government memorandum for the Indian Statutory Commission and the reports of the Department of Industries, Punjab.

#### VII.—Safety.

As regards existing regulations, incidence of accidents in factories, causes, accident prevention, first-aid, medical relief and enforcement of regulations, see Memorandum of Inspector of Factories.

The complaint is general that courts take no notice of repetition of offences and inflict only small fines. A great deal of the Inspector's time is taken up in attending court often with little result.

The Punjab Government in 1928 issued directions that factory cases in four of the important industrial districts in the Punjab should be tried by a magistrate specially nominated for that purpose, and that the Local Government is alive to the need for more rigour in enforcing regulations will be apparent from the following two paragraphs from the last year's review (1929) on the working of the Indian Factories Act:—

“The number of accidents rose from 707 in 1927 to 1,019 in 1929 and an increase of 250 occurring in the railway workshops. In privately-owned factories the number remained the same. As will appear from the comparative statement below, there was an increase under all heads:—

Year.	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Average per 100 operatives employed.
1927 .. .. .	16	14	677	1.4
1928 .. .. .	29	36	954	1.97

"The railway workshops showed an increase of 4 fatal accidents as compared with last year, while the sudden collapse of the Verumal-Mula Mal Ginning Factory, Amritsar, accounts for 5 deaths and 7 injuries. The building of this factory was very old and the main girder collapsed as a result of the wall opening out at one end, probably due to weakness effected by rains and vibration. When the factory started working after having remained idle for 2½ years, the roof collapsed in a few hours. Government is considering what steps should be taken to prevent a recurrence of such accidents. Eight fatal accidents occurred to workers in the main shaft alley of cotton ginning factories. Serious accidents in the railway workshops increased from 5 to 18, of which 8 were injuries to eyes. There were also 151 minor injuries to eyes in the workshops. The use of eye protectors is being encouraged as a safeguard against such injuries.

"The number of prosecutions rose from 91 to 130, of which 108 resulted in conviction. This result is satisfactory, and no apology from the factory inspector is required. There were as many as 28 cases of overworking labour and children and 17 cases of illegal employment of women and children brought to court. Less satisfactory is the attitude of the magistracy in penalizing infringements of factory law, particularly in the matter of overworking employees and the illegal employment of women and children. The Governor in Council has recently observed with regret a statement from the Sheikhpura District in which fines of Rs. 15 or Rs. 10 were imposed for such offences where men were concerned, while for offences against women and children the offenders were 'warned.' It must be remembered that the operatives are seldom in a position, owing to poverty and migratory conditions, to move the civil law and secure damages for infringement of essential conditions of labour, and that the onus rests on the State to ensure that the employer in his relations to labour does not stray beyond the limits which the statutory law imposes on his treatment of labour."

2. The coal mines in the Punjab are not important. The supervising agency is that of the Chief Inspector and his Assistants. As regards the Provincial Government, the Director of Industries (except in the matter of checking concessionaries' accounts) and the Factory Inspector have no concern with the mines, and the District Magistrate, who by virtue of his office has most of the powers of an Inspector, is usually too busy with other duties to exercise any effective control.

3. As regards the effect upon safety of hours, health, light and working conditions generally it can only be broadly stated that fatigue is undoubtedly responsible for many accidents. The very notion of industrial psychology is unknown in either seasonal or regular factories, and while the Inspector must see to accident prevention, illumination, ventilation and the like, he is neither competent nor required to advise on problems like monotony, irritation, rest pauses and other concerns of an Industrial Fatigue Board.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

An increasing use is being made of the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act, as will be seen from the following table, which gives the number of cases accruing in factories which came within the purview of the Act :—

Year.	Accidents.	Number in which compensation was awarded.	Percentage.
1924 .. .. .	46	8	17
1925 .. .. .	458	392	86
1926 .. .. .	523	461	88
1927 .. .. .	376	340	90
1928 .. .. .	953	837	88

The provisions of the Act are now fairly well known, but illiterate workmen are still imperfectly posted in the procedure of making claims, and trade unions, speaking generally, do nothing to help them.



2. The following paragraphs from the review of the latest report (1929) on the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act may perhaps be appropriately included :—

" There has been a considerable increase in the number of accidents reported to have occurred in factories to which the Workmen's Compensation Act is applicable, and a much higher percentage of cases coming within the purview of the Act. The disparity in the years 1927 and 1928 is worth tabulating :—

Year.	Number of accidents reported.	Within purview of the Act.	Fatal.	Disablement.		Percentage of 2 on 1.	Cases in which compensation was paid.	Percentage.
				Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.			
1927	707	376	16	14	346	53	340	88
1928	1,019	950	29	36	888	94	376	90

" The increase in the number of accidents as reported is more a matter for regret than the increase in the number of cases brought within the Act is a source of satisfaction. Reporting has improved, and the figures afford ample testimony to an increasing familiarity on the part of operatives with the provisions of the Act, and credit seems due to the Factory Inspector and his staff for giving publicity to the method of presenting claims. Government, however, views with some alarm the increase in the number of accidents on the reasons for which the report is silent.

" Concurrent with the increase in the number of cases, there has been an unexplained decline in the amount of compensation awarded in the major cases. Sums paid for temporary disablements will always vary, but there has been a striking decline in 1928 in the average amounts paid for fatal accidents and permanent disablements, *i.e.* :—

	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Fatal accidents . . . . .	1,320	1,298	579
Permanent disablements . . . . .	722	787	398

" It may be that accidents have been more rife among the lower paid employees or it may be that insufficient amounts have been deposited by employers, or it may be that workmen have accepted whatever amount was offered rather than have recourse to Commissioners. There is perhaps some truth in the last view. It will be seen that, in spite of the big increase in the number of accidents and cases, the number of cases filed before the Commissioners for the Act was the same as in the previous year, *i.e.*, 86. The Commissioners disposed of 74 cases, 17 of which were contested, but in all cases the claim was finally allowed.

" It will be observed from the statement included in paragraph 4 of the report that in the matter of fatal accidents and permanent disablements considerable delay occurs in the settlement of claims. In fatal accidents, for example, only 9 cases reached a settlement out of the 29 that occurred during the year, and only 17 out of the 36 cases of permanent disablement. Reference to return A will show that Commissioners are responsible for the delay in the matter of fatal accidents, and employers as regards permanent disablements. The major accidents for which no compensation has been paid are in the main the concern of privately owned factories. Fatal accidents occurred in five cotton factories in 1928, and nothing in the way of compensation seems to have been paid. Government would be glad to have a further report on the matters referred to in this and the preceding paragraph.

" In the case of mines coming under the Indian Mines Act, there were 16 accidents against 21 in the previous year. The amount of compensation awarded for 7 cases was Rs. 2,536, as against Rs. 2,040 for 8 cases paid during the previous year."

3. The Punjab Government's opinion on the proposed amendments which the Government of India have in contemplation to the Workmen's Compensation Act will be found in its letter No. 3032-S. Rev., dated 16th July, 1929, to the address of the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour. Briefly, the gist of that opinion is as follows :—

(i) The scope of the Act should be extended to workers in all organized industries whether hazardous or not—at the same time the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries is not practicable till a scheme of compulsory insurance can be introduced. At the moment such introduction is so difficult as to be impracticable.

(ii) Pending the inclusion of unorganized industries within the scope of the Act an increase in the scale of compensation of 25 per cent. in respect of the more poorly paid workmen (say, earning an average wage of Rs. 25 per mensem), and 10 per cent. in respect of workmen paid more than Rs. 25 per mensem seems desirable—also the minimum scales of compensation might suitably be raised.

(iii) The waiting period should be reduced from 10 days to a week.

(iv) As regards "proof of dependence" it is suggested that provision should be made so as to enable a dependant who claims compensation to approach the Commissioner direct for the settlement of his claim without first applying to the employer—claimants then in the proceedings before the Commissioner may reasonably be required to submit "some proof of dependence" without this limited onus jeopardizing the claim for compensation as against the employer.

(v) Employers should be required to report fatal accidents at least within 15 days to the Commissioner who, when seized with a report of the accidents, should be empowered to set the machinery of the law into action.

4. As regards the machinery of administration, the Act is administered through Commissioners appointed under Punjab Government notification No. 905-6-2535, dated the 18th February, 1924. The Senior Sub-Judges of Ambala, Ferozepore, Lahore, Amritsar, Rawalpindi, Lyallpur and Multan, and the District Magistrates in the other districts of the province are the Commissioners under the Act for their respective districts.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

Reference may be made to the memorandum of the Inspector of Factories as regards the position in the Punjab :—

As far as seasonal factories are concerned, the time is not yet ripe for the establishment of the principle of the 48-hour week. Punctuality and steady work are not yet the rule among factory workers. A considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to the actual job and leaving it and, as things are, it is improbable that in a 10-hour day the average worker is on his job for more than 8½ hours.

### B.—Mines.

2. The Salt Mines at Khewra are a State concern, managed by the Imperial Government in the Salt Department.

3. There are coal mines privately owned in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Attock districts. In the Jhelum district (Dandot Chitidand and other collieries) the normal working hours are reported to be 36 underground and 48 above ground and no overtime is put in. Payment is by piece-work.

In the Shahpur district (Tajuwala colliery) the hours are reported to be in the mine 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week. Outside the mine 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week. There is no overtime. There are three shifts.

In the Mianwali district (Makkarwal colliery) the actual hours are, in the mine, 42 hours per week, outside the mine, 56 hours a week. The only interval in all these coal mines is the seventh day of rest.

### D.—Criminal Tribes Settlements.

4. One reformatory, 8 industrial settlements, 19 agricultural settlements and 3 reformatory schools, established so far in the Punjab, accommodate a total population of 10,839 souls, which consist of 3,659 males, 2,633 females and 4,547 children. Of the males, 1,521 hold tenancies in the agricultural settlements, where they reside with their families, and the rest are employed in the reformatory and industrial settlements.

In the reformatory settlement fresh arrivals are first employed in the factory attached to the settlement, and remain so employed till they are considered fit for outside employment. Other able-bodied men are employed outside the settlement on different paying jobs for which they are considered fit. Youths are trained in various industries such as carpentry, tailoring, shoe-making, weaving, etc.

In 5 out of the 8 industrial settlements the inmates are employed in forest plantation work, while those of the Palampur Settlement in the Kangra Valley are employed in the tea gardens. In the Moghalpura Industrial Settlement the labour is employed in the railway shops. In the Lyallpur Settlement men are employed on agricultural work as well as under different contractors.

In the industrial settlement the maximum working day is of 10 hours, though in railway shops and forest plantations the actual working day is shorter. In all settlements one holiday is allowed in a week to enable the workers to attend to their household affairs. In agricultural settlements no working hours are fixed as each tenant works according to the actual requirements of his holding.

5. As regards labour in jails, reference may be made to Chapter XXII (Labour and Jail Industries) of the Punjab Jail Manual. The main provision regulating the hours of labour are :—

(i) No criminal prisoner shall be "kept to labour" for more than 9 hours in any one day ;

(ii) Sundays and certain other days in addition are days on which convicts are exempt from labour ;

(iii) The class of labour to be performed in prescribed by the medical officer of the jail in accordance with the physique and capacity of the convict ;

(iv) There is a period of rest of 2 hours in the middle of the day ;

(v) Tasks are prescribed, the task for the adult female or juvenile not to exceed two-thirds of the maximum task for adult male convicts ;

(vi) The objects on which convict labour shall be employed are—*First*—The requirements of the jail and Jail Department ; *Secondly*—The requirements of Government in any other respect ; *Thirdly*—Other demands which the Inspector-General may from time to time approve.

With regard to the second item, the Lahore Jail does the bulk of the vernacular printing for Government (notably for the Department of Land Records). Modern lithographic plant has recently been installed.

6. In industrial establishments not coming under the Factories Act the normal customary hours of work are from sunrise to sunset—12 hours in summer and 10 hours in winter—with an interval of about one hour at midday for meals. Sunday (or Friday in places where Muslim labour predominates) is usually observed as a holiday, and work is also suspended on festivals and religious occasions ; and if permanent labour is required to work on holidays extra wages (usually  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the average wage) are paid. There is regular recourse to overtime when there is a rush of work. The important carpet factories at Amritsar are not on the factory register because they do not employ any motive power, and the attempt to apply to them some modification of working hours' legislation has met with strong opposition. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and the majority of them are boys between the ages of 9 and 15. In small workshops where daily wages are the rule work is carried on during all the seven days, the worker taking such holidays as he chooses.

In these unregulated establishments it doubtless is desirable to have some regulation, but practically the enforcement of any regulation, with opposition both from the employer and employee, would be surrounded with difficulties, though some kind of "Employment of Young Persons' Act" may eventually be found necessary. In forest work there is hardly any need of regulation of hours in view of the piece-work basis, and the leisurely nature of the labour.

## X.—Women, Young Adults and Children.

### A.—Factories.

The Punjab Government would again quote the Inspector of Factories :—

"The curtailment of the hours of work and prohibiting women and children from certain employment has had a good effect, though the argument is still occasionally used that restrictions placed on the employment of women and children have tended to place them at a disadvantage in the labour market. There is no doubt that the wages earned by women are low, but the restrictions placed by the amended Act are in my opinion justified.

"The admission of infants into factories is discouraged as far as practicable ; it is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers. In 1924 and 1926 I issued an order prohibiting infants from entering into cotton ginning rooms whilst ginning was in progress, as the atmosphere was laden with dust. There were many protests against this order, and after two years I found the order could not be enforced without hardship to parents, who must lose their employment in factories if infants were not allowed in, and the order had to be revoked.

"The present regulations with regard to the employment of women and children in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men, except that the former may not be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. This also applies to half-time workers, i.e., children between the ages of 12 and 15 years, whose hours of work are not to exceed six hours a day.

"I have seldom noticed the employment of children in two factories on the same day, but it is not improbable that many of them work at other occupations during the part of the day they are not employed in factories.

"The local government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as most of the factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 10, and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours. The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regularize the hours of employment of women and children—it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present."

2. There is good reason to suspect that in the busy time in ginning factories the practice is general of overworking women and children. While the rule prohibiting night shifts for women is generally observed, the infringement of regulations generally consists in the adding of an additional hour or two before the prescribed time in the morning and adding a like period after work should be over in the evening. As noted in the last review on factories: "When the woman only gets three-quarters of the man's pay on gins, the permission for night work or night shifts is bound, under present conditions, to infringe the rule prohibiting the employment of women and children at night." As it is the common lot of women to do the dirty work, and as in England at any rate it was the State regulations of the hours of labour with reference to women and children that brought about a limitation of the hours worked by men, the tightening of control over the labour of women and children seems the first desideratum—women in the ginning establishments and children in Amritsar—amenable and not discontent material, but to a liberal view "factory fodder" all the same.

There are hardly any opportunities of apprenticeship. There is no reluctance on the part of boys to take "blind-alley" jobs. The channel of apprenticeship needs widening.

3. The whole question of the employment of women in the salt mines at Khewra and elsewhere in the Salt Range is engaging the earnest attention of the Government of India. Women are still employed in the salt mines, working in conjunction with their men folk, but the number of them is being systematically reduced with a view to ultimate abolition. This reform does not appeal to their men folk.

In the coal mines under private management, women are not permitted to work underground, but women relatives of the permanent force of miners settled at the mines undertake light duties outside the mines, e.g., loading coal. It is, however, to be suspected that "juvenile" labour is not altogether excluded from underground working.

4. Women are at a premium in the Punjab, and the more their work is concentrated on the care of the rising generation, the better for the province.

#### **XI.—Special Questions relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.**

This province is not concerned, though it may be noted parenthetically, that men from the Attock district in the far north find employment as stokers at sea.

#### **XII.—Wages.**

A periodical survey of wages has been carried out quinquennially since 1912. In Tables III and IV, figures are given showing the prevailing rates of wages in the factories of the Punjab at the four surveys since 1912, and also figures showing the average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour during the past eight years. Since 1912 the scale of wages paid in factories has risen a great deal and roughly speaking wages have nearly doubled.

The regular quinquennial survey deals with the wages of certain classes of workers in the three principal towns of Lahore, Amritsar and Multan, in selected villages unaffected by urban conditions, and also at certain railway stations to serve as a means of comparison with rural wages in the same neighbourhood. The classes of labour which come under scrutiny are as follows:—

1. *Urban Areas.*—(i) Workers in iron and hardware; (ii) brass, copper and bell metal workers; (iii) carpenters; (iv) Cotton weavers; (v) masons and builders; (vi) unskilled labourers.

2. *Rural Areas.*(i) Carpenters; (ii) blacksmiths; (iii) masons; (iv) ploughmen; (v) unskilled labourers.

3. *Railway Areas—Coolies.*—The survey does not deal with certain occupations which at any rate in the rural areas are governed by status rather than by contract. The Indian village is a self-contained unit, and it still maintains all the artisans which its simple agriculture and mode of life require—i.e., the carpenter, blacksmith, weaver, potter, and worker in leather, upon whom there is a customary obligation to render certain services to villagers in return for customary payments in kind at harvest or on certain occasions such as festivals, marriages, births and deaths in the families of their patrons. In addition to these agricultural "kamins," as they are called, there are domestic purveyors of services, i.e., barbers, cobblers, washermen, etc., whose remuneration is fixed by custom and status.

The last and fourth regular wages survey was held in December, 1927, in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan, and in 1,948 villages removed from urban influences.

1. *Urban Wages.*—Labourers of classes (i) to (vi) described above are paid by the day, except at Amritsar, where those falling under (i), (ii) and (iv) are paid by the job. The daily wages of these classes were found to work out as under in 1927 :—

Class.	Lahore.	Amritsar.	Multan.
	As.	As.	As.
Workers in iron and hardware .. .. .	40	28 to 32	24
Brass, copper and bell metal workers ..	28	14 to 16	32
Carpenters ... .. .	36	28 to 32	26 to 32
Cotton weavers .. .. .	Nil	14 to 16	Nil
Masons and builders .. .. .	36	28 to 36	26 to 32
Unskilled labourers .. .. .	14 to 16	14 to 16	10

Amritsar and Multan are markets for iron and hardware. The brass and copper-ware industry in Amritsar has been badly hit by the rapid introduction of aluminium ware.

Lahore offers a big field for the employment of carpenters, masons, builders and unskilled labourers, both by reason of its size and its growth. Its trade in wood work makes a demand for a large number of carpenters. Wages are consequently higher than in Amritsar and Multan.

2. *Rural Wages.*—Workers in the rural areas can be classified under the following heads :—

(1) Whole time workers—(i) Carpenters; (ii) masons; (iii) ploughmen; and (iv) unskilled labourers.

(2) Part time or customary workers called kamins. (i) Carpenters; (ii) blacksmiths; (iii) cobblers; (iv) potters; and (v) barbers; ministering to the calls of their clientele at certain times and on certain occasions. It will be seen that carpenters fall under both heads.

The wages of these classes fall under four types :—(i) Purely cash wages; (ii) cash wages with supplements; (iii) purely grain wages; and (iv) wages other than in cash or grain.

The rates of wages, inclusive of money value of any supplements in kind found commonly prevalent at the survey of 1927, were as follows :—Carpenters, 16 to 32 annas a day; masons, 16 to 38 annas a day; unskilled labourers, 5½ to 16½ annas.

A table showing variation in the wages of unskilled labourers since 1909 is appended (Table V). It shows that wages varied between 2½ and 3½ annas in as many as 10 villages, between 3½ and 4½ annas in 87, and 4½ and 5½ annas in 102 villages in 1927. The average has risen considerably since 1909, though it has dropped since 1922. It was found to be lower in 1927 than in 1922, as a result of the return of more stable conditions after the war. The local variations of wages are due to the differences in the quality of the work and the local demand.

The enquiry into the earnings of the railway coolies was for the incidental purpose of finding a means to compare and verify the standard of wages earned by other labourers. Selected stations only were brought within the purview of the enquiry.

The returns show that the daily earning of the railway porters and coolies ranged between 8 annas at Jagadhri near United Provinces, and As. 12-6 pies in Pattoke, in the Lower Bari Doab Colony. As a class they are better off than the unskilled labourers of the same locality in the south-east and in the un-irrigated parts of north and north-west of the Punjab in the matter of daily earnings. They are slightly to the bad on account of having to conform to scheduled rates in the congested centre of the province near Batala and Wazirabad, where the local supply of labour is limited and fetches a higher value outside. In canal colonies they are on the same level as ordinary unskilled labourers.

2. On Government canals, labour is employed either on a monthly or daily wage. The present sanctioned monthly wage for unskilled labour is Rs. 13 per mensem, which is low. The daily wage demanded by unskilled labour varies from 8 annas to Re. 1 per diem with the time of year and the state of agricultural operations.

In regard to labour employed by contractors—labour employed on earthwork is usually paid on "piece work" that employed on masonry and other works is paid daily wages as above.

The common rate for daily unskilled labour in forest work is 8 annas a day.

3. The relation of wages to prices and cost of living has not been worked out. As regards prices reference may be made to two publications of the Board of Economic Enquiry No. 7, Sixty years of Punjab Food Prices (W. H. Myles), No. 13, Eighty years of Punjab Food Prices (Brij Narain).

4. Payment in kind is confined to rural areas. There are (a) purely grain wages, (b) supplements to cash wages, (c) wages other than (b) or (c). Purely grain wages as a form of remuneration for daily or monthly work are going out of vogue, and are mainly confined to carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers, barbers and potters, and for the performance of customary work in relation to agricultural operations.

They are paid in the form of sheaves of corn, reckoned according to the number of ploughs which were at work during the harvest.

Wages in kind in the case of shoemakers consist in some parts of the province, in the skins of dead cattle which are placed at their disposal on the understanding that new shoes will be supplied free.

The third type of wages in kind is in the nature of a retainer, intended to ensure the continued presence of the worker to be utilized as occasion may arise.

There are no payments in kind to industrial labour. In all factories wages are now strictly paid in cash.

5. In rural areas wages are, as a rule, regulated by contract except in the cases of labourers living among and dependent upon agricultural communities, especially carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers, potters, barbers, who are looked upon as Kamins or permanent servants. Even carpenters and blacksmiths received negotiated wages in rural areas, in respect of non-agricultural work. As a general rule, the wages of carpenters and blacksmiths for agricultural work and of cobblers, potters, and barbers are customary and non-competitive. These wages have relation to certain crops grown and go by a fixed number of sheaves of corn, usually the staple of each locality, after every plough working during the currency of the harvest. Customary wages are, however, entering on a competitive stage under the stress of changing conditions.

The scope for business has widened considerably in almost every direction and to that extent the scope of customary duties has contracted. Labour has become more mobile and can afford to defy the village communities by emigrating to the canal colonies, where there is much demand for it. In the case of several crafts, notably among carpenters, blacksmiths and cobblers, the customary has given place to the competitive wage. The advent of modern implements of agriculture and the replacement of wooden by steel gear for wells have a tendency to set the carpenters and blacksmiths free to shift to more prosperous centres and insist on cash payment in place of the deferred payment in kind. Similarly, the cobblers and shoemakers have developed a tendency to dispose of their wares in the open market. At all events, their ministrations to their sepidars or clientele are of a much more circumscribed character. In many instances, the supply of new shoes has come to be limited to shoes for the adolescent only.

6. In urban and industrial areas wages are fixed by the dictates of supply and demand at the locality, and are the result of direct negotiation between the employer and the employee. The employer, however, really dictates his own terms. There is no combination or coherence in labour for any bargaining. Variations are both seasonal and local. In the building trade, for example, wages are appreciably lower during the rainy season than at other times during the year. The mobility of labour

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6. In urban and industrial areas wages are fixed by the dictates of supply and demand at the locality, and are the result of direct negotiation between the employer and the employee. The employer, however, really dictates his own terms. There is no combination or coherence in labour for any bargaining. Variations are both seasonal and local. In the building trade, for example, wages are appreciably lower during the rainy season than at other times during the year. The mobility of labour



is determined by demand as well as the prevalent rate at which wages are paid. A large number of trans-frontier Pathans, Kashmiris and the inhabitants of Central India range over the province. The first two classes during the winter months only, and the last class at all seasons of the year in search of employment, and are attracted to "mandis" and factories mainly in colony areas. The pitch of wages paid in the Punjab would appear to be higher than in the United Provinces for example and this partly accounts for the influx of labour from Central India.

7. As regards the statutory establishment of minimum wages, the province can scarcely be said to have reached that state of industrial development to permit the introduction of any wage fixing legislation, the administration of which would be difficult and the results perhaps of dubious value. The development of agricultural areas is continually creating a demand for more labour.

8. The practice of inflicting fines on workmen is common enough in many factories for offences such as spoiling material or wasting time. The factory inspector notes that in one or two well run mills fines are credited to the employees' provident fund, but as a general rule fines go to the pockets of the factory management, and legislation is not likely to be of much use on account of the illiteracy of the average worker. There is no practice of fining labour on Government, *i.e.*, canal or forest work.

9. Wages to workers in regular factories are paid monthly from the 5th to the 20th of the following month. Casual workers in cotton ginning factories and coolie workers in other factories are paid at the end of the day through the labour contractor who usually settles his accounts with the factory owner monthly. Legislation to assure prompt payment to factory employees is needed. Employers too frequently obtain a hold on their workers by delaying payment, and the worker gets into the hand of his shopkeeper. With labour illiterate and unorganized, it should be made a penal offence to keep a man waiting for more than a week or 10 days for his previous month's wages. In a press at Amritsar in July this year there was a lightning strike ended in a day to protest against the non-payment of wages from the middle of May to the middle of July. In the coalmines in the Salt Range where miners are paid by piece-work, a miner earns from Re. 1 to Re. 1-8 annas per day, and the trolley coolies earn from annas 10 to Re. 1-4 annas per day. In both cases wages are paid weekly, and generally a week or more (extending up to two weeks) elapses before payment is made.

10. In rural areas the survey of 1927 disclosed that fact that wages were paid on the daily basis to carpenters in 89 per cent., blacksmiths in 15 per cent. and masons in 74 per cent. of the villages selected for the survey. The ploughman's wages were monthly in 49 per cent. of the villages. A substantial proportion of the earnings of the village artisans and ploughmen is paid by the harvest—without being really six monthly. In so far as it has reference to specific crops, *e.g.*, so many sheaves of chari, barley, wheat, sugarcane, etc., it is paid by instalments, as it were, and the worker is not made to wait for full six months.

The agricultural work of the village artisan is far from all absorbing. It occupies a small fraction of his time only and leaves him free to ply his trade for the general customer. The postponement of his dues therefore occasions no hardship. He receives various facilities at the hands of his clients and patrons in the form of fodder, firewood and other things and presents in clothes and money at marriages or other functions. The ploughman receiving his wages in cash or kind at harvest depends for his immediate needs upon his employer and occasionally receives an advance upon his wages before they actually fall due. There can be no delay in the nature of things in the payment of grain wages. As a rule, they are paid by sheaves of grain or by measure before the produce is allowed to leave the threshing floor.

11. In the matter of indebtedness, the rural Punjab is eminently a countryside of peasant proprietors, and the volume of indebtedness per head is greater than elsewhere in India. That is perhaps the main reason why the co-operative credit movement has made such marked headway in the province, though it has as yet only touched the fringe of the problem of indebtedness. The conquest of the wastes which has been going on for the last 30 years through the agency of canal irrigation has shifted the seat of wealth in the way of landed property from the central developed districts, where the Sikhs have their ancestral stronghold, to the newer colonies, bringing with it a notable change in the standard of living. The great war in more ways than one helped to raise that standard. High prices for agricultural produce at the end of the second decade and the beginning of the third decade of the present century promoted the scale of expenditure, and with the thriftlessness prevalent among the peasantry it is a general paradox that the wealthier a locality, the greater is the volume of indebtedness. The colonists in Lyallpur should be in a position to stand several lean years; yet the failure of

important crops which has occurred in the last two or three years seems to have put a definite and unexpected strain upon their capacity to meet their commitments. In dry areas, i.e., the south-west, south-east and north Punjab the standard of living is lower, though since the war it has risen though not to the same extent as in the wealthier "wet" areas.

In the south-western Punjab ten years ago there were localities in which Rs. 5 per mensem with a blanket and a pair of shoes at harvest was all that the agricultural labourer could expect. In the colonies wages are twice as high and the standard of living is much better. Generally speaking, there has been of recent years a considerable improvement in the condition of the agricultural labourer, both in apparel and food and possibly housing. He is invariably in debt, but in this respect he is little worse off than the peasant proprietor, who, however, is a landlord.

As regards urban and industrial labourers, no enquiry has been made as to the extent to which indebtedness prevails among them. Probably the range of solvency and insolvency varies according to localities. It may, however, be safely assumed that the great majority are in debt to their food suppliers.

12. In seasonal factories no question of leave arises. Work goes on for the season and then ends. In other factories leave is only taken for a religious festival or a domestic event, though managers in the bigger concerns usually get a month's leave during the slack season. As regards labourers the factory inspector notes with truth that "since they are not seriously concerned whether they get back to their previous jobs or not it is only a question of taking leave when an employer owes the least amount of pay for labour done."

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

The Director of Industries is of opinion that the efficiency of Indian workers has been increasing steadily in recent years. This he would attribute to the growth of industrial educational institutions, and also to the "central localization" of certain industries, e.g., the sports goods industry, steel trunk making and cutting industry in Sialkot, and woollen goods in Dhariwal. Factory owners are also endeavouring to expand the system of division of labour. In handicrafts, such as woodworking, the Punjabi, especially the Sikh, is a natural adept, and he is also a fair smith. The inspector of factories has supplied the following note:—

"I am of opinion that the efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased considerably during the past 5 or 6 years. The industrial educational institutions have to a great extent been responsible for this. But in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed: in fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in the factories. In recent years the tendency in this province has been to install small unit plants in factories, usually with an up-to-date oil engine of 10 to 40 horse power in preference to the old type of heavy steam engines and massive machinery: and the same men who used to operate the old machinery are put on the new and complicated machines. I have seen instances of accidents to workers on new type of machines in factories, which would never have occurred had the worker received a little training before being asked to work on it. On the other hand, new types of machines are made as fool-proof as possible, dangerous parts being guarded in where possible."

The Principal of the Mayo School of Arts, Lahore, who has had many years of experience with skilled craftsmen, both as teachers and workmen, sums up his experience of the Punjabi workman as follows:—

"The Punjabi workmen, the selected ones with whom I have to deal, are intelligent, strong, keen to learn, but like uneducated workmen in Europe slack except under supervision. Their predominant fault is that though quick to use new ideas they are quicker to forget and to revert to traditional methods. Their lack of education makes it almost impossible for them to grasp the meaning of scientific methods of work or the essential of accuracy of thinking and doing.

"I find that they show a marked intelligence in improvising tools or apparatus for a desired purpose, but an utter lack of ability to formulate a new idea, such as designing a joint for a special purpose or overcoming a difficulty by a better method of construction."

With factory and industrial labour so casual, seasonal and migratory, it is perhaps redundant to enlarge on the disadvantages under which workers labour owing to the absence of scientific management or any notion of industrial psychology. Employers would say that the reduction in the number of working hours from 12 in 1911 to 10 in 1922 has reduced the output *pro-tem*. Housing is poor, dietary deficient, facilities for recreation nil, wages are low, dependants many, and climate, excepting the winter,

enervating. Ventilation and sanitary arrangements in factories are, however, receiving increased attention. Under Section 9 (1) (b) of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, such factories are now constructed in accordance with plans and specifications approved by the prescribed authority (in this province the Director of Agriculture). The rules and standard plan prescribed by the Director of Agriculture will be found in Appendix F. These rules are intended mainly to ensure the purity of cotton, and have no particular regard to the requirements of healthy conditions of work. Ginning factories put up since 1925 are consequently a decided improvement on previous ones. The employers' outlook, however, is very limited. They can appreciate rationalization, i.e., such co-ordination and regulation of production as will prevent wasteful cut-throat competition. There is a pool system among ginning factories in certain localities, but the consideration of conditions of work and life favourable to the development and preservation of the workers' personality are beyond the ken of the ordinary employer. As for possible means of securing increased efficiency, the main appeal to the worker can only reside in an improved method of remuneration which will give him a fair share in the increase of output. In the Forest Department a bonus on production is given in the case of resin tapping. The worker for his part will have to try not to change his occupation too often.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Trade unions are in their infancy: the Indian Trade Unions Act was only passed in the year 1926. The idea of a trade union as directed towards promoting "industrial prosperity and with it the progressive improvement of the standard of living of the population" has yet to take root. The Punjab has no heavy concentration of industrial labour, and consequently the extent of organization among both employers and employed is up to the present little in extent. Among the employed, however, a vague striving towards co-operation and combination is now being evidenced, revolving round the cardinal question of remuneration and the merits and demerits of strikes in the way of forwarding workers' claims. In the Punjab no communist influence is noticeable, and disputes have been due to the normal antagonism between employers and employed in the matter of pay. Contrast Calcutta, Bombay, Admadabad, Sholapur, Jamshedpur, and the continuous series of strikes during the past eighteen months.

2. The Indian Trades Union Act was brought into force on the 1st June, 1927. During the nine months of the financial year 1927-28, 10 applications were received for registration from various unions but only 6 could be registered. Three of these related to the workers in different departments of the North-Western Railway, one to the organization of homoeopathic doctors and two to workers engaged in public transport. The total number of members at the beginning of the year for these unions was 5,378 which rose to 5,799 at the close of the financial year.

Ten unions were registered during the year 1928-29 of which three are federations of trade unions and the remaining seven are unions of workers formed to protect their rights, to secure regulation of hours and wages and for settling disputes among members and employers. The total membership at the time of registration of these unions was 222.

3. It may be noted here that with the exception of one union at Dhariwal all other unions have head offices at Lahore. The professions and occupations in which the unions were formed during the year 1928-29 are given below.

- (1) The Textile Mill Workers Union, Dhariwal.
- (2) The Electric Supply Company, Limited (Lahore) Workers' Union.
- (3) Punjab Mechanical Engineers' Union, Lahore.
- (4) The Punjab Revenue Patwaris Union.
- (5) The Punjab Christian Labour Union.
- (6) The Scavengers Union.
- (7) The North-Western Railway Compilation Union (Union of Clerks).

There are no organizations of employers in this province. Sometimes, however, pools of employers are formed among owners of cotton ginning and ice factories which are usually short lived. Pools in cotton ginning factories are formed on account of shortage in cotton crop at the end of the season and in ice factories to force prices up by limiting supply. These pools, it must be stated, are not registered under trade unions, and should therefore be regarded as temporary trade combinations.

4. As regards the nature of the activities of the trade Unions hitherto formed, reference may be made to Appendix B, in which the aims and objects of four trade unions are set forth.

5. The following trade unions have so far been registered in the Punjab under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Their history is given in the statement below :—

Name of Union.	Date of registration.	Number of members at beginning of year.	Number of members at end of year.
1. The Punjab Motor Drivers' Union, Lahore.	28-8-1927	21	206
2. The Punjab Tonga Workers' Union, Lahore.	28-8-1927	—	239
3. The Upper India Homœopathic Association, Lahore.	24-10-1927	19	19
4. The North - Western Railway Union, Lahore.	1-1-1928	5,000	5,000
5. The North - Western Railway (Audit) Account Union, Lahore.	29-2-1928	323	320
6. The General Workers' Union, North-Western Railway, Lahore	31-3-1928	15	15
7. The Punjab Labour Board, Lahore	2-4-1928	Number of members at time of registration 9.	
8. The Textile Mill Workers' Union, Dhariwal.	18-8-1928	16	
9. The Electric Supply Company, Limited (Lahore) Workers' Union, Lahore.	28-7-1928	16	
10. The Punjab Mechanical Engineers' Union, Lahore.	15-9-1928	18	
11. The Punjab Provincial Trade Union Congress, Lahore.	10-10-1928	15	
12. The Punjab Revenue Patwaris' Union, Lahore.	7-11-1928	15	
13. The Punjab Christian Labour Union, Lahore.	9-11-1928	10	
14. The Central Labour Federation, Punjab, Lahore.	10-11-1928	8	
15. The Scavengers' Union, Lahore..	2-7-1929	17	
16. The North-Western Railway Compilation Union, Lahore.	20-3-1929	98	

With no big scale industry, saving the North-Western Railway workshops at Lahore trade unionism is likely to make slow headway, but its inception on however small a scale is bound to result in a steady pressure for increased wages, and that in its turn will stimulate management to improve its efficiency.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

Out of fifteen strikes reported since 19th August, 1921, only eight occurred in industrial establishments, while the remaining seven occurred among workers in various trades and professions. A great majority of strikes have taken place in industrial centres such as Amritsar and Lahore and in the woolen mills at Dhariwal. Industrial unrest in other parts of the province is as yet unknown, and such strikes as have occurred in industrial establishments relate only to those concerns which are the largest organized employers of labour.

It is also worth noting that in no case the strike was complete, and in all the bigger strikes workers had to surrender unconditionally. In the railway workshops strikes and the strikes at Dhariwal, those who refused to return to work by a specified date were replaced by fresh recruitment, and the majority of the strikers lost their employment. The vocalisation of the desire for a "square deal" has, however, come to stay.

3. No official or non-official conciliation or arbitration machinery for the adjustment of disputes between the employers and the employees exists in this province. The parties concerned enter into their own direct negotiations.

The Trades Disputes Act came into force on 8th May, 1929. No use has yet been made of it.

3. The Punjab Government has no hesitation in admitting that in industries on any considerable scale trade unionism and combinations are indispensable as a means of ensuring that the reasonable demands of workers are brought to notice and their angle of view is impressed on the employers.

4. In industrial disputes there are standing orders that the industrial surveyors should promptly report to the local government the existence of a strike, its causes, progress and extent, and the Director of Industries is expected to keep himself in touch with the situation, and if required to lend his offices in explaining the position of the two parties to each other, with a view to removing possible misunderstandings.

5. The Government of India have recently suggested to local governments that they consider the desirability of appointing a Labour Commissioner to help in the settlement of industrial disputes. So far as the Punjab is concerned, the need for any such appointment is not evident. In the Dhariwal strike at the beginning of 1928, the employers and operatives came to terms themselves and the only action taken by Government apart from the "interpretation" enquiries of the Department of Industries, was to send a few police to watch the situation and to deal with intimidation and sabotage if it arose. On the railway a strike is always a serious thing, and from time to time there are manifestations of unrest in the Lahore workshops. During the early part of the present summer there has been some unrest—mainly owing to a change in the method of paying for work done. The North-Western Railway have now appointed a special labour officer who deals with the recruitment and grievances of labour. This appointment has been all to the good, and is likely to mitigate lightning strikes, and will tend to remove misunderstandings. Works councils enjoying participation in the framing of factory rules securing protection against arbitrary dismissal, and discussing short time working, for example, should have their niche in trade and workshop disputes, but workers have not yet had either the coaching or the opportunity of forming ideals to light up their path, or even realizing some of the implications behind the slogan of the Central Labour Federation, Punjab (membership 8), which is "Workers of the world unite."

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

Contractors on Government works (e.g., canals) are frequently under the compulsion to give labour advances to induce men to recruit. While the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act was in force advances were freely given, and the crop of cases for recoveries was always heavy. The effect of the repeal has been wholly to the good. Contractors have to exercise more caution and show more indulgence in their treatment of labour, and incidentally the magistracy have been released from attempts to extend the scope of the Act to spheres for which it was never intended. The problem of advances is, however, a real problem not only for contractors, but also for Government, which in the matter of forest fellings is often hard put to it to recover advances to contractors.

#### XVII.—Administration.

The constitutional position of the Central and Local Governments with respect to labour matters has been noted in the chapter on the machinery of the Executive Government, and in that chapter mention has also been made of the administrative authorities concerned with labour in the Provincial Government. The Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all acts of the legislature concerned with labour. In recent years the Government of India have directed the attention of the Punjab Government to the conditions under which child labour is employed in the carpet factories in Amritsar and have asked the local Government to ameliorate those conditions, with no result up to the present. On the other hand, the local government has recently suggested to the central Government that forest work, fellings and the like, should be scheduled as hazardous occupations for the purposes of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Central Government, however, did not see its way to fall in with the suggestion. Claims for compensation are, however, adjudicated following the scales in the Workmen's Compensation Act, and it may perhaps be noted that awards based on the Act are two or three times the amount which would satisfy those concerned.

2. There is no labour office or officer in the Punjab. The consequence is that the body of statistical material in regard to labour is very meagre and uncorrelated.

5. In this province the factory inspection staff consists of one full-time inspector, five industrial surveyors under the control of the Director of Industries, who are notified as additional inspectors under certain sections of the Act, and one personal assistant to the inspector, who is also notified as additional inspector under certain sections of the Act.

The total number of factories in the province at present is 602.

Besides the Punjab, the full-time inspector has got jurisdiction over three other provinces, namely, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, making a total of 725 factories in his jurisdiction. In the case of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara the full-time inspector is assisted by another industrial surveyor stationed at Delhi, who, like those in the Punjab, is also notified as additional inspector under certain sections of the Act.

The above arrangement will cease from 1st April, 1930, from which date the local Government proposes to sanction the appointment of one full-time inspector, withdrawing the powers conferred on the industrial surveyors under the Act. Thus, from 1st April next there will be one chief inspector and one inspector to administer the Indian Factories Act in all the four provinces with 725 factories to inspect.

7. The Punjab Factory Rules will be found on pages 130-168 of T. C. Ray's Indian Factories Act (1928).

8. As regards mines, the Mines Act of 1923 applies only to coal and salt mines in the Punjab. Other mines in the province consist of open excavations where the safety of workers is not endangered. The provincial rules under the Act of 1923 will be found in Punjab Government's notification No. 3224 D—Industries, dated 14th July, 1927, reproduced in Appendix D.\* There is no provincial mining board. The Chief Inspector of Mines or his assistant makes periodical inspections, and the district magistrate of the district has the powers of an inspector. The district magistrate's attention is, however, mainly directed to the control of prospecting licences and mining leases. The accounts of concessionaries are checked by the Director of Industries, who for the rest has no concern with the working of the Indian Mines Act and the rules made thereunder.

It must be confessed that the local Government has little knowledge of the working of supervising agency. The Punjab coal mines are comparatively unimportant, and, moreover, far distant from areas on which the chief inspector and his assistant must necessarily concentrate their attention, and prosecutions are rare.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

Statistics relating to the administration of the Indian Factories Act are compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, and are shown at the end of the annual report. Statistics relating to the number of operatives, hours of work and wages are supplied by the factory occupiers in response to circular letters issued by the factory inspector.

Statistics relating to trade unions are collected by the Registrar of Trade Unions (Director of Industries) at the time of the registration of the trade unions, and also at the end of the financial year. A six-monthly statement of the number of members is also called for. The general secretary of the union is responsible for the supply of these figures. The figures supplied are presumably accurate and are published at the end of the annual report on the working of the Trades Unions Act. Statistics relating to the Workmen's Compensation Act are collected from the following agencies:—(1) Employers under the Workmen's Compensation Act, (2) Factory occupiers under the Indian Factories Act, (3) Insurance Companies with whom the factory owners have insured their labour, (4) Commissioners appointed under the Workmen's Compensation Act in all districts.

3. There are six industrial surveyors in the province, a part of whose work is to make enquiries into the position of various industries, and to collect statistics relating to them. But only one monograph has as yet been published—on the textile trade. No enquiry into labour conditions has yet been thought of.

The Director of Industries notes:—

"At the present moment only such statistics are collected as are required either by the local Government or by the Government of India. The scope of these statistics could be very usefully widened and information on many interesting subjects relating to labour could be collected by this department, provided a suitable agency could be established. This province has no labour office. The entire work is done by a small section of the Director of Industries' office."

On this statement the comment is necessary that the small section at headquarters with the six industrial surveyors in the field under the supervision of a gazetted officer in the person of the touring assistant to the director should not be entirely inadequate for intelligence work as regards provincial labour, but not, of course, for comprehensive commercial intelligence, in which sphere the Director of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, has an organization to be drawn upon.

4. The Board of Economic Enquiry, Punjab, has conducted a series of investigations and has published twenty monographs in its rural section publications. The only urban sections publication is a study made by Mrs. Caleb in 1920 on the family

\* Not printed.

budgets of low-paid clerks, i.e., on salaries of Rs. 50 per mensem or less—a valuable study, now out of print. The rural bias of the Punjab outlook could hardly have a better illustration.

Table I.

Serial No.	Name of Circle.	Gross area commanded in square miles.	Engineering Staff.				
			Superintending Engineers.	Executive Engineers.	Assistant Engineers.	Subordinates.	
1	Western Jumna Canal ..	4,413	1	4	12	53	
2	Sirhind Canal { British States ..	3,766	}	1	4	12	59
3	Derajat .. .. .	3,054					
4	Upper Bari Doab Canal ..	3,550	1	3	9	46	
5	Lower Bari Doab Canal ..	2,562	1	4	10	52	
6	Upper Chenab Canal ..	2,779	1	4	11	47	
7	Lower Chenab Canal (West and East).	2,416	1	4	11	55	
8	Upper Jhelum Canal ..	5,650	2	7	20	97	
9	Lower Jhelum Canal ..	915	1	3	10	40	
10	1st British { British Bahawalpur ..	2,295	}	1	5	12	61
11	2nd British .. .. .	2,206					
12	3rd British .. .. .	145	1	4	12	72	
13	1st Bahawalpur .. .. .	2,138	1	4	11	66	
14	2nd Bahawalpur .. .. .	1,250	1	3	7	42	
15	3rd Bahawalpur .. .. .	2,390	1	4	17	102	
		2,219	1	4	12	72	
		2,274	1	5	21	126	

Table III.

Rates of wages in Punjab factories for the years noted below :—

	1927.	1922.	1917.	1912.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<i>Average per month—</i>				
(i) Skilled labour—				
Engine driver .. .. .	44	35	20 to 30	18 to 34
Boilerman .. .. .	32	25	20 to 30	18 to 26
Blacksmith .. .. .	44	35	25 to 40	20 to 30
Fitter .. .. .	62	50	40 to 60	30 to 55
Carpenter .. .. .	45	40	25 to 40	21 to 30
Oilman .. .. .	27	25	11 to 15	10 to 15
Mochi .. .. .	45	30	30	—
Spinner .. .. .	25	25	18 to 20	18 to 20
Weaver .. .. .	40	35	30	—
Dyer .. .. .	22	22	30	—
Reeler (woman) .. .. .	22	20	10 to 18	—
Press compositor .. .. .	44	40	15 to 30	—
Press distributor .. .. .	22	18	10 to 15	—
<i>Average per day—</i>				
(ii) Unskilled labour—	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Coolie (opener) .. .. .	1 0 0	1 0 0	10 0 to 0 12 0	0 6 6 to 0 8 6
Coolie (man) on gins	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 7 0 to 0 8 0	0 4 6 to 0 5 6
Coolie (woman) on gins	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 5 0 to 0 7 0	0 3 6 to 0 5 0

For the statement of wages most commonly paid to certain classes of labour please see table A (pages ii-v) of the " Report on the Fourth Regular Wages Survey of the Punjab " taken in December, 1927.

Table IV.

Average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour for the past 8 years.

Classification of labour.	Average per month.							
	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
I.—Skilled :—								
Engine driver .. ..	30	35	38	40	43	44	44	43
Boilerman .. ..	25	25	25	28	30	33	32	32
Blacksmith .. ..	35	35	36	40	44	44	44	45
Fitter .. ..	50	50	50	55	60	64	62	63
Carpenter .. ..	35	40	40	42	45	46	45	45
Oilman .. ..	20	25	25	24	27	27	27	25
Mochi .. ..	30	30	32	35	40	45	45	46
Spinner .. ..	20	25	25	28	25	25	25	27
Weaver .. ..	40	35	35	40	40	41	40	38
Dyer .. ..	30	22	22	20	22	22	22	23
Reeler (woman) ..	15	20	20	22	22	22	22	22
Press compositor ..	25	40	40	36	40	43	44	43
Press distributor ..	5	18	18	18	20	22	22	22

Average per day.

	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
II.—Unskilled :—								
Coolie (opener) ..	0 15	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Coolie (man) on gins ..	0 9	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8
Coolie (woman) on gins	0 7	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6

Table V.

Wages of unskilled labourers in the Punjab between 1909 and 1927.

Range of rates.	Number of Villages in				
	1909.	1912.	1917.	1922.	1927
<i>Annas.</i>					
0-6 to 1-6 .. ..	2	—	—	—	—
1-6 to 2-6 .. ..	156	53	23	5	—
2-6 to 3-6 .. ..	377	94	68	6	10
3-6 to 4-6 .. ..	1,060	297	219	62	87
4-6 to 5-6 .. ..	934	401	206	92	102
5-6 to 6-6 .. ..	1,012	360	270	164	145
6-6 to 7-6 .. ..	339	171	172	83	56
7-6 to 8-6 .. ..	357	184	504	363	448
8-6 to 9-6 .. ..	80	37	79	105	139
9-6 to 10-6 .. ..	71	14	135	227	323
10-6 to 11-6 .. ..	11	6	33	74	95
11-6 to 12-6 .. ..	—	—	15	369	318
12-6 to 13-6 .. ..	—	—	—	56	42
13-6 to 14-6 .. ..	—	—	1	81	24
14-6 to 15-6 .. ..	—	—	1	15	9
15-6 to 16-6 .. ..	—	—	—	108	50
16-6 to 17-6 .. ..	—	—	—	5	3
17-6 to 18-6 .. ..	—	—	—	9	2
18-6 to 19-6 .. ..	—	—	—	6	—
19-6 to 20-6 .. ..	—	—	—	2	1
20-6 to 21-6 .. ..	—	—	—	—	1
21-6 to 22-6 .. ..	—	—	—	3	—
22-6 to 23-6 .. ..	—	—	—	2	—
	4,399	1,617	1,726	1,857	1,855



## APPENDIX B.

*Aims and Objects of Certain Trade Unions.*1.—*The Punjab Labour Board, Lahore.*

*Aims and objects.*—(a) To organize trade unions and labour associations of different classes of workers in the Punjab in accordance with the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) To strengthen, improve, help, advise and put on a right footing the various trade unions and labour organizations in the province.

(c) To control, direct, supervise and develop the various trade unions and labour organizations in the province, and the labour movement in general.

(d) To centralize and co-ordinate the activities of various trade unions and labour organizations and those of the different labour workers, organizations and sympathizers.

(e) To improve, develop and further the interests of the labouring and depressed classes in general, and those of the labour movement in particular, in all matters affecting it legally, economically, socially, politically or otherwise.

(f) To better, improve, ameliorate, advocate and further the cause of labourers and workmen, whether skilled or unskilled, literate or illiterate, organized or unorganized, whether in service or out of service, or otherwise.

(g) To better the relations of employees and employers, and to act as arbitrators in disputes between them.

(h) To advocate the legal, economic, social and political cause of labour in the province, and to co-operate with similar boards or organizations existing elsewhere in India, or out of India.

(i) To carry on labour propaganda in the province by all legitimate means and spread labour ideas among the masses and infuse a labour spirit in them.

(j) To collect, arrange and disseminate information about labour and the trade unions movement in the province and act as the Labour Information Bureau in the Punjab.

(k) To affiliate, with or without fees, trade unions and labour organizations in the province, whether registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act or not, or whether recognized by the employer or employers or not.

(l) To act as a labour party in the province and to carry on all sorts of activities, whether of a political character or not, as labour parties in other countries act and carry on.

(m) To represent the grievances and demands of labourers and workmen in general and those of the members of trade unions and labour organizations affiliated with it in particular.

(n) To convene and hold mass labour meetings from time to time and hold a Punjab Labour Conference once a year or so.

(o) To obtain adequate franchise for labour as such and adequate representation in the various legislatures dealing with the Punjab, local bodies, national organizations, and so forth.

(p) To run labour members in elections for the legislatures, local bodies and other national, educational, social and political organizations.

(q) To start, maintain, manage and utilize a general fund and a political fund in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(r) To publish an organ or organs in any language understood in the province, to foster and further the cause of labour in the country and create consciousness among the workers in general.

(s) To do all or any of the above objects or any other not mentioned above which may be deemed most beneficial for the cause of labour in the province in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act.

2.—*North-Western Railway Union.*

The objects of the union shall be to secure the complete organization of all workers (manual and mental, including mechanical labour) employed in any division or shops or at any other place over the North-Western Railway.

(a) To improve the conditions and protect the interest of its members, to obtain and maintain reasonable hours of duty, rates of wages, adequate retiring allowances and other conditions of labour, to settle disputes between its members and their employers and to regulate the relations between them by collective withholding of labour or otherwise.

(b) To further, if and when and so far as the same shall be or become a lawful object of the trade union, the interest of members by representation to the railway authorities, in the local legislature and in the Legislative Assembly, and to employ the funds of the union in procuring such representations.

(c) To regulate the relations between this union and its members and to settle disputes between the union and any member or members or between any member or members and any officer or officers of the union by way of appeal as provided in these rules.

(d) To provide temporary assistance to members when out of employment through causes over which they have no control, or through unjust treatment or through any dispute existing between the employer and a member or members of the union.

(e) To provide legal or other assistance when necessary in matters pertaining to the employment of the members or for securing compensation for members who suffer injury by accidents in their employments; also to use every effort to provide for the safety of railway work and of railway travelling.

(f) To make grants to deserving railway employees and members or officers of the union in order to improve their future knowledge and prospects to educate and get training in the social, political, economic, and in the industrial life of the labour movements in India and abroad.

(g) To provide donations to any institutions from which members may derive benefit to have power to render, as occasion may arise, assistance to other trade unions and other lawful purposes, also to enable such members as voluntarily desire it to provide funds for their relief in sickness or temporary disablement and for their retirement and also to aid the young orphan children or widows of members, to provide accident benefit to members who may have met with accident whilst following their employment.

(h) To provide a grant of money to members of the disablement fund when permanently disabled, or when by reason of old age they cannot follow their regular employment, or to their representative in case of death or accidents, or otherwise.

(i) To carry on all business, within the meaning of assurance fund, unemployment fund, death benefit, sick benefit, and mutual assurance benefit as provided for in Appendix A to these rules.

### 3.—*The Textile Mill Workers' Union, Dharawal.*

#### *Aims and Objects.*

To improve the conditions and to protect the rights of its members to obtain reasonable hours of duty, rates of wages, retiring allowances, and other conditions of labour. To settle disputes between the members and the employers and to represent the interests of its members to the employers in the legislature (local and provincial) and to utilize the fund in furthering the cause of the union and its members.

### 4.—*The North-Western Railway Compilation Union.*

#### *Objects.*

(a) To encourage the spirit of co-operation amongst employees of the Compilation Section.

(b) To devise means whereby the status of the clerical line is improved.

(c) To deal with questions affecting the common rights and privileges of the members and get grievances, if any, removed by constitutional methods.

## APPENDIX F.

### *Rules prescribed by the Director of Agriculture under Section 9 (i) (b) of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act.*

(1) Kapas shall enter at centre of the factory and shall be carried by broad stairs shown at the points marked A, B and C, D in the rough sketch plan T annexed hereto, on to the gin platform direct.

(2) A door at each end of the cotton (ru) platform for the carriage of cotton (ru) shall be provided at the points marked E, F and G, H in the aforesaid sketch plan.

(3) Width of kapas platform shall be 10 feet from shaft to inner surface of the wall making the minimum width of the factory 32 feet.

(4) There shall be an iron sheet shield not less than 1 foot high fitted on knife rail in front of a gin to prevent kapas and cotton seeds from passing over the knife rail of the gin and getting mixed with the cotton (ruj). This shield shall be made in order to compensate for the wear and tear of the ginning roller.

(5) The belting on centre of cotton platforms shall be covered entirely to a height of 18 inches above ground to prevent cotton getting mixed with oil.

(6) There shall be a movable frame 2 feet 4 inches by 2 feet 4 inches by 2 inches to receive cotton (ruj) coming through gins and keep it off floor. The frame shall be removable at will.

(7) The space for drying platform shall be at the rate of 1,000 square feet per 10 single roller gins or their equivalent. There shall be minimum of two platforms in each factory, and these shall be separated by a pathway at least 15 feet wide.

(8) There shall be easy means of ingress to and egress from factory compound, in order to prevent congestion of traffic.

(9) The area for a cotton ginning factory containing 32 single roller gins or their equivalent shall be a minimum of 4 acres and for a factory with larger number of such gins the area shall be increased at the rate of one acre for every 10 single roller gins or their equivalent to a maximum of 8 acres, except in special cases.

(10) Sufficient godowns for storing cotton and kapas shall be provided and different varieties of cottons shall be kept in separate godowns.

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**Mr. A. L. HOYLE, COMMISSIONER, NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE DEPARTMENT.**

*Preliminary.*

The Royal Commission's schedule of subjects reached me at the end of August. My evidence, which is to be submitted through the Central Board of Revenue, has to reach the Royal Commission not later than the 25th September, 1929. This is the budget season, and this year fortuitous circumstances have conspired to render it a peculiarly busy season in every direction. It will therefore be understood that it has been impossible to deal in any sense adequately with the Commission's questionnaire in the time at my disposal.

2. Excluding the Kohat Mines Division, where the salt is the property of local quarry owners and the function of Government is mainly to see that the excise duty is collected, the Northern India Salt Revenue Department is concerned with two salt producing areas, the Rajputana Salt Sources Division and the Salt Range Division in the Punjab. I deal below with each area separately. The serial numbers correspond with the headings in the Schedule.

*A.—The Rajputana Salt Sources Division.*

This division includes the three salt sources of Sambhar, Didwana, and Pachbadra. At the two latter the salt is extracted by, and purchased by Government from, the local owners of the pits, and Government is only indirectly concerned with the labour employed, much of which is supplied by the families of the pit owners. The Royal Commission will therefore, I think, not wish to receive any evidence in connection with these two sources. Sambhar Lake, the most important of the three salt sources in this Division, with an average output for the last five official years of approximately 73 lakhs of maunds of salt, is held under agreement with the Jaipur and Jodhpur States within whose territories it lies, by which the right of manufacturing and selling salt are leased to the Government of India.

*I.—Recruitment.*

1 to 3. The work of extracting and storing salt is given out by the Northern India Salt Revenue Department on contract. The contract for this work at Sambhar, Gudha, and Jhapog at the eastern end of the lake has since the year 1922-23 been in the hands of the Gudha Co-operative Society which recruits its labour from 12 neighbouring villages, known as Bara Gaon, within the jurisdiction of the Jaipur and Jodhpur Darbars. At Nawa, 15 miles distant from Sambhar toward the western end of the lake, the contract is in the hands of a private firm which recruits its labour from Nawa and the neighbouring villages. Both these agencies engage their labour through mates employed on commission. To encourage recruitment the contractors pay advances recoverable in instalments from the labourers' wages at the time of extraction.

7 and 8. The employment of extracting and storing salt is seasonal. Its duration is ordinarily not longer than four months in the year, and may be as little as two and a half months. The labourers are of the agricultural class, and when not employed under the department are engaged in their fields. Some employment is also offered by the department during the period from November to March when works of various kinds are under construction. The labour for these purposes is recruited from the town of Sambhar by the contractors engaged on the works.

### II.—Staff Organization.

10. The work of extracting and storing salt is done by contractors (including the co-operative society). Works of construction are partly done by contractors and partly departmentally; workshop labour is departmentally employed. The labour that is departmentally employed on construction is controlled by inspectors assisted by peons of various grades, and in charge of each work, or group of works, is a superintendent who is a gazetted officer. The work of the superintendents again is supervised by the general manager and assistant general manager. Workshop labour is under the control of the engineer (mechanical and electrical), assisted by certain technically trained subordinates. The engineer himself is under the control of the general manager.

11 and 12. The departmental superior staff is recruited by selection and competitive examination. The inferior staff is recruited from local men and to some extent from candidates from the United Provinces.

13. Relations between staff and rank and file are cordial.

14. As an employer of labour, Government is concerned here mainly with the workshop staff, who have recently been put on daily wages. Attendance registers are kept by a clerk who also acts as time-keeper. Wages are paid by the engineer.

15. (i) As already stated, the work of extracting and storing salt and some of the construction work are given on contract. These represent the most important activities of the department.

(ii) Sub-contracting does not exist.

(iii) The terms upon which the contractors employ their labour (which is not regularly employed but which finds casual and temporary occupation here during a limited season) are not controlled by the departmental officers. As is stated in later paragraphs, the department assists in the provision of certain amenities, e.g., housing and medical aid.

### III.—Housing.

16 to 23. The labour, as has been seen, is mainly local, and ordinarily lives at home. Government however, provides grass shelters during the extraction season for the housing of labourers from the more distant villages, and has also erected two model barracks at Gudha and one at Jhapog. These barracks are divided into rooms 12 feet by 12 feet, and have a verandah running along the front. Water is supplied by Government from a well worked by an electric motor. There are no conservancy arrangements. These barracks have proved fairly popular with the labouring community. A nominal rent is realized at 4 annas a month per room. The labourers are frugal and industrious by habit, and no moral improvement as the result of this accommodation is noticeable or was desired. The workshop employees are provided with rent-free quarters.

### IV.—Health.

23. No statistics are available. The physique of the workers is not remarkable, but in general they keep very fair health, though during the extraction season malaria is common and is probably stimulated to some extent by the nature of the work, which consists largely of wading in the salt pans.

24 and 25. The department maintains a dispensary to which a fair number of labourers have recourse for treatment of minor maladies and injuries, such as sores.

26. (i) Latrines are not provided, but sweepers are employed for the removal of night-soil.

(ii) Drinking water is provided by the contractors, who transport it to the works by rail or on camels.

29. (i) No statistics are available.

(ii) Malaria is widely prevalent. Cholera is rare. Hookworm has not come under notice.

**VI.—Education.**

40 to 42. The Jodhpur and Jaipur States provide both primary and secondary education, but it is not compulsory.

**VII.—Safety.**

43 to 50. Accidents are of very rare occurrence and no special safeguards appear to be necessary.

**IX.—Hours.**

55. (i) The hours of work for the seasonal labour on extraction, etc., are not regulated. In the workshop, pump house, etc., the hours of work are 48 per week and 8 per day.

(ii) Drivers and firemen employed on locomotives used for extraction, work sometimes for 12 hours. Overtime is paid.

(iii) The only class of workmen who are liable to call to duty at any hour are fitters. These are only eight in number.

60. The workshop workmen are given an hour off duty for meals. These men being employed on a variety of jobs are not subject to the same degree of fatigue that specialized labour induces.

61. Sunday is observed as a day of rest except during the extraction season when all concerned with extraction are expected to work daily to ensure harvesting all the salt.

**XII.—Wages.**

96. (i) In the workshop the average wages are Re. 1-0-6 pies per day. Labourers employed on extraction can earn 10 annas a day for a full day's work.

(ii) In the surrounding agricultural areas, men earn 7 annas and women 6 annas a day.

97. Wages in recent years have increased. This is due to the demand created by construction work on railways, irrigation works in the States and the building of New Delhi. The index of cost of living is not available for the locality.

100. Payment through contractors appears generally to work satisfactorily, though at times the contractors are inclined to strike a hard bargain at the expense of the labourers.

101. Wages are fixed in the case of labourers employed by contractors on harvesting salt by agreement between contractors and labour, and in the case of workshop hands with reference to rates obtaining in the railway workshops at Ajmer and Phulera.

102. Overtime pay for workshop hands is on a scale based on wages. It ranges from one anna per hour in excess of eight for workmen on 15 annas a day to three annas for workmen on Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 2-6 annas.

103. Standardization does not exist, since the workshop is small and jobs of varied kinds.

106. Fines are imposed on factory workmen for offences such as negligence rather than for inferior work. They are infrequent.

107. (i) The workshop hands are mostly on daily wages. Labourers on extraction are paid by the week.

(ii) Two weeks.

(iii) No action necessary.

(iv) Cases of unclaimed wages are very rare.

108. Among extraction labourers the extent of indebtedness is not known. The workshop labourers appear to be free from debt.

109. There are no bonus or profit-sharing schemes.

110. Men on monthly wages earn leave under the Civil Service Regulations. Workers on daily wages earn no leave.

**XVII.—Administration.**

137. The Workmen's Compensation Act being inoperative there is no employers liability in cases of accident; otherwise conditions are much the same as in British India. Relations with the local civil authorities are cordial.

*B. Salt Range Division.*

The department works three mines at Khewra, Warcha and Kalabagh. Khewra, with an average annual output of 28½ lakhs of maunds of salt, is the most important. Except where otherwise indicated, my replies are applicable to all three mines.

**I. Recruitment.**

1. Excluding ticket-of-leave men employed on loading trucks in the depot, there are four classes of labour :—(a) The hereditary local miner caste, who have worked in the salt mines of the Salt Range for centuries and now work almost exclusively underground. (b) Workshop and power-house labour recruited from the blacksmith and carpenter classes of Khewra and neighbouring villages. (c) Semi-permanent labour employed on loading and unloading trucks and working mechanical drills underground, recruited in neighbouring villages from agricultural classes originally employed on collecting stone, wood and gypsum. (d) Casual labour, semi skilled or unskilled, employed on construction and repair work, recruited from the same class as (c).

There is practically no migration among the miner class; none among the engineering class, while the semi-permanent labour tends to leave the mine at harvest season.

2. (i) The miners live at Khewra itself. The workshop and the semi-permanent labour pay weekly, fortnightly, or occasionally monthly visits to their villages.

(ii) The total permanent labour force including miners, workshop hands and some of the semi-permanent labour is about 1,100 (including women) at Khewra, 250 at Warcha and 200 at Kalabagh.

(iii) No special methods of recruitment are in force, there being no scarcity of labour.

7. There is a certain amount of unemployment among the miners because the demand for rock salt is much in defect of the available supply. The best method of alleviating this unemployment would be to secure an increased demand. Endeavours are at present being made (though for reasons not connected with unemployment) to stimulate the demand by securing reduction in railway freights. The introduction of machinery has to some extent created unemployment, but this cause is less serious than the other. The general disinclination of the mining community to take up other work at casual labour rates, suggests that unemployment does not cause them very serious distress, though some of the community are endeavouring to secure land from the Punjab Government at concession rates as an alternative means of employment. An annual two months' holiday taken by the miners in August and September produces unemployment to the extent of 40 to 80 per cent. during those months for the workshop and casual labour classes.

8. (i) The average duration of employment, except for the permanent Government staff and the more skilled and essential of the workshop labour, is 10 months only, the miners being on vacation for two months annually.

(ii) The extent of casual employment varies very widely according to the amount of construction work in hand.

(iii) There is no serious absenteeism, except during good harvest season, when 30 to 40 per cent. of the semi-permanent labour may be absent. Figures of time or wages lost are not available. At Kalabagh casual labour tends to migrate to Afghanistan during the hot months.

**II. Staff Organization.**

10. The staff consists of a general manager, a superintending electrical and mechanical engineer, assistant commissioner or manager in charge of Khewra mine, assistant commissioner in charge of Khewra depot and preventive work and superintendents in charge of Warcha and Kalabagh mines. These are assisted by junior superintendents (gasetted) and inspectors (non-gasetted). The mine manager at Khewra is assisted by two superintendents and four inspectors, two of whom work as surveyors.

11. The general manager and the superintending engineer are specially recruited technical men. The remainder of the staff are officers of the Salt Department. The miners themselves work under gangmen, who are ordinarily hereditary leaders of the gangs.

12. (i) See (11) above. As far as possible, departmental officers with aptitude for mining work are selected. Junior superintendents in special cases are sent to the Dhanbad School of Mines for training.

(ii) There are no special facilities for training miners. The majority are illiterate.

13. (i) Relations generally are satisfactory. The miners have no hesitation in bringing any grievances to the notice of the mine manager or general manager. Questions affecting the well-being of the mining community as a whole are discussed by the general manager at conferences with the gangmen and the more intelligent miners.

(ii) Jobbers are not employed.

(iii) and (iv) There are no regular works committees, councils or industrial councils. The gangmen, 41 in number, elect annually a *panchayat* or committee to deal with small local disputes. Their decisions are ordinarily accepted by the miners without question.

14. (i) Attendance of all labour is checked and registers kept in accordance with the Mines Act. In the case of the miners, attendance is taken from slips submitted by gangmen, in the case of labour on contract from the contractors' figures, and in the case of workshop and semi-permanent labour from the inspectors' or clerks' figures.

(ii) Wages are invariably paid by a gazetted officer.

15. (i) The bulk of the construction and repair work is given out on contract. Other work is done departmentally.

(ii) There is no sub-contracting, except a little on loading and unloading.

(iii) Control over work on contract is practically the same as over that done departmentally. Contractors are kept to the specified hours prescribed by the Mines Act.

(iv) The contract system has saved Government money, and does not appear to have affected working conditions adversely.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) and (ii) The workshop and some of the semi-permanent and casual labour are housed by Government, which is the employer.

(iii) Practically no housing is provided by private landlords.

(iv) The mining community build their own houses. At Khewra each miner has two houses, one in Khewra village and another for the vacation on the Salt Range.

17. The Department own considerable areas near Khewra and Warcha villages, and acquisition is unnecessary.

18. (i) The accommodation provided by Government for the workshop labour is at least as good as, or better than that which the labour would provide for itself. The accommodation provided for other labour consists of reasonably comfortable barracks.

(ii) High compound walls for privacy are provided in accordance with Punjab custom. Whether this practice is altogether healthy is open to question.

(iii) Most of the Government quarters at Khewra are provided with electric light, and at Khewra and Warcha there is an excellent supply of drinking water. Four sweepers are employed for conservancy in Khewra village, but there is some room for improvement here.

19. All accommodation provided is utilized.

22. The present housing conditions appear to have no bad moral effect. The people are conservative, and it would be difficult to persuade them to make any changes.

### IV.—Health.

23. (i) and (ii) Statistics are not available up to date. Births and deaths are registered by a *choukidar* employed by the district authorities.

(iii) (a) The working conditions underground as regards ventilation and lighting are generally very good. (b) Conditions at home are fair. The situation of the mining villages on the slopes of the hills makes to some extent for cleanliness.

(iv) The staple food of the community as a whole is ground unrefined grain, which costs normally about one anna per pound. Meat is obtainable at a fixed price of seven annas per seer. Vegetables are scarce, which appears to conduce to anæmia.

(v) The physique of the mining community as a whole is somewhat below that of agricultural labour in Punjab.

24. (i) and (ii) The Department maintains hospitals at Khewra and Warcha, and there is also a hospital in Kalabagh city which is used by the mining community.

(iv) A midwife is attached to the Khewra hospital, and the appointment of a health visitor at this place is under consideration.

25. Below are statistics for three years showing attendance at the hospitals :—

Year.	Males.		Females.	
	In patients.	Out patients.	In patients.	Out patients.
1926 .. ..	31	8,288	2	3,663
1927 .. ..	79	11,215	27	5,222
1928 .. ..	88	13,245	16	6,360

26. (i) Latrines are provided under ground, but usually not in the villages.

(ii) Ample drinking water is provided from standpipes at Khewra and Warcha.

(iii) Khewra has special tanks for bathing and washing.

29. (i) No industrial diseases are prevalent. Conjunctivitis and granular lids are not uncommon, but this is the case in all Salt Range villages, whether mining or otherwise.

(ii) Cholera and hookworm are unknown. Statistics for malaria are as under : 1926, 983 ; 1927, 628 ; 1928, 770. Goitre is endemic, and was formerly serious but has declined, possibly as the result of the supply of a better quality of drinking water.

30. The work people as a whole do not favour sickness insurance. They are very conservative, and it probably would be unwise to enforce any such system on them. Western medicine is not unacceptable in the mining areas when it has been tested and found to be of benefit.

#### V.—Welfare.

31 to 35. There are no maternity or welfare activities in this area.

36. The department does not provide educational facilities. There are district board schools.

37. The miners contribute one pie per rupee of their wages towards a pension fund, and fines recovered from them are also paid into this fund. The recipients are chosen by the gangmen and lambardars in consultation. The awards seem to be reasonably just. The usual rate of pension is Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 monthly.

38. A co-operative supply shop was started at Khewra, but failed because the shareholders took no interest in its progress. At Warcha the Superintendent of the Mine kept the working of the shop almost in his own hands, and achieved somewhat better results, but this is not co-operation.

#### VI.—Education.

40. There are district board infant and primary schools at Khewra, and an infant school at Warcha. The attendance last year averaged about 240, composed entirely of children not in employment. Children under 13 years of age are not employed in the mine or workshop. There are no educational facilities for older children or adults.

41. There are no facilities for industrial or vocational training.

42. Education in this area dates from only the last ten years, and cannot yet be expected to have had any marked effect on the standard of living or industrial efficiency of workers.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. Conditions are regulated by the Mines Act No. IV of 1923, and the accompanying Regulations for Metalliferous Mines.

44. The rate of accidents for the past three years is—Fatal, 1 per 1,000 ; serious, 4.7 per 1,000. An accident which keeps a workman absent from work for 21 days is classed as serious, and this classification includes a number of accidents involving relatively minor injuries, such as loss of a finger.

45. The most common accidents are haulage accidents, i.e., persons knocked down or run over by mine trucks. Only one death in the last ten years was due to a fall of roof. A number of simple accidents are due to women while carrying salt dropping it on their feet or other parts of their body.

46. Precautions are taken—(a) by arranging safe travelling ways to and from the working places ; (b) by closing off all dangerous parts of the mine ; (c) two whole-time permanent overseers are employed on regular inspection of the mine roofs, and (d) by careful fencing and guarding of all machinery.

48. The hospitals are situated as close as possible to the mines, and a number of men are trained in first-aid.



49. The mines are inspected annually by the mines inspector and periodically by the electrical inspector, deputy commissioner, health and other district officials. The superintendents and inspectors make tours of inspection writing up the results in a book.

50. The hours of work are not long, and conditions generally are good. These factors inevitably conduce to safety.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) and (ii) The advantages of the Workmen's Compensation Act were not at first fully understood by the work people. They now understand them, and claim compensation whenever it is due. Six claims were paid in the last three years.

(iv) and (v) There are no insurance facilities. Compulsory insurance does not seem necessary where accidents are so relatively uncommon.

53. The scales of compensation allowed by the Act appear to be adequate without being so liberal as to induce workers to shirk returning to work for the sake of drawing compensation. Payment by instalments seems preferable to payment of lump sums. The conditions under which compensation is granted are just and call for no alteration.

54. I do not consider that such legislation as is indicated is necessary.

#### IX.—Hours.

63. (i) Nine hours for surface and ten hours for underground labour with the exception of female labour which works from four to six hours daily.

(ii) Actual working hours correspond very closely to normal working hours as practically no over-time is worked.

(iii) Surface labour breaks off about mid-day for two hours' rest in the hot weather making a total working day of 11 hours of which 9 are actually working hours.

64. There are six working days in the week. Sunday is a holiday at Khewra and Warcha, and Friday at Kalabagh.

65. The hours of work per week were always under 60 hours before the 60 hours' restriction was introduced. The restriction has therefore had no effect.

66. Work is not ordinarily at very high pressure, therefore it seems unnecessary that the maxima should be reduced.

67. The shift system would be of no advantage, since the working hours are already well under the maximum, and therefore do not need to be divided between two or more shifts of workers. The mining community resent strongly any interference with their immemorial habits, and would object to the enforcement of the shift system. From the Department's point of view there is no objection except that shifts would involve some increase in expenditure on supervision.

68. I do not consider that any limitation is desirable. The daily work is well within the miners' physical capacity, and as already indicated they are not appreciative of artificial restrictions.

69. (i) and (ii) Miners usually take from half to one hour's interval daily according to their own wishes. Workshop labour is allowed one hour's interval in the cold weather and two hours in the hot weather. The intervals correspond with the workers' meal time, and are not fixed with any relation to fatigue.

(iii) Including the miners' two months vacation the number of holidays per year—is 132.

70. See serial No. 64, regarding weekly holidays. Only urgent repair work to machinery, permanent way, etc., is carried out on these days.

71. All workers get much more rest than is provided by law. Obviously no further provision is necessary.

#### X.—Special Questions.

91. A period of ten years has been accepted by Government as the period within which women are to be excluded from the mine. The miners will object since this involves interference with their immemorial habits and will reduce their earnings. The effect on the industry, so far as I can at present foresee, is likely to be negligible, since the community as a whole is not at present fully employed.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. (i) The average income of Khewra miners during the last three months was Rs. 39 per head, per memsem. Output increases in the winter and the average for the year will probably approximate to Rs. 50 per memsem. The rate at Kalabagh is about the same as at Khewra, and at Warcha the average is about Rs. 35. Rates paid to workshop labour vary from ten annas per day for unskilled labour to about

Rs. 3 for highly skilled workmen, but the average is about Re. 1-12 annas per head. Wages on loading and unloading trucks vary from nine annas to Re. 1 per day, and on construction from nine annas to twelve annas per day, the lowest rate being paid only to very young or very old workers.

(ii) In the surrounding agricultural areas rates vary from ten annas to Re. 1-8 annas or Rs. 2 per day, the higher figure being only paid during harvest season.

(iii) Where free quarters are provided the concession may be taken to be worth Re. 1 to Rs. 5 monthly.

97. (i) Wages rose very considerably between 1914 and 1922. Since then there has been no marked fluctuation.

(ii) The increase would appear to be due to the general increase in industry in the Punjab as a whole.

(iii) Analysis of the cost of living of a family consisting of two parents and three children seems to show that the cost is about Rs. 35 per mensem. This, however, pre-supposes that the worker buys all his supplies in the bazaar. Actually a large number of workers buy food-stuffs direct from the farmers, and it appears that a family can live on Rs. 16 to Rs. 18 per mensem.

100. The contract system seems to work satisfactorily. There are practically no complaints from labourers against the contractors.

101. Wages have generally been fixed in relation to prevailing rates in the district.

102. No special rates are paid for overtime or Sunday work.

104. Changes in wages have little effect on labour supply in the case of miners, as they are not readily attracted to other work. With the other classes increased wages generally attract more labour and decreased wages make it difficult to obtain labour. Over a certain point, however, which may tentatively be fixed as that which gives a workman 25 per cent. profit on his earnings, increased wages appear to conduce to slackness and absenteeism.

105. Since the miners are paid on out-turn, the introduction of a minimum wage would be both difficult and probably not advisable.

106. (i) The percentage of fines recovered to total wages paid during the past year was 0.7 per cent.

(ii) Other deductions are made on account of the cost of blasting powder and hire of drilling machines, and a voluntary contribution fund is levied at the rate of one pie per rupee.

(iii) The fine fund plus the voluntary contribution fund forms, as already noted, a pension fund for the old and infirm people of the village.

107. (i) Wages are paid in some cases weekly, in others fortnightly and in others monthly. This has been arranged after consulting the wishes of the different sections of labour.

(ii) The normal period elapsing before payment varies from 1 to 14 days. In exceptional cases, periods of three weeks to one month have elapsed.

(iii) So far as the mines under my control are concerned no legislation is required.

(iv) Unclaimed wages are usually kept for about three months, but a claim for wages not previously claimed is always considered, no matter how long the claim may have been delayed.

108. (i) and (ii) The whole community is usually in debt to some small extent to the shopkeepers, but the debt in most cases is not more than the debtor could pay very quickly if he wished. In the case of about 10 to 15 per cent. of the community the debt is beyond the capacity of the debtor to repay except in instalments extending over two or three years.

109. There are no bonus or profit sharing schemes.

110 (i) and (ii) As already noted, the miners take two months' vacation annually, thus enforcing a similar vacation on the majority of the other workers. There are also about 25 religious holidays during the year. Except in cases of extreme urgency (for example during the war) the vacation is invariably granted, since it appears to be beneficial to the miners' health and efficiency.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. There has been little marked change in the general efficiency of workers in the past ten years, though it may perhaps be said that the mechanical skill of the blacksmith and carpenter classes is slowly improving.

113 The comparison of the efficiency of Indian and foreign workers (a term covering a very wide field) is difficult. Loading work affords a rough test. A Khewra labourer will load from ten to fifteen tons daily, a European labourer from 20 to 25 tons, and an American labourer (judging by figures which the general manager

has obtained) up to 30 tons. It may be stated with reservation that the ordinary Punjab labour is physically about 60 per cent. as efficient as ordinary European labour. Compared with African labour (of which the present general manager has experience) it may be taken to be 80 to 90 per cent. as efficient physically, though very much more efficient mentally. A good skilled Indian labourer appears to be about equal to a semi-skilled European workman.

114. The comparisons given above are affected chiefly by climate, lack of opportunities for education and physique. The plant used in the Salt Range is relatively fairly efficient, but the overall standard of management is less efficient than could be desired.

115. Improvement in dietary (alone among the subheads under this serial number) might render the workers capable of increased production, but as already stated the mining community as a whole is not at present worked up to its full physical capacity.

116. Extended use of electricity is expected to make the working of the mine as a whole more efficient. Such extension is under consideration.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. (i) During the last forty years there has been only one strike. This occurred at Khewra mine in 1921, and was attributable mainly to the low rate of wages then paid.

(ii) It lasted for three months, and was conducted peacefully.

(iii) Government made no concession. The workers returned of their own free will.

(iv) The workers are estimated to have lost roughly about Rs. 60,000 in wages. There was no particular loss to industry.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. Statistics of attendance, wages paid, etc., are kept in the ordinary mine records which are very reasonably reliable. Statistics of health, disease, etc., are kept in the hospitals, but are less accurate, since a number of the community do not attend hospital, and thus numerous cases of illness presumably go unrecorded. Statistics of the cost of living are difficult to obtain.

145 No special investigations have been conducted regarding conditions in this area, except one investigation into the health of the Khewra miners conducted about 1922 by Dr. Gill of the Punjab. Dr. Gill's report unfortunately seems to have been eliminated from our records.

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#### MINERS OF KHEWRA.

We, the undersigned miners of Khewra, venture to approach and lay before you the following lines for your kind perusal and favourable consideration.

The village of Khewra is inhabited chiefly by Moghals, Awans, Khokbars and Janjuas, who depend upon mining for their living. Our ancestors were the original owners of the mines in the Salt Range, and they owned and profited by the mines exactly in the same way as an agriculturist owns and makes use of his land. The mine was considered the owner's property. This fact is borne out by the oral traditions handed down from generation to generation and by the fact that persons of the same tribes are owners of lands in the district. During the Moghal and the Sikh rules our forefathers used to work out the salt from the mines themselves and realized the profits solely for their own benefit without any interference on the part of the then Governments. Since the advent of the benign British rule these mines have become State property and we, who were once the owners, cannot count ourselves in the category of even ordinary labourers.

2. Before the advent, and in the beginning of the British rule, the salt mine was situate at a distance of half a mile from the village and salt was worked out therefrom. However, since about thirty years a new tunnel was prepared and the mine went direct underneath the village. The result was that the old Khewra and the Mohallah Maswari were endangered. The officials paid no heed to this alarm and consequently half of the village was utterly destroyed, and thousands of the inhabitants were rendered homeless with irreparable loss of property in spite of the repeated requests and supplications from the villagers. This was the reward bestowed by the officers upon us for the services rendered so faithfully with the sweat of brow to fill the coffers of the Government Treasury. The benign Government has rendered

all possible aid to the sufferers during the recent floods, and it is beyond comprehension why we should be deprived of any such assistance from the Government, having become homeless, as we are. We have been crying during the last year for help, but the salt authorities would not allow our voice to be heard. Now that we have had the honour of the visit of the Labour Commission to this unfortunate village of ours we have found an opportunity to lay bare our heart and we earnestly pray that the site of the village may be shifted to some safer place, and we may be financed for building upon those sites or the Government may get us houses prepared under its own control and cost.

3. Our ancestors were the full owners of the houses occupied by them, and no Government ever claimed any right over them. Since about eight or nine years the general manager, Salt Mines, Khewra, has issued a queer order that no house should be rebuilt or repaired without a stamped deed being executed by the owner thereof in favour of the Salt Department, with the stipulation that the occupiers will be liable to be evicted if he cannot work satisfactorily according to the wishes of the Salt Department. This was the type of help rendered to the homeless during the calamity mentioned above, which also was the doing of the Salt Department itself. Thus we who once were the owners of the salt range and the houses are now required to seek permission to reside and to touch the homes of our forefathers. If we had our own homes without any interference or control we could leave the mine if not agreeable and still occupy our houses. On the other hand, if the execution of deeds continues the displeasure of the salt officers would mean exile from the village. We, therefore, request that this unwholesome practice be given stop to, and in our humble opinion you alone can give us salvation from this curse of stamp deeds, which has rendered our living worse than death, because on the face of it it is disgraceful to ask permission to live in one's own cottage.

4. We now draw your kind attention to the vital aspect of our labour that is the income of a miner. We may briefly state that previous to the year before last payment was made according to the measurements of space worked out by the miner. Since a year the system has been changed. Now the payment is made according to the number of trucks of salt a miner can supply during a certain period. Each miner is supplied with a notebook and the number of trucks supplied by him are entered in the book. The miner is paid at the rate of Rs. 3-6 per truck load of salt. On the average the daily output to the market from the mine is 10,000 maunds of salt, and this is conveyed by 250 trucks, each carrying 40 maunds. Thus the total number of trucks supplied per mensem is 6,250; 613 miners have been supplied with such notebooks. Thus, taking out the monthly average each holder of such book supplied 6,250/613, i.e., 10 trucks. The Government rate per truck is Rs. 3-6, but the expenses of gunpowder used in digging the salt and of oil incurred amount to 14 annas per truck. Deducting this actual cost the net price comes to Rs. 2-8 per truck. Thus the total average income of a bookholding miner is Rs. 25 per mensem. The miners, however, actually work for ten months during the year, it being impossible to work for the two rainy months, when the mine becomes dangerous. Making this allowance for two months a net average income of a miner comes to Rs. 20-13-4 pies per mensem. This is the only source of a miner's income. Now let us calculate the expenses. The total number of miners working is 2,677, and the number of books given is 613. Thus the number of persons depending on one book is 4½. To make the calculation easier we shall take the round figure of 4 for 4½. The monthly expenses of 4 men is as follows:—

	Price.	
	Rs.	a. p.
1. Floor, 6 chhks per head; total, 90 seers at the rate of 6 seers for one rupee .. .. .	15	0 0
2. Ghee, 3 chhks per head meal; total, 90 chhks at the rate of 8 chhks per rupee .. .. .	11	4 0
3. Meat, 10 seers; every third day a seer at the rate of 7 annas per seer .. .. .	4	6 0
4. Vegetables, pulses, etc. .. .. .	3	0 0
5. Salt, spices, etc. .. .. .	1	0 0
6. Fuel .. .. .	2	0 0
7. Clothes, shoes, etc. .. .. .	10	0 0
8. Barber, 8 annas; soap, Rs. 1-8.. .. .	2	0 0
9. Tobacco, 4 annas per head .. .. .	1	0 0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>10 0</b>

Total annual expenses, Rs. 595-8.

*Annual Necessary Expenses.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Repairs of the houses .. .. .	50	0	0
2. Marriage and death expenses, etc. .. .. .	50	0	0
3. Fine .. .. .	24	0	0
4. Pie fund .. .. .	3	0	0
5. Income tax .. .. .	4	0	0
6. Illness, doctor, etc. .. .. .	10	0	0
7. Chaukidar .. .. .	1	0	0
8. Maulvi sahib and water for the mosque .. .. .	6	0	0
Total .. .. .	148	0	0
Total annual expenses .. .. .	595	8	0
	148	0	0
	743	8	0
Average monthly expenses .. .. .	61	15	4
The average monthly income is .. .. .	20	13	4

Thus the average debt is Rs. 4-2 per mensem and the average annual debt is Rs. 493-8 annas, i.e., about Rs. 500. Assuming the above figures, we can say emphatically that the poorest of human souls cannot incur lesser expenses. The basis of the Shahukars of Khewra are a living testimony of our debts. We therefore pray that some method be devised to ameliorate our wretched condition, one way being to grant lands to some of the miners elsewhere.

5. The solution to the difficulties mentioned above in para. No. 4 is found out by carefully examining the following:—The salt dealer has to pay Re. 1-9 annas per maund. Out of it Re. 1-4 annas goes to the Government Treasury as salt duty. The remaining 5 annas are charged by way of expenses incurred by the Government for labour spent in the supply of salt.

*Statement A.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Wages of the labourers at the rate of Rs. 3-2 annas per truck weighing 40 maunds .. .. .	0	1	3
2. Expenses per maund for putting in trucks and carrying to the market .. .. .	0	0	3
3. Workshop expenses per truck repairs .. .. .	0	0	6
4. Expenses in the market for sewing bags and loading wagons .. .. .	0	1	0
Total, per maund .. .. .	0	3	0

*Statement B.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Loading per truck .. .. .	0	4	0
2. Pulling of the truck by mules .. .. .	0	2	0
3. Engine expenses per truck .. .. .	0	3	0
4. Unloading, per truck .. .. .	0	1	6
Total .. .. .	0	10	6

*Notes.*—The carrying capacity of a truck is 40 maunds, and in statement B the expenses per truck are mentioned. Therefore the expenses per truck amount to 3 pies. This is shown in Statement A (2). It is clear from the Statements A and B that the Government expenses amount to 3 annas per maund per labour, etc. The question arises as to what use is made of 2 annas thus realized from the salt purchasers. We pray that the said sum of 2 annas above-mentioned be paid to the miners, and the rate per truck be increased to Rs. 8-2 annas from Rs. 3-2 annas per truck load for the miners. In this way the monthly income will come to Rs. 81-4 annas. If this is done the income will be more than the expenses, and we will be relieved of all anxiety and trouble and our labour will be a source of respectable living.

6. We further beg to request that some provision be made for the old and disabled miner. On account of working in a mine a miner becomes useless at an earlier age than usual, and is more often disabled on account of accidents breaking his leg or arm. Like other departments, the salt department should make some arrangement for the labourer in the form of bonus, pension or provident fund.

7. The system in vogue a year back was that the wages were paid according to the measurements of the space. The details are as follows :—1 anna 9 pies per cubic foot up to 10 ft. below the surface of the line of salt trucks, 2 annas per cubic foot from 10 ft. to 20 ft. below, 2 annas 8 pies per cubic foot from 30 ft. to 60 ft., 2 annas 9 pies per cubic foot from 60 ft. downward. The salt dust was included in the measurement. According to the present arrangement no allowance is given for the salt dust. The officers more often than once, on mere examination, declare the trucks to be lesser in weight, and thus fine the miner accordingly without getting the truck actually weighed. This is a great hardship to the miners. If the miners object that the weight is not less and pray to the superior officer for the remission of the fine, they are threatened with expulsion from the mine and the poor miner has then to content himself with his fate like dumb cattle. We therefore pray that the Salt Department be ordered to actually weigh the trucks before any deduction is made.

8. In other parts of the province committees are constituted to look after the various arrangements of the locality. A committee of four members is in existence here as well. The object of establishing this committee is to look after the sanitation, to settle disputes concerned with houses and sites. But the members of the committee are either Lumberdars or contractors who are afraid of the officers without any reasonable ground. They cannot consequently properly perform their duties. The grievances of the residents cannot reach the officers' ears because a committee exists in name only. It is therefore prayed that the members of the committee be elected and not selected.

9. The following are the general miscellaneous grievances which require redress :—

(a) The Government Salt Digging is carried on by contractors at fixed rates. The contractor Lumberdar allots different works to the miners under his control and for any damage such miners are not paid any wages although they have worked. On the other hand they are penalized to surrender their books.

(b) There is scarcity of water for the miners, the pipes being available to the public for half an hour only. The water is stored in water tanks at a distance of half a mile from the village. The water is to be brought through difficult hilly paths in hot weather from such a long distance and considerable difficulty is felt. This hot boiling water in summer is available to the few miners who have the chance to reach it first. The others are at the mercy of the clerks, who may allow them water from the pipes in their houses after great entreaties. On the other hand, the pipes in the houses of clerks are running for 24 hours. Will the honourable members do something to alleviate our trouble.

(c) A pie per rupee is deducted from our income on account of charges for repairs from the Government workshops. These workshops are opened during fixed hours when we are working in the mine. On Sundays these are closed, so we have no time to have our instruments repaired. Either the Government shops be closed or be opened at proper intervals.

(d) The Government had assigned different plots of land to several miners for maintenance. The miners prepared these lands after great labour. These lands are now being taken away from lessees for petty faults and handed over to others. We pray that either the original occupiers should not be ejected from such lands, and if they are ejected reasonable compensation should be awarded to those ejected.

(e) A pie per rupee is deducted from our income for giving pensions to old disabled and injured persons. Similarly Income Tax is being deducted but our incomes were never assessable. A penal post is being ordered at Khewra and we shall have to bear the cost. We may be saved from the extra expenses.

(f) Outsiders are employed as labourers in the electric machines and workshops. Will it not be fair that this labour should also be performed by miners so that those who cannot get sufficient work in the mines should be able to earn their livelihood in these places.

(g) According to the order of the General Manager no miner is allowed to work for more than eight hours in the mine. The machines work throughout the day till 4 p.m. The order, moreover, is that unless the chamber is clean machines won't begin to work. The miner is in a very difficult and odd position. If he does not

clean the place for the machines to work his whole day is lost; if he works after the usual allotted hours he is punished for the breach of order. Some solution may be found out for this.

(b) All the miners have equal rights in the mine without distinction. Every Lumbardar or Gangman is allotted a certain number of trucks to be supplied per month. The Lumbardar or Gangman does not divide equally the trucks allotted to him to the different miners under him. He supplies as many trucks himself as he can and in several cases supplies all the trucks allotted to him. The miners working under him are thus left without any work to do and have to starve. The system involved previously was that the Salt Officers used to divide the salt chambers themselves amongst the miners. It is requested that the same system should be introduced now so that the Lumberdars or Gangmen may not have undue advantage over the other miners.

(c) In cases of conviction, a miner after undergoing sentence of imprisonment is not allowed to work in the mine. Even in cases of Challan cases after discharge or acquittal he is considered a condemned man and a criminal although there is a judicial pronouncement in his favour. It means thus in some cases forfeiture of his property (right to work in the mine and ejection from his house). In cases of all other subjects of His Majesty no person incurs forfeiture of his property unless there is a specific order by some judicial authority. It is therefore prayed that this practice should be put an end to at an early date.

10. We have briefly laid before you a few out of many grievances with a strong belief that you will kindly spare some of your valuable time in devising some means for the amelioration of our condition. We are convinced that you have by this time fully grasped the situation and have examined the conditions under which we are working and the miserable plight we are living in. It may not be futile to say that our living is very wretched, our incomes too poor to maintain our families, and our status much lower than our agricultural brotherhood in the same locality. As compared to other countries the conditions of labour in this country are bad and we can boldly say that our lot is the worst. We are the faithful and loyal subjects of His Majesty and we have been rendering all possible assistance in times of need. As misfortune would have it, our rights have never found favour with the officers concerned, and we have always been looked down upon as mean labourers of no respect. Your visit as President of the Labour Commission to this unfortunate village of ours is a God-sent gift and we pray and hope that you will consider our grievances with kind favour.

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### LABOURERS OF KHEWRA SALT MINES.

We, the labourers of Khewra Salt Mines, Engineering Section, most respectfully beg to lay the following grievances before you for your kind consideration:—

1. That since the mines were started men used to work on all days of the year except public holidays. On the recent introduction of the Indian Mines Act, we work only 20 or 22 days or so in the month, all Sundays and local and gazetted holidays being observed. Also, we are given leave for two months the mine is closed during the rainy season. In short, we work only seven months in a year. It is a well-known fact that the cost of living is getting higher and higher every day. This reduction in our income is telling very badly on our condition and most of us are getting into debt.

2. That like other departments, e.g., railways, we are made to work under all the usual limitations. But we are not granted any privilege like them. They work eight hours a day while we work 9 hours a day except those employed underground. They are allowed 15 days' leave on full pay in a year and receive their full pay on all gazetted holidays. At the time of cessation of their services they are given gratuity. The right to such privileges commences after one year's service. We have amongst us people who have been working for more than 8 to 10 years and who receive no consideration of the sort whatsoever.

3. In the railway department all employees are given due increments at the end of every year without the asking. We get increments at a very meagre rate at the end of four years, and that, too, is not granted to all of the men.

4. That we should be put on monthly wages instead of daily. Or our rate of pay be increased and we should be paid on all holidays. This is possibly the only way to better our condition.

5. That our previous difficulties have been multiplied by the Hasiyat Tax being levied by the District Board. We are already poor, ill-paid men, living from hand to mouth. We cannot pay this tax. If this tax is made compulsory, we will be actually starving.

6. That we are very badly in need of proper and enough accommodation at Khewra. The number of quarters is much too small for our number and we have to live several men in a small room. That one room serves the purpose of our kitchen, bathroom, store-room and sleeping-room. This condition is the most insanitary imaginable. We need quarters to accommodate all men with special regard to health, sanitation and reasonable comfort. It will not be out of place to state that many men are obliged to live in their villages and to walk to and from work three or four miles every day under all conditions of weather.

7. That we have only one vernacular primary school and there is no provision even for ordinary education. After our children have passed 4th primary it is impossible for them to learn more because (1) we have no means to send them away to read in a town; (2) in the latter case they lose their character, being out of our supervision. This tells horribly on our future generation. Our children are denied the benefit of education. We require at least one high school here.

Lastly, we beseech your kind honour to look into our troubles sympathetically and help to redress them as far as is in your power.

Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES, PUNJAB.

*Labour in Factories in the Punjab.*

According to the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in the Punjab is 51,613, of which 43,296 are men, 7,534 women and 783 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 13,629 are employed in the railway workshops, 4,743 in the Government factories such as military workshops, arsenals, etc., and 33,241 in all other factories.

Of the total number, 21,763 are employed on seasonal work, of which 21,335 are in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 428 in ice factories. Women are mostly employed in cotton ginning factories as unskilled workers, numbering 7,123 out of a total of 7,534 employed in all factories.

• Of the total number of children, 93 are employed in the textile mills, 246 in cotton ginning factories and 444 in other factories such as sports works, printing presses, match factories, cement factories and oil refineries.

Workers in factories other than those employed in the railway workshops, textile mills and few other engineering works belong mostly to the agricultural class, and they seek employment in factories only with a view to fill in their time between the harvest. The majority of skilled workers in railway and engineering works are imported from other provinces and having no interest in the land are keen to improve their knowledge of factory conditions and work up to high positions. Bombay and the United Provinces supply certain number of factory managers, engineers and head mistria, many of whom are Parsees. A fair number of engineers and boilermen are Sikhs.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. (1) When new factories are opened most of the skilled labour required is imported chiefly from places where similar concerns are already in progress. Unskilled labour is readily obtainable from villages surrounding the industry: they being land workers are attracted by a slightly higher wage. Further, when their land requires attention they leave the factory for their homes. Unskilled labour is generally plentiful in the Punjab and seldom does an occasion arise when higher wages have to be paid owing to the scarcity of workers when they return to their land during the harvest time.

In bigger concerns such as the Dhariwal Mills (employing 886 operatives) skilled labour was imported in the first instance from Bombay and United Provinces, and it is still drawn from those provinces as vacancies occur. Those living in villages near the mills have to some extent taken up employment in the mills in preference to land work. This was evident during the labour trouble of 1927, when the mill authorities were able to recruit a sufficient number of semi-skilled workers from the neighbouring villages and managed to keep the mills running.



A recently opened paper mills at Jagadhri—an entirely new industry in the Punjab—drew up to 60 per cent. of its skilled workers from the United Provinces, where paper mills had already been in progress several years. In seasonal factories, of which cotton ginning and pressing form the major portion, four-fifths of the labour is local. The period of work in these factories extends from October to April, a time which fits in fairly well with the requirements of attending to the land, and such workers are able to carry on by existing on the land during the months April to October, when the next cotton ginning season would start.

(iii) The only change noticeable during recent years is the gradual inclination on the part of the labour to take up factory work: this is probably due to the rise in wages paid by the employers: the change is, however, very slow.

3. (i) Recruitment to all centres is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who remains in touch with contractors in other industrial centres, and can usually meet the supply. Much recruitment is also made by personal acquaintances—most of the permanent workers such as engineers, mechanics and other skilled workers appear to have friends or relations looking for an improvement on their own job—and references relating to ability and certificates not being of great value, changes of service frequently occur.

Unskilled and casual labour is recruited through the labour contractor, and mostly paid by him at the end of the day. There is no guarantee given by the contractor that work will be forthcoming the following day, as it all depends on the amount of work that will be available.

(ii) I do not know of any improvement which could be effected with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour: the existing method is simple and effective. Labour being illiterate would look with suspicion upon any change that is contemplated in the present system.

8. (i) The average duration of employment is difficult to determine. I know of cases where men have worked for 30 years, but such cases are very rare—the average being nearer 20 years.

(ii) Casual employment in factories extends from 4 to 7 months during the year, depending upon the duration of the cotton ginning season: the remaining portion of the year or some part of it is spent in working on the land.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

12. Subordinate supervising staff is to some extent supplied from the various industrial and technical institutions in the province. It is also imported from United Provinces and Bombay. There is a marked difference between the unskilled and skilled workers, the former seldom if ever attaining position of skilled workers or supervisors.

13. (i) In well established factories, particularly those run by responsible companies, the relations between the employer and employed are good and compare favourably with other countries from what I have seen. In smaller factories difficulties occasionally arise amongst the proprietors, managers, and workers chiefly on account of non-payment of wages and alleged ill-treatment, as a result of which numerous applications are received at my office from the workers who complain of being dismissed without having been paid their dues.

(iii) Works Committees have not yet been established in this province.

15. (i) Recruitment to all centres is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who is in touch with the contractors in other industrial centres and can usually meet the demand.

(ii) It is difficult to say to what extent sub-contracting is carried on, but since the labour contractor usually lives near the factory area, and seldom undertakes to contract for more than two or three factories, it is unlikely that he would resort to sub-contracting.

(iii) The contractor has little or nothing to do with the working conditions of the labour he supplies: his duty finishes when he has supplied labour up to the extent required by the factory manager.

(iv) The employment of labour through the agency of the labour contractor has on occasions resulted in the abuse of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to hours of work and employment of children. I have had cases when a labour contractor having supplied under-aged workers to a factory, has been held responsible by the factory owner, who, when prosecuted by this department, has tried to push the responsibility for illegal employment on to a contractor.

## IV.—Health.

26. Latrines are provided for work people in factories according to rules laid down in the Punjab Factory Rules, except in such circumstances where the factories are open to the country on three sides. Although latrines are provided it is only in big mills and towns where they are made use of. When factory owners are taken to task for not keeping the factory latrines up to the standard laid down by the Factory Law, they frequently say "what is the good when the workmen do not use them."

(ii) The supply of drinking water is generally satisfactory in factories. In towns, where there are municipal waterworks, factories receive their water supply from municipal taps, which have proved quite sufficient to meet the demands of the operatives. In rural areas most of the factories have their own wells, and a man is employed permanently for supplying drinking water to the operatives.

(iii) No special arrangements have been made in factories to meet the needs of the operatives in this behalf. However, the factory managers do not object if the operatives make use of the tank or the well of the factory for their bathing and washing purposes.

28. (i) *Control of temperatures in factories.*—Exhaust and overhead fans are fitted in work rooms of well-organized factories, and workers themselves frequently fit up fans working from a pulley of the power shaft. Stoves are provided in Government factories during the winter months, but factories are usually kept warm enough by the power plant. Apart from this little attempt is made to control the temperature of factory rooms.

(ii) *Control of humidification in cotton mills.*—Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity came into force only last year. There are only three cotton spinning and weaving mills in the Punjab in which artificial humidity is being used at present affecting about 750 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage, and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29. (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has come to light in registered factories in this province. Woollen mills and presses report that no case of anthrax has ever come to their notice. Regarding lead poisoning, three printing presses only do their own lead melting, and these have up-to-date stoves fitted with exhausts to carry away fumes. Compositors in printing presses like the *Civil and Military Gazette*, Lahore, have been doing the same work for many years without showing any signs of ill effects.

## VII.—Safety.

43. Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of workers. Apart from this every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the Factory Law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention. When these regulations are persistently violated, prosecutions are instituted against the offenders. During 1928, 32 cases were made against factory occupiers and managers for failing to protect their workers from the dangers of machinery.

44. A reference to annual reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act in the Punjab will show that accidents have increased considerably during the last 10 or 12 years. The increase is out of proportion to the increased number of operatives.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes:—

(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners due to some extent to the strict administration of Factory Law.

(b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the Factory Inspector's office.

(c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting accidents they might get compensation.

(d) Another reason is that since the war up-to-date machinery of entirely new patterns has been introduced into the country whilst the workmen have not had the proper training to keep pace with the new type of machinery. It is noticeable that accidents increase with the introduction of new type of machines.

(e) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers still take frightful and unnecessary risks. Reference to the causes of fatal and serious accidents shows that carelessness on the part of the worker is responsible to a great extent for accidents. Such instances as "a boiler attendant fell over the safety valve arm of a boiler when walking over the top of it, instead of going round, causing steam to escape which burnt him to death." "An engineer went to turn off an electric switch situated on the other side of the engine, to save walking round the engine, a distance of 20 yards in climbing over the rails guarding a main rope drive caught his foot in the rope and was instantaneously killed."

(f) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

(g) Investigations into the causes of serious and fatal accidents to workers on dangerous duties such as maintaining of pulleys in order, oiling of bearings, etc., show that underpaid and unskilled workers are put on jobs of which they have no experience. There is no definitely laid down standard of a "skilled worker" and it is, therefore, impossible to bring home to the employer his responsibility in this respect. I have heard it argued by some employers that since they insure their labour against accidents under the Workmen's Compensation Act, there is no object in employing expensive and skilled workers on dangerous jobs, as in the event of accidents the insurance company will pay. A definitely laid down standard of efficiency amongst skilled workers along with it, if possible, a wages standard would be extremely useful. Trade Unions could possibly assist in this respect.

46. The railway workshops are the only factories to take up safety first measures seriously. Posters showing dangers and calling upon workers to be careful for their own sake are exhibited in conspicuous places. Other factories have not shown an inclination to take up the matter seriously.

Existing factory rules made under the Indian Factories Act cover safety first measures, such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly-fitting clothes, to prohibit children from entering into certain parts of factories, etc., but no serious attempt has yet been made in the shape of a safety first campaign amongst factory workers.

48. First-aid boxes are provided and kept in readiness in all factories where 500 or more operatives are employed.

One mill only has its whole-time doctor always in attendance: he attends the workers and their families free of charge. A few of the bigger factories have a working arrangement with the local doctor, who visits their factories once or twice a week according to the terms of contract, but on the whole workers and their families seek relief from Government dispensaries.

49. (i) During the year 1928, 667 inspections were made, resulting in 130 prosecutions to enforce factory regulations.

The bigger and well-organised mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules and make an effort to do so.

(ii) The seasonal factories particularly work against regulations and have little regard for factory legislation. The nature of the staple industry of the province (cotton ginning and pressing) makes it necessary to work hard whilst the season is on, also weather conditions have a considerable effect. As a result when the raw cotton comes into the factory, it is dealt with right away and regular working hours are to a great extent ignored.

As 90 per cent. of the labour in the seasonal factories is unskilled and contracted for daily, the employer has little regard for its comfort, and long hours are indulged in. As this goes on for four to six months during the year, the workers suffer hardships, as although they work longer hours, their daily wages remain the same. Prosecutions are launched against offending factory managers for this overworking. Thirty-eight cases were instituted in 1928, but the inspector's difficulties are many in bringing the offenders to book. It is well known that a reward is paid to anyone in the factory centre or villages, giving information about the inspector's arrival; chowkidars are also kept on the railway stations by factory owners with a view to obtaining timely information about the inspector's visit. False registers are maintained and no factory worker would dare give evidence against his employer.

One of the chief difficulties in enforcing factory regulations is that adequate punishments cannot be obtained in courts for offences under the Act. It, therefore, becomes a sound business proposition for a factory occupier to work his employees overtime and risk being detected by the inspector: if he is taken to court, the fine will be anything from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50, and that amount is made up by one hour's illegal work and it is fairly safe to presume that the inspector cannot turn up more

than once a month. The method of adjudging cases under the Indian Factories Act is to my mind unsatisfactory. I doubt if the prosecuting agency or the Court realize the serious nature of infringements of rules and very often when the hearing comes on, the Factory Inspection Department is not informed of the date of hearing. The accused pleads guilty, pays his small fine into court and returns to his factory to carry on as before. There is nothing in the Act, which provides for an enhanced sentence for the repetition of an offence: hence no mention of the offence having been committed before, is legally permissible in the complaint. I give below one instance in which the accused was made to pay a small fine in spite of the fact that he was prosecuted by me for the fifth time:—

(1) After having issued several warnings to the occupier of Khalsa Cotton Factory, Jaranwala, I prosecuted him for the first time in 1925 for—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley, and (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday.

In each of these cases the occupier was fined Rs. 45.

(2) For the second time I prosecuted the occupier of the said factory in 1926 for—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley; (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday; (c) for illegal employment of children; and (d) for working his factory without sending a notice of occupation.

In the first two cases he was fined Rs. 15 each and in the remaining two, Rs. 10 each.

(3) For the third time I prosecuted the occupier of the said factory in 1927 for:—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley; (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday; (c) illegal employment of children (3 cases); (d) for working his factory without sending a notice of occupation; (e) for not maintaining inspection book, and (f) for not submitting the monthly holiday returns.

In all these cases the accused was fined Rs. 1,250, but on an appeal preferred by him, the District and Sessions Judge reduced the amount of fine to Rs. 400.

(4) For the fourth time I prosecuted the same occupier in 1928 for—(a) allowing persons to work on transmission machinery whilst wearing loose clothes; and (b) illegal employment of children.

In one case he was fined Rs. 20 and in the other Rs. 10.

(5) For the fifth time I prosecuted the same occupier in 1929 for—(a) overworking labour; and (b) illegal employment of children—2 cases.

In each of these cases he was fined Rs. 25.

From the above it is evident that the courts take no notice of the repetition of offences under the Act and inflict only small fines. Further, when the inspector is required to appear in court as a witness, the cases which are written down to be tried summarily are sometimes delayed—the accused is either not served, or his witnesses are not available, or the Public Prosecutor is busy in another court, or the Magistrate is busy with other cases.

It is not unusual for an inspector to appear in a court, possibly 100 miles away from the headquarters, four or five times in each case, every hearing taking up a whole day, and the result is that the accused is finally let off with a warning, or fined Rs. 10 or 20. If a provision is made in the Act so that enhanced punishment could be awarded in case of a repetition of an offence, and that all factory cases to be tried summarily (by summary procedure) and if it were possible to have a Public Prosecutor attached to this department, such difficulties will be greatly minimized.

50. There are no statistics to show exactly how far reasonable working hours do keep down accidents, but undoubtedly fatigue is responsible for many accidents, and the more conditions of work are improved generally, the less will be the number of accidents.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act*.—This department is only concerned in collecting returns under the Act relating to factories and mines. As, however, factory workers know that the factory inspector has something to do with accidents, many reports are made to this office, the workmen sometimes appearing in person, seeking for help in obtaining the compensation due. Every year 30 to 40 injured persons or their dependants call at this office for help in this respect. Advice is always given as to the procedure which should be followed by them, and where necessary help is given to them in filling in the claim forms merely upon compassionate grounds.

If some scheme could be devised whereby claims be in simpler form and payments could be made more promptly, the claimants would be benefited. One case came

to my notice of a claimant at Sheikhpura being paid his claim in the shape of a cheque on a Calcutta bank by the insurance company, but as he could neither read nor write, the cheque was quite useless, and it took him more than six months to realize the amount.

### IX.—Hours.

#### A.—Factories.

55. Factory legislation permits working 11 hours a day, but not exceeding 60 hours a week. In perennial factories other than railway workshops, this is taken full advantage of. In flour and oil mills, where continuous production is necessary, the method is to employ one shift of workers by day and one by night; arrangements being made for each worker to be off duty two hours during his period of 12 hours of duty. During the day, the worker usually takes advantage of his rest period to go out of the mill, but during the night he prefers to stay in the mill for rest.

The operatives of many factories prefer to take half-an-hour's rest at mid-day instead of one hour; this is permitted where the total daily working hours do not exceed 8½. Railway workshops have a fixed week of 48 hours, after which overtime pay is given up to 60 hours per week.

Seasonal factories apparently accept the 60 hours' week, showing a 10-hour day for six days a week; timings are usually shown from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with two hours' rest. These hours of work are not strictly adhered to, especially in the case of cotton ginning factories, which are notorious in overworking their labour beyond the prescribed hours.

The method adopted by the unscrupulous factory owners who deliberately overwork their labour longer hours than is permitted under the Act is as follows:—

A factory's working hours are registered as from 6 a.m. to 12 a.m. and from 2 p.m. to 6 p.m., with rest interval from 12 a.m. to 2 p.m. Their hours are recorded on the factory notice board and a copy of it is sent to the factory-inspector. If the factory manager wants to start earlier he puts up a piece of paper on the notice board showing that the factory will start that day at 5 a.m. or 5.30 a.m. Should an inspector visit the factory at that time, working hours are in order, since the notice board is correct, and provided the manager sends a notice to the inspector within 36 hours of the change of working hours as required by Section 36 (3) of the Act, there is no offence. The daily attendance register is seldom written up for the first hour or more, so that by 7 a.m., if an inspector has not called at the factory, the manager can safely change the piece of paper already posted up on the notice board, substituting it for one reading "Factory works to-day from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.": if an inspector visits the factory after 6 p.m., all that the manager has got to do is to send off a postcard within 36 hours of the change to the factory inspector and he is in order. The same tactics are adopted to dispense with the rest interval. A rest interval timed from 12 noon to 2 p.m. is evaded by a notice posted up reading: "Owing to engine breakdown between 10 a.m. and 12 noon, rest interval is changed from 12 a.m. to 2 p.m. to 10 to 12 a.m." If an inspector does not visit the factory until after 2 p.m. that day, the notice is taken down and workers are given about 10 minutes to take their meals once or twice during the day only.

From the above it is evident that it is not difficult for unscrupulous factory occupiers to work their labour 12 or 14 hours a day with little risk of being brought to book. I am of the opinion that sub-section (3) of Section 36 of the Indian Factories Act is defective and leaves a loophole which is taken advantage of by factory occupiers. If this sub-section were to require a factory occupier to give notice of the change of working hours before the change actually takes place, the abuse quoted above could be more effectively dealt with.

The abuse noted above is to a very great extent encouraged by the awarding of light punishments, such as a fine of Rs. 5, 10, or 20 in each case by the trying magistrates, some of whom up to this time have not realized the gravity of the offence of overworking labour.

56. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday or a substituted day, is observed as a complete holiday.

57. (i) So far as workers are concerned, they have welcomed the 60-hour week, since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

(ii) The introduction of the 60-hour week was at first resented by the factory owners and opposed strenuously, but, however, it has since been accepted and the factories that their output has not suffered to any great extent by the reduction in working hours.

58. The effect of the daily limit has proved wholesome, as it has shortened the hours of work of the operatives without materially affecting the output.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable, especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers in this province. Few factories have yet adopted the clocking in and out system, as a result a considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to and from the actual job; it is improbable that in a 10-hour day the average worker is on his job more than 8½ hours.

60. (i) (a) The break after putting in six hours' work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue. (b) The break after six hours' work is utilized chiefly as a rest. The workers do not generally take their meals at this time, their meal hour being earlier in the morning from 9 to 10 and again after their work in the evening.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

(iii) Hours of work at present in force are suitable during the hot months. Hours are frequently changed so that a long break is given during the heat of the day. Hours occasionally have to be curtailed during the extreme cold days as it is too cold to start work early in the morning.

(iv) Ample holidays are given or taken by workers apart from the weekly holidays, there are many public holidays which are mostly given to workers, either extra holidays or substituted for the weekly holidays.

61. (i) The day of rest is usually Sunday, except in the case of Muhammadan factories, which observe Friday as their day of rest. It is, however, possible to change the weekly rest day at any time by giving previous notice to the inspector, and this is done whenever the necessity arises. Public holidays are often substituted for Sundays.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

62. When the amended Factory Act came into force in 1922, it was necessary to grant exemption from regulations regarding working hours fairly freely, and up to this time exemptions are still granted occasionally; the tendency during the past years has been to grant exemptions sparingly and no serious objection has been raised to tightening up of working hours' conditions. When exemption to work more than 60 hours is granted, the overtime rule of payment of one and a quarter times the normal pay comes into force, and this has had the effect of reducing applications for exemption.

#### C.—Railways.

73. Railway workshops have a uniform 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week, after which overtime is paid.

74. Railway workshops work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

76. Rest interval and weekly holidays are observed like other factories.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

78. *Hours Worked per Week and per Day.*—In establishments other than registered factories, carpet manufacturing factories are the only concerns about which I have experience. At present, carpet factories in this province are not on the factory register, because they do not employ any motive power, and the attempt to apply to them some of the working hours' legislation has met with strenuous opposition.

80. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and most of them being boys of very tender age (between 9 and 15) I think control is very sadly needed in this behalf.

### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

#### A.—Factories.

81. The curtailing of the hours of work and prohibiting women and children from certain employment has had a good effect; it is argued in some cases that restriction placed on the employment of women and children have tended to place them at a disadvantage in the labour market. There is no doubt that the wages earned by women are low but the restrictions placed by the amended Act are in my opinion justified.

82. The admission of infants into factories is discouraged as far as practicable; it is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers. In 1924 and 1926 I issued an order prohibiting infants from entering into cotton ginning rooms whilst ginning was in progress.

as the atmosphere was laden with dust. There were many protests against this order, and after two years I found the order could not be enforced without hardship to parents, who must lose their employment in factories if infants were not allowed in and the order had to be revoked.

83. The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men, except that the former cannot be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m.

84. The present law with regard to the employment of children is also suitable. Their hours of employment are the same as for women, except that their hours of work are not to exceed six hours a day.

85. I have seldom noticed the employment of children in two factories on the same day, but it is not improbable that many of them work at other occupations during the part of the day they are not employed in factories.

89. (i) Local government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as most of these factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 19 and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours.

(ii) The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regularize the hours of employment of women and children; it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present.

## XII. Wages.

96. (i) Wages have shown a steady rise during the past ten years, due to the increased cost of living. A statement showing average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour for the past eight years is given in the local government's memorandum.

106. (i) Fines are inflicted on workers in many factories for offences such as spoiling of material and loss of time, but to what extent is not known.

(iii) In one or two well run mills it is known that fines are utilized towards the employees' provident fund, otherwise fines ordinarily go to the factory management.

(iv) Legislation to cope with this would be difficult, as the average worker would be unable to prove his case, the deduction would be made on pay day and probably the worker fined would be required to sign for full pay.

107. (ii) The periods elapsing before payment of wages varies from 10 to 20 days in the case of monthly paid workers and up to 15 days for piece workers. Daily casual workers get their dues at the end of the day's work.

(iii) The legislation to assure prompt payment of wages would certainly be a great boon to workers who by reason of their having to wait for several weeks before they receive their pay are usually in the hands of their food suppliers and are at a great disadvantage.

It is suggested that legislation be made making it an offence to keep a worker waiting more than 5 days for his previous month's wages.

(iv) Unclaimed wages generally lapse to the employers except in the case of bigger mills which pass them on to the relatives of the workers, if any.

108. (ii) The extent of indebtedness is difficult to define; there are instances where an employer has taken over the debts of a good worker in order to secure his services: this is not unusual in the case of skilled mechanics. The workers are often indebted to their food supplier, to give an instance I would quote the case of workers employed in the Bankteshwar Cotton Mills, Bhiwani, which was closed down in April, 1928, and the workers were dismissed. A petition was put forward for immediate payment of wages, as until the workers had made some settlement with the "bania" to whom they owed money for food, they were not allowed to leave for their homes.

110. (i) Leave is seldom taken at regular intervals other than festivals except by supervising staff. Departmental managers in well organized factories usually get one month's leave per year during the slack season. Labourers mostly take leave when they require it and that for a few days at a time, and since they are not seriously concerned whether they get back to their previous job or not, it is only a question of taking leave when an

employer owes the least amount of pay for work done. In seasonal factories, both supervising staff and labourers work when the season is on; hence the question of leave does not arise.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. The difference in law administered in British India and the Indian States has considerable effect on the administration of Factory Law, particularly near the borders where the two territories join. Factory owners in British India who purchase their raw material from the same markets as those of Indian States, are generally found complaining to the effect that it is unfair to apply working hours limit and other restrictions to them alone, while their neighbouring factories situated in Indian States at a distance of not more than four or five miles have got no such restrictions placed upon them; under the circumstances it becomes very difficult for them to compete with their neighbouring factories. It would not be out of place to mention here that several cotton ginning factories have in recent years removed their plants to the States territory for this very reason.

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the Rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to get to know what the posters really mean. The worker in a town factory has a slightly better knowledge of the Factory Law and by virtue of his being a little literate takes more interest in rules which govern his working conditions. We occasionally receive complaints from such workers that the factory in which they are employed is working illegally, a fact which shows that the worker is not altogether ignorant of Factory Law.

139. (i) With regard to the adequacy or otherwise of the inspection staff it is yet too early to say, until I have gained an experience for some time, of the actual working of the new scheme which comes into force on 1st April next. But as the subjects to be dealt with by the factory inspector are continuously increasing, I doubt if the proposed staff would be sufficient to cope with this ever increasing work.

At present, Government are considering to make rules whereby prospective factory builders must get plans of their factories approved before the buildings are erected. This, if brought into force, will place additional work on the inspector who will then have to undertake the examination of passing of plans for all new buildings and alterations in the existing buildings.

(ii) As far as possible, administration of Factory Law is uniform in all the provinces in India. The inspectors keep in touch with each other and frequently exchange views on subjects connected with the administration of the Factory Law.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of Factory Law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results: but in the latter case the difficulty is that adequate punishments are not awarded and unless the prosecutions are followed by adequate punishments it is difficult to achieve the objects of Factory Law. A clause providing for enhanced punishment in the case of a repetition of offence of a similar nature is most necessary and I would suggest that punishment for offences such as employing under-aged children and overworking women and children should be more severe than at present.

(iv) During the year 1928, 130 cases under the Indian Factories Act were instituted against the occupiers and managers of 41 factories. Of the total number of cases, 108 resulted in conviction, in 8 cases the accused were acquitted, 11 cases were withdrawn whilst 3 cases were pending trial at the end of the year 1928.

#### XVII.—Intelligence.

143. *Existing Statistics.*—(iii) *Degree of accuracy.*—The returns are fairly accurate with regard to numbers of operatives and hours of work, but statistics showing average wages earned are somewhat misleading. Wages differ in various parts of the province, also during certain periods of the year and amongst different types of workers.

#### *Note on Carpet Factories in Amritsar.*

The chief carpet making factories in Amritsar are as under:—

- (1) Devi Sahai Chamba Mal, inside Hall Gate;
- (2) Sh. Ghulam Hussain & Sons;
- (3) Ishar Das & Sons, Oriental Rug Manufacturers, Katra Ram Gharian,
- (4) Ishar Das & Sons, Oriental Rug Manufacturers, Sultanwind Gate.



Nos. (1) and (2) are amongst the biggest, employing from 80 to 120 boys. In addition to the above, there is one factory under the Indian Factories Act—namely the Oriental Carpet Manufacturing Co.—in this factory the carpets are washed, cleaned and packed; woollen blankets are also manufactured here. No carpets are actually made in this factory.

Carpet making factories are situated in long sheds open at one side for light: the sheds are in long lines, looms being so arranged that light can be obtained on every loom.

Usually four to eight boys are engaged on a loom according to the size of the carpet to be made, one weaving master calls the counts and the work proceeds under his instructions.

Hours of work are not regular, only during good natural light can work be done. Holidays are taken according to local festivals and pressure of work.

The weaving master is responsible for the child worker, engages him and pays him—the contract for the carpet being between the factory owner, who supplies wool, loom and accommodation, and the contractor, who provides the labour.

Boys probably between the ages of 7 to 15 are employed, no girls work in the factories.

Food is brought into the factory premises by some person especially told off for that purpose, and the workers break off for food at a convenient time.

All work is piece-work, and the weaving master arranges both time of work and payment for it.

An investigation into the conditions of work in carpet factories was made under Government instructions on 18th January, 1924, and since then references have been made by Government of India to the local government on the subject of legislation to control the work in these factories.

## Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES, NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

### *Labour in Factories in the North-West Frontier Province.*

According to the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in the North-West Frontier Province is 854, of which 834 are men and 20 women. Child labour in factories is conspicuous by its absence.

Of the total number 673 are employed in the Crown factories such as ordnance factories, electric generating stations, printing presses, water pumping stations, etc., 95 in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 86 in all other factories.

Of the total number 163 are employed on seasonal work such as cotton ginning, pressing and ice factories.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. The majority of workers in factories in the North-West Frontier Province are under military control, and are subject to military discipline.

The method adopted for the recruitment of labour by factories owned by private enterprise is frequently that of taking a man for a week or a month, during which period wages are not always paid. A worker in search of employment hears through his friends or relations or goes from factory to factory making enquiries—this applies chiefly to permanent and superior staff.

Unskilled and casual labour is readily obtainable from the surrounding villages.

### II.—Staff Organization.

11. Managing staff in the case of privately-owned factories consists mostly of the proprietors themselves or their sons or near relations, as the factories are not big enough to warrant the employment of well-paid and experienced managers.

13. In the Government factories the relations between the employer and the employed are cordial. In smaller privately-owned concerns difficulties occasionally occur on account of non-payment of wages.

**III.—Housing.**

16. (i) In the privately-owned factories the permanent staff is provided with quarters during the season the factory works.

(ii) Quarters are provided for the majority of operatives in the Crown factories.

**IV.—Health.**

23. Health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good. No case of an epidemic is reported to have occurred in any factory, nor is any case of an occupational disease brought to light.

24. (i) Medical facilities are not provided in the case of the privately-owned factories—workers and their families in these factories depend upon Government dispensaries, which treat them free of charge.

(ii) Government hospitals treat patients from factories free of charge.

25. (i) Medical facilities, where provided, are readily taken advantage of by the workers and their families.

26. (a) (i) Latrines are provided for workers in factories according to rules laid down in the North-West Frontier Province Factory Rules, except in such circumstances where the factories are open to the country on three sides.

(ii) There is an adequate provision for drinking water in factories. The water supplied to the workers is good and pure.

**VII.—Safety.**

43. Regulations with regard to workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act, and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety of the workers is posted up at the main entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of the workers. Apart from this every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the factory law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention.

44. Very few accidents are reported, and it is probable that few really occur.

Privately-owned factories are mostly seasonal, working not more than two to three months during the year, and no privately-owned factory is fitted with high speed or complicated machinery.

The machinery in the case of Government factories is extremely well guarded, and the workers in these factories are highly skilled; as a result few accidents occur.

46. Existing factory rules made under the Indian Factories Act cover safety first measures, such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly fitting clothes, prohibiting children from entering into certain dangerous parts of factories, etc., but no serious attempt has yet been made in the shape of a safety first campaign, namely, "exhibiting posters and calling upon workers to be careful."

49. (i) All factories are inspected once or twice annually, and factory regulations are enforced.

The necessity to overwork does not exist, and no difficulty is experienced in getting the rules observed.

Factory rules are regularly complied with in Government factories. Whenever an inspector suggests any alterations either in the working conditions of the factory or in the matter of the fixing of the safety devices, his orders are promptly complied with.

**IX.—Hours.****A.—Factories.**

55. Factory law permits 11 hours a day but not exceeding 60 hours a week, which is readily taken full advantage of by the privately-owned factories during the busy season. At other times these factories work for 10 hours a day from 2 to 3 days a week.

Government factories usually work not more than 48 hours a week at the uniform rate of 8 hours a day.

61. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

**XII.—Wages.**

96. (i) *In industry.*—Wages of workers in factories for the past four years are given below. The average is much higher in the case of skilled workers in the province than in the Punjab owing to the majority of them being highly skilled, and frequently imported by the army authorities for special work :—

Classification of labour.	Average per Month.			
	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
<b>1. Skilled labour—</b>				
Engine driver ..	62 0 0	65 0 0	65 0 0	65 0 0
Fitter .. ..	82 0 0	80 0 0	80 0 0	80 0 0
Fireman .. ..	33 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0
Oilman .. ..	25 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0
Blacksmith ..	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0
Carpenter .. ..	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0
Mochi .. ..	45 0 0	46 0 0	46 0 0	46 0 0
Turner .. ..	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0
Moulder .. ..	120 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0
<b>2. Unskilled labour—</b>				
Coolie (man) ..	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0
Coolie (woman) ..	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0

**XVII.—Administration.**

138. The average workman in the case of privately-owned factories has little knowledge of factory legislation, although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of the workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an attempt to get to know what these posters really mean.

A worker in a Government factory has got a good knowledge of the factory law, and takes much interest in rules which govern his working conditions.

139. (i) In this province which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction the factory inspection staff consists of— (1) Full-time Inspector. The total number of registered factories in this province at present is 24. The present staff is adequate.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of factory law depends upon the frequency of inspections and the issue of instructions.

**XVIII.—Intelligence.**

143. The statistics collected by this department are shown at the back of the annual reports. The reports are distributed and sold, and it is not possible to say to what extent they are made use of.

(ii) Statistics are supplied by the factory occupiers in response to circular letters issued annually by this department. The statistics when received are checked by office records where possible.

(iii) The returns supplied by the factories are fairly accurate.

**THE DIRECTOR OF INDUSTRIES, PUNJAB.**

[A certain amount of the material contained in this memorandum has been incorporated in the Punjab Government's memorandum and is not reprinted here.]

### I.—Recruitment.

1. According to the Census Reports of 1921 the total number of persons employed in 763 industrial establishments in the province was 61,236, which is only about 25 per cent. of the total population of the Punjab (25,101,060). It is further clear from the figures given in this very Census Report that of 24,664 male and 542 female skilled employees the birth place of 17,491 males and 229 females was their district of employment; in the case of unskilled labourers of 21,042 males and 2,780 females, 11,130 males and 1,426 females were born in their district of employment. It will be evident from these figures that the greater proportion of the labour employed in the factories of the Punjab was then drawn from the local sources. It is believed that recent years do not show any marked change in this tendency.

It is very difficult to say as to whether the number of immigrants exceeds that of emigrants. The largest number of labourers attracted by the Punjab are those from the Rajputana Agency, the United Provinces, Kashmir and the North-West Frontier Province. An appreciable portion of the workers employed in factories other than the railway workshops, textile mills and a few other engineering works are drawn from the agricultural class of the province. They seek employment in these factories with a view to supplementing their income during the off-season when the land does not require their services. So far as skilled labour is concerned, we have in the past resorted to importing technical people like engineers, foremen and mistris, etc., from the United Provinces and even from Bombay and Calcutta, although this tendency has received a check on account of certain conditions which have been discussed hereafter. There is also, in fact, a considerable exodus of Punjabi skilled labour to Jamshedpur and other industrial centres in India.

Within the province itself there is a movement of the population to drift towards (a) the canal colonies of Montgomery and Lyallpur and (b) such business centres as Lahore, Amritsar, Ludhiana, Sialkot, etc. Movement towards Lahore and Amritsar can easily be explained by the concentration of the largest number of industrial establishments in these two districts. There is no doubt that a great part of the labour employed in Lahore and Amritsar is of a non-permanent character. It was noted by the district census officer of Amritsar in 1921 that of 5,000 labourers at Amritsar in the busy season not more than 500 were permanent labourers. Most of these labourers are drawn from the agricultural class. They frequently return to their villages at sowing and harvesting time or for ceremonial purposes. The labour employed in our factories cannot be described as an industrial proletariat whose only source of livelihood is work in factories. On account of the development of agriculture in recent years the movement of labour towards the canal areas in Lyallpur, Montgomery and Multan has considerably increased. It may however be noted that most of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories in these areas is seasonal. It should also be stated in this connection that so far as the unskilled labour is concerned it is so plentiful that on no occasion has any difficulty been experienced in obtaining it. With regard to skilled labour mention was made in the first paragraph that there was a gradual decrease in the import of this type of labour from other provinces. This is due to an appreciable extent to the growth of industrial and technical institutions in the Punjab which turn out qualified engineers, surveyors, draughtsmen, mechanics and fitters. It has also been noticed in areas where large scale industries have been firmly established for a number of years that the labour available in the surrounding villages has taken up factory work in preference to work in the field; the former being more remunerative than the latter. In these centres labour on account of the prevalence of industries has become so to say semi-skilled and also skilled in certain spheres of industrial activity. This tendency was observed when a labour strike broke out in the Dhariwal mills in 1927, and the mill authorities were able to keep their mill running by recruiting a sufficient number of semi-skilled labourers from the neighbouring villages.

2. The facts and figures given in the first paragraph clearly indicate that the villages surrounding the centre of an industry are the most important sources of the supply of labour. The tendency on the part of the workers to return to their villages at the end of the seasonal work is very strong. As a matter of fact, so far as unskilled labour is concerned it has been noticed that as soon as they can save sufficient money they generally take a holiday to their villages and return to work again when that money is spent. In the absence of any statistics it is impossible to gauge the extent and frequency of the return of this type of labour to factory work or to the field from the factory. It is, however, an established fact that the unskilled labourer goes away from his work as often as he likes. So far as permanent and skilled labour is concerned they remain from two to four weeks away from factory work in a year.

3. *Methods of recruitment.*—In the absence of highly organized industrial structure in the Punjab the existing methods of recruitment appear to be simple and effective from the employer's point of view ; but in the interest of labour, public employment agencies could usefully be started, with a view to offering suitable opportunities for employment to the unemployed workers.

4. The Punjab is predominantly a rural province, and the extent to which family life is disturbed by the employment of workers in industrial establishments in the province as a whole is very small. Figures have already been given in one of the preceding paragraphs to show that the majority of the labour generally finds employment in the district to which it belongs. It has also been noticed in one of the foregoing paragraphs that the labour thus employed in these factories returns to the land or to the home as frequently as occasion arises. In view of these facts it would appear that the family life of these labourers is not disturbed to any appreciable extent.

7. The problem of unemployment may be regarded as a mystery. There is obviously a certain amount of misunderstanding regarding the exact position of unemployment in the Punjab amongst the industrial workers. In western countries where occupations are properly classified and where workers belong to sub-groups of a specialized trade, it is easy to determine the extent of unemployment ; but in the Punjab, where an ordinary mistri may take a job wherever he gets one, regardless of his specialization, it is exceedingly difficult to determine the exact nature and extent of unemployment. It is, however, maintained by some authorities that unemployment to some extent does exist among the labouring classes, but such of it which does exist is purely voluntary. The Department of Industries has been in direct touch with the mechanical workers who are ordinarily known as second class and third class engineers. In so far as this class of worker is concerned, it may be stated that in many cases the workers do not find suitable employment. Unemployment among the skilled and better class workers is hardly noticeable. In this connection it may be pointed out that a committee was appointed by the Punjab Government in 1927 to report on the extent of unemployment in the Punjab. The committee were of the opinion that " there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes." Such unemployment as was reported was voluntary rather than actual. As regards the so-called unemployment among workers in cotton ginning factories, the committee were of the view that " as the cotton ginning season only lasts for four or five months it would appear to be more correct to say that the cotton ginning season is the off-season for their other employment." In fact, such labourers as are not in any way connected with agriculture (and this proportion is very small) easily find other employment on the termination of the ginning season in the building trade, with local grain dealers or as private servants. The magnitude of unemployment is, however, never too great to be a cause of anxiety to the State.

As regards the application of International Draft Conventions relating to unemployment it appears that the articles contained therein are indeed beneficial to the case of the working classes and may, therefore, be applied to the Punjab with certain modifications to suit the local conditions.

8. It is difficult to determine the average duration of employment in the absence of any reliable statistics. Cases have come to notice where workmen have stayed in a single factory for over 20 years. In a general way it may, however, be stated that the average duration of employment varies from four months to four years for the skilled labour, and that of the unskilled labour is from two to three months.

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. The managing staff in large scale industries is generally recruited from abroad. Most of the departmental managers in the Dhariwal Mills have been imported from England, and those of the Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, Attock Oil Refinery, Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wab, and The Oriental Carpet Manufacturers (India), Limited, Amritsar, are also imported from Europe. In less important industrial establishments, such as ginning factories and other miscellaneous concerns, the majority of the managing staff is recruited from the province itself. In the selection of managing staff in seasonal factories, no attention whatever is paid to the qualifications, education or training of the individual employed.

12. Subordinate supervising staff is invariably drawn from the province itself, and is to a certain extent supplied by the various industrial and technical institutions now operating in the province. In very few cases, people from outside the province have been engaged on the subordinate staff.

No facilities for training workmen are provided by the industrial establishments in the province. It may be stated in this connection that the gulf between the skilled and the unskilled worker is generally very wide. The former seldom, if ever, succeeds in attaining positions of skilled workers or supervisors.

## III.—Housing.

18. The amount of space allotted in workers' quarters provided by the factory owners is necessarily limited, owing to the high cost of land and buildings in industrial centres. Some of the larger industrial concerns do provide suitable accommodation for their clerical staff and workers. Details of this accommodation are given below :—

(a) *The Attock Oil Co., Ltd., Khaur.*—The accommodation is divided into the following classes—

Clerks Quarters : No. 1 Line, 6 quarters ; No. 2 Line, 8 quarters. Skilled Labour Quarters : No. 1 Line, 8 quarters ; No. 2 Line, 10 quarters. Coolies Lines, Nos. 1 and 2 each containing 20 quarters : Quarters consist of 1 room 12 ft. by 12 ft., 1 verandah, 12 ft. by 6 ft. ; there are 78 men in the 40 quarters. Coolies Line, No. 5, consists of 10 quarters ; 8 quarters have 1 room, 12 ft. by 9½ ft., 1 verandah, 9½ ft. by 8½ ft. ; 2 quarters have, in addition to above, 2 rooms, 7 ft. by 6 ft., 1 bath room, 4 ft. by 8 ft., 1 lavatory, 4 ft. by 8 ft.

There are 8 men in the 10 quarters of the grade junior clerks and mistries.

(b) *Punjab Portland Cement, Limited, Wah.*—Skilled workers, namely, turners, fitters, carpenters, blacksmiths and masons, of whom they do not carry a very large number, are housed by them in quarters situated near the works. As far as possible, each single man gets one room to himself, if married he gets double this amount of accommodation. Dimensions of rooms are as follows :—12 ft. 6 in. by 12 ft. 6 in., with a verandah and a compound wall and a kitchen.

(c) *The Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, Jagadhri.*—The mills being new, the company have not yet built any quarters for the workers. They, however, propose to do so in the very near future. The quarters designed for workers are 10 ft. by 12 ft., with a kitchen, a small verandah and a compound, and each quarter is meant for one worker.

It will appear from the details given above, that the accommodation provided by the three or four largest industrial concerns in the Punjab is suitable both from the worker's point of view and from the health point of view. In the canal colony areas, space is allotted round the factory walls for workers who build kucha houses and huts for themselves and their families, which very much resemble the conditions prevalent in villages. The houses provided in Government factories are more spacious and more sanitary. The accommodation provided by private landlords is necessarily small, as the fundamental idea is to secure the maximum rent possible for the available space. The usual dimensions of rooms are 8 ft. by 10 ft., and it has been noticed that sometimes two or three people live together in one room.

19. The workers as a rule utilize the accommodation provided by the industrial concerns when it happens to be suitable. Only those workers whose families reside in the neighbouring villages go back to their homes after their day's work and do not make use of the accommodation provided by the employers.

20. The three largest industrial concerns referred to in a previous paragraph do not charge any rent, rates or taxes from their workers. No information is available regarding the rent, rates, etc., charged by the private landlords. It is, however, believed that the workers in the Punjab pay anything from one-half per cent. to 10 per cent. of the total wages earned during the month as rent on rooms rented by them. In so far as the Government factories or establishments are concerned, no rent is charged from the menials, but from the subordinate and clerical staff deduction of 10 per cent. of their salary is made as rent.

21. The problem of sub-letting in this province does not arise, as housing is not universally provided, and where it is provided the accommodation does not permit of sub-letting.

The problem of occupation of employers' houses by tenants and other employees has never presented itself in any troublesome form in this province. If the workers declare a prolonged strike and cause breaches of the peace, the management issue orders of eviction, as was the case in Dhariwal Mills' strike of 1928 ; but this is an extreme measure adopted only in cases of violence on the part of employees.

## IV.—Health.

23. The health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is impossible to state what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness. Factory records merely show the names of absentees without showing the cause of absence. No attempt has ever been made in the Punjab to collect figures of birth and death rates, etc., for workers employed in factories. From the reports issued by the Public Health Department it appears that the average death-rate in urban areas in the Punjab for the quinquennium ending 1926 was

32.59 per mille and the birth-rate about 42 per mille. Mortality among infants, the same report says, under one year of age was 193.64 per mille. I am of the opinion that these figures with very slight modifications can also be said to apply to the workers engaged in factories.

Well organized mills are mostly well ventilated and healthy to work in, but there is much room for improvement in smaller factories, especially those built in congested city areas. Little control is exercised at the present moment over the building of factories, with the result that most of the factories are badly designed and poorly ventilated; the owner being much more interested in cutting down costs than in creating an efficient and healthy work-room. So far as working conditions at home and at the factories are concerned, there is not much to choose between the two.

(iv) From the observations made of the conditions of living of workers it is clear that an average unskilled labourer spends about 60 per cent. of his earnings on food alone. Although quite an appreciable portion of the wages of a labourer is spent on his food it is to be admitted that the food is neither sufficient in quantity nor nutritious in quality. Mostly the dietary consists of cereals like millets and wheat, and chillies, onions and pulses. No scientific observations have ever been made to judge the effect of the dietary of an average worker on his industrial efficiency and longevity of life.

(v) The general physique of an average worker should be described as good, and as a matter of fact from a comparative study of the reports of the various provinces it may be said that the physique of the Punjab worker is much better than that of the worker in Bengal and other parts of India. The conditions of work prevailing in the ginning factories are, however, not conducive to the maintenance of good physique among women and children. The dust laden atmosphere in these factories and the long hours of working which the children are required to keep in spite of the regulations of the Indian Factories Act tell very adversely on the physique of these two types of workers.

(vi) The majority of male immigrants from other provinces come without their families. A large proportion of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories is female labour recruited from the adjoining villages. The husbands or fathers of these females scarcely, if ever, find employment in the factories side by side with their wives or daughters. The females, especially widows and destitutes, thus thrown in with strange people, often succumb to temptation and cause violation of family ties.

24. Medical facilities are provided only in the larger and well established factories. Excellent examples have been set by the Dhariwal Mills and the Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wah, in this behalf. A few factories have an arrangement whereby a doctor attends to the requirements of workers once or twice a week. In certain cases factory owners or a group of factory owners have entered into agreements with a doctor to attend to all accidents occurring in factories situated in one particular area. Government hospitals treat patients from factories free of charge. Among private agencies the only one that is known to this department is that of Sir Ganga Ram's Hospital, Lahore, which renders free medical facilities to the workers employed in factories.

25. It may be stated generally that the medical facilities wherever they are provided are fully utilized, but women, especially the expectant mothers, do not readily take advantage of such facilities, as the time honoured tradition prevents a woman from taking advice from a medical man.

31. A Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit was introduced by Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly on the 23rd September, 1924.

The Punjab Government did not favour the introduction of this Bill on the following grounds:—

"(1) Female labour is not essential to the industries of the Punjab and the number of women permanently employed is very small. The effect of the Bill would be that employers would dispense with female labour.

"(2) Women workers would be unwilling to submit to medical examination.

"(3) It would be difficult to prevent women who are absent from their regular employment and in receipt of benefits from obtaining other temporary employment elsewhere.

"(4) That the periods during which benefits are payable before and after confinement are necessarily long."

In view of these facts the Punjab Government asked that "should the measures be accepted by the Legislature this province may be excluded from its operation."

In view of the strong opposition to Mr. Joshi's bill in 1924, both from the employers, and the employed, there is no possibility of legislation being enacted in this province in the near future.

### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

32 to 36. Welfare work is attempted, if at all, on a very small scale in this province. The comparative absence of welfare activities in the Punjab can easily be understood when it is realised that the number of large establishments in this province is very small. The success of welfare schemes depend largely upon a number of persons who can participate in them, the understanding of the principles underlying these schemes, the stability of labour and its general development, including education, etc. In some of the foregoing paragraphs of this note it has been shown that labour in the Punjab is unorganized, migratory in character, illiterate and attached primarily to the land to which they return very frequently. Welfare arrangements can only succeed when the industrial labour has no other occupation to fall back upon and must make the best of existing conditions. On the part of the employer the main question is that of financing the welfare activities. The majority of undertakings being small (and depending upon the vagaries of weather and markets) cannot afford to indulge in these activities. With the introduction of beneficial enactments, such as the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Trade Unions Act, Trade Disputes Act, etc., and the protection afforded to labour by these measures, it is possible that the industrial workers will take a serious interest in welfare work.

In the Punjab, welfare work is attempted in a few important mills. At the New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal playgrounds are provided by the mill authorities for the use of their operatives and are kept in good condition. An uplift club is also provided for the subordinate staff and a well run social club for the supervising staff. A hospital and a school both for boys and girls have also been started by this mill. The mill also runs a co-operative society for the benefit of the workers. In addition to this, two other factories, viz., the Punjab Portland Cement Works at Wah and the Bankteshwar Cotton Mills at Amritsar have also evinced some interest in this direction. The last named concerns provide recreation grounds and clubs for the benefit of their employees. As already stated in the first paragraph, it is not easy to carry out a very extensive programme of welfare work in this province for the simple reason that the majority of the labour employed is of a migratory character and is employed in factories which are seasonal. So far as the provision of educational facilities are concerned, Dhariwal Mills alone provide facilities for their workers.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act* (i) The Act came into force in July, 1924, and during the early years of its working the number of claims preferred and the compensation awarded to workers or their dependants represented a low figure which was due to:—

- (a) illiteracy and ignorance of the claimants ;
- (b) inability of the workers to secure legal assistance on account of poverty ;
- (c) inability of the claimants to produce direct evidence in the court in support of their claims as no fellow worker would appear in the court against his own employer for fear of losing his job, and
- (d) the lengthy and tedious procedure for the settlement of claims in the court.

The working classes are, however, now gradually acquiring familiarity with the provisions of the Act and have begun to take advantage of the privileges extended thereunder. This is evident from the fact that the number of cases coming under the Act is increasing every year.

(ii) The number of claims would still increase if adequate arrangements were made to assist the illiterate workmen in preferring their claims. It is hoped that as soon as trade unions come into active existence to safeguard the rights of labour, the ignorant workmen will find little or no difficulty in preferring their claims. The Factory Inspection Department has so far been rendering assistance in this direction, but as they have been doing this work for compassionate reasons; it has been suggested that the Inspector of Factories and the Public Prosecutor may be authorized to help the workers in preferring their claims for compensation.

(iii) The operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act in the Punjab does not appear to have effected appreciably the industries of the province. From a detailed examination of the accidents which are reported every year, it will be seen that a large number of accidents take place in the railway workshops of Moghalpara, and the quota contributed by private factories towards the amount of compensation paid every year to the injured workmen or the dependants of the deceased, really amounts to an insignificant figure. There is no doubt that in the early years of the operation of this Act the employers did not take very kindly to this Act, as they



feared that the enforcement of the provisions of this Act would result in an increase in the cost of production. These fears seem now to have more or less disappeared, as the insurance companies have come forward to insure workmen against all possible accidents, thus absolving factory owners from unexpected and serious liabilities.

(iv) As already pointed out in the preceding paragraphs, insurance companies have come forward to insure the workers against accidents, but in the absence of any reliable statistics it is not possible to say definitely as to what percentage of employers do make full use of the facilities afforded by these companies. In the opinion of this department the system of insuring workers against accidents with the insurance companies is beneficial from the workers' point of view. Once that the workers have been insured against all possible accidents the employer feels no hesitation in supporting the claims of the injured or the dependants of the deceased and helping them to get the full benefit of the provisions of the Act.

52. *Desirability of Extending Act to other Occupations.*—This subject has been under the consideration of the Government of India and of all the local Governments. It has been admitted in these discussions that it is always desirable to insure the worker against accidents. It is, however, feared that the difficulties attending the enforcement of this Act in unorganized industries would be so great and the administrative machinery organized to carry out this administration would be so expensive that it would not be possible in the near future to extend the Act to such occupations as have now been excluded from its scope of operation. In view of these remarks it does not appear necessary to discuss the possibility of providing against insolvency of employers whom it is proposed to bring within the operation of the Act by its extension to unorganized industries. As regards the possibility of providing against the insolvency of employers, it may be mentioned here that so far no case has been reported to this department in which the employer has failed to make payment on account of compensation for the accidents occurring in his factory. It would, however, appear desirable, both in the interests of employers and the workers, that a scheme or system of compulsory insurance of the employees against accidents should be introduced and that the employment of labour without insurance against accidents should be penalized.

53. (i) The present scale of compensation is considered to be inadequate. In the opinion of this department an increase of 20 to 25 per cent. would meet the requirements of the case. This increase should be made applicable to workmen of all grades. If the scale of compensation is increased, it will not only tend to provide the injured workmen or their dependants with more money for their subsistence but will also have a salutary effect on the employer in so far as the provision of safety measures in his factory or place of business is concerned.

(ii) Under the provisions of the Act an employer is only liable to pay compensation for personal injury to a workman by accident arising out of, and in the course of his employment, provided the injury results in the total or partial disablement of the workman for a period exceeding ten days. No compensation is payable if the injury results from an accident which is directly attributable to the negligence of the workman. It has lately been represented that the waiting period of ten days is too long and results in hardships, but as the proposed reduction is likely to involve a considerable increase in the number of possible claims and to encourage malingering in petty cases, a suggestion has been made that where the disablement has lasted for more than ten days the workman should be entitled to receive compensation from an earlier date, e.g., from the fourth day of disablement. This method which is known as "dating back" may be tried as an experimental measure.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, advisable even under the present circumstances, as this reduction will have a salutary effect on the idle habits of the illiterate worker who regards the wastage of time as a mere matter of routine.

### D.—Other Establishments.

78. In industrial establishments not coming under the Indian Factories Act the normal hours of work, i.e., as determined by custom or agreement are from sunrise to sunset—12 hours in summer and 10 hours in winter, with an interval of one hour or thereabouts at mid-day for meals. Sunday (or Friday in the case of establishments in which Muslim labour predominates) is usually observed as a holiday, and work is also suspended on festivals, etc., for religious observances. Permanent labour which is paid on monthly rates of wages, when required to work on holidays is paid extra wages, which are usually  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the average daily wage. In this connection

a reference may be made to the conditions prevailing in the carpet factories at Amritsar. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and most of them being boys between the ages of nine to fifteen, this subject has, of late, excited a good deal of public and official attention.

The practice of working overtime in such workshops, specially when there is a rush of work, is very common, and a labourer usually puts in twelve to fourteen hours of work. Overtime dues are paid for hours worked over and above the stipulated hours of work.

With the exception of the mid-day rest the labourer is supposed to be on call throughout the time he is within the premises of the workshop. The labourer, however, manages to steal an hour or so for smoking the inevitable hukka at intervals during the working hours.

79. In small workshops where daily wages are the rule seven days are worked per week; the worker enjoying such holidays as he chooses, but in larger establishments and those in which wages are paid monthly six days are worked per week. In case of rush of work labourers are employed on week-days and holidays on payment of extra wages, as stated above.

80. There can be no two opinions regarding the desirability of regulation of hours of work per day and days of work per week in such establishments, but the enforcing of such regulations, together with the opposition from the employers and the employees are factors which appear to be almost insurmountable. The rates of wages are still very low, and the labourer gladly welcomes overtime work by which he can add to his meagre income.

#### X.—Special Questions Relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

89. The local Government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as many of these factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 10, and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours. The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regulate the hours of employment of women and children—it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present.

92. As has already been pointed out in one of the previous paragraphs, it would be desirable to introduce some sort of regulations in such establishments as do not come within the purview of the Indian Factories Act, but under the present unorganised conditions of industry, specially in rural areas, the creation of an administrative machinery will be so expensive and the difficulties involved in the enforcement of legislation will be so great that the task of introducing any legislation seems well-nigh impossible.

#### XII.—Wages.

96 and 97. A statement showing the prevailing rates of wages in industrial establishments generally and in factories coming under the Indian Factories Act for the quinquenniums ending 1912-27 is given in the local Government's memorandum.

It will be noticed that wages of ordinary skilled labourers rose gradually between the quinquenniums ending 1917 and 1922, as compared with the quinquennium ending 1912, but a fall was registered at the wages census for the quinquennium ending 1927. The percentage increase or decrease in wages of the various classes of skilled workers in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan in the quinquennium ending 1927, as compared with 1922, is shown in a statement appended at the end of this note as Appendix VI.

It will be seen from this statement that with the exception of a rise in the wages of workers in iron and hardware industry in Lahore no appreciable increase in wages of any class of labour is noticeable. This is explained by the abnormal growth of foundries and workshops during this period. The extraordinary fall in the wages of workers in this industry in Amritsar is explained by the rapid introduction of aluminium ware which has thrown out a large number of workers from the brass and copperware industry and brought about the fall in wages. The fall in the wages of other industrial labourers is undoubtedly due to the fall in the cost of living since the last wages census.

The scale of wages paid in factories has shown an appreciable increase for all classes of labour as compared with 1914 and, roughly speaking, wages have nearly doubled during this period.

98. In the absence of any systematic survey of family budgets of the industrial labourers in the Panjab it is impossible to say with any degree of precision the percentage of wages which they save and send to their villages. However, a number of stray cases were examined, and the general conclusion arrived at was that the

unskilled daily wage-earner is never in a position to save any proportion of his earnings during the period of his employment in towns. Whatever little he saves during a week of work is spent on food on days in which he is unable to secure a job or in a few luxuries, like drinking and eating on ceremonial days and festivals. If, on the other hand, the period of employment is considerably longer the labourer contracts debts at heavy rates of interest and once he is in debt he remains so for the rest of his stay in towns.

In the case of monthly wage-earners, however, savings are effected if he continues in employment, is free from sickness, and is not called upon to incur any unexpected expenditure. A fair proportion of the savings of such labourers find their way into their villages.

99. *Payment in Kind and Allied Problems.*—It may safely be asserted that payments in kind to industrial labour have completely disappeared from the Punjab. Wages are now paid strictly in cash in all the factories.

101 and 103. It cannot be said for the Punjab that wages in any industry have been standardized. This is true even of casual unskilled labour. The scale of wages, moreover, varies from place to place and in accordance with the supply of and demand for labour for the purpose. As a rule, wages are fixed by direct negotiations between the employer and the employee. It is, however, a fact that wages for the same class of labour employed on the same day by an employer cannot vary, but it is not at all necessary that the same rate may prevail on the succeeding day, or even in the succeeding month. For instance, the wages in the building trade are appreciably lower during the rainy season on account of little demand for this class of labour than during dry months. Similarly, wages for the same class of labour in adjacent towns vary considerably with the supply of and demand for labour at the time of recruitment.

104. As a rule, the labour supply is not affected by ordinary changes in wages. The labourer accepts the prevalent wages with a feeling of resignation which is due to his poverty and lack of bargaining power. This is also in a measure due to the fact that as he has no fund to live upon in case he has to refuse a lower wage than usual the question of earning daily bread for himself and his dependants forces him to accept what is offered. Lack of combination among workers also helps the employers to dictate their own terms. With the growth of trade unions and feeling of fraternity among workers, labour will be in a position to assert its claims. The extent to which the labourers have tried to force wages up or fought against cutting down of wages in recent years are discussed in answer to Question XIV—Trade Combinations.

105. *Minimum Wages.*—Theoretically speaking, it would appear to be the duty of every community, both in its own interest and in the interest of workers, to evolve a machinery which should be available for the regulation of wages of any groups of workers who may be found from time to time to be unable owing to their lack of organization and their consequent individual isolation on the labour market to maintain an equitable standard of wages. In the Punjab specially, practically in all trades no arrangements exist for the effective regulation of wages by collective agreement or otherwise, and in some trades the wages are actually very low. In order to combat these conditions the creation of a wage-fixing machinery appears theoretically to be a very sound proposition, but it is a matter of great doubt whether in a country where trade unionism is just in its very infancy and where groups of workers are yet absolutely unaware of the virtues of co-operation and combinations, such a machinery can be successfully worked. The difficulties in classifying the industries and in creating an administrative agency, which will be in a position to enforce the law in this connection will be of such a serious nature that one cannot but say that time has not yet arrived in India for the establishment of such an intricate machinery.

106. Although the practice of inflicting fines on workmen employed in industrial establishments is common throughout the province, it is not resorted to by any concern of repute or standing, and it does not constitute an evil of such a nature as to necessitate legislation to abolish the procedure altogether or to restrict it within narrow limits. The Factory Inspector has reported that in the case of one or two well-run mills fines are utilized towards the employees' provident fund. The general practice, however, is that the fines go to the pockets of the factory management.

Fines are a well recognized method of inflicting punishments and the system has not led to any great abuse so far. In the opinion of this department the necessity for a statutory legislation in this direction has not yet arisen so far as this province is concerned, and it is also felt that the enforcement of this legislation would also be a very difficult affair. The average worker, on account of his illiteracy, would never be able to prove his case. The deduction would naturally be made on pay day, and probably the worker fined will be required to sign for full pay.

107. Wages to permanent workers in perennial factories are paid monthly, from the 5th to the 20th of the following month, so that the employer always has a certain amount of hold over the worker. Casual work in cotton ginning factories and coolie workers in many other factories are paid at the end of the day.

There is not the least doubt that legislation to assure prompt payment of wages to the workers would be a very welcome move. The security obtained by the employers by means of delayed payments at the sacrifice of labour's interest is on no account a legitimate one. On the other hand, such a practice demoralises the worker and results in considerable economic hardship to him. A legislation of this nature is all the more necessary for a province like the Punjab, where labour employed in most of the industries is illiterate, unorganized and hopelessly incompetent for securing a recognition of their rights and privileges.

So far as unclaimed wages are concerned, the usual practice is that they are credited into the account of the factory owner. It would undoubtedly appear to be desirable that such wages should always be utilized towards the welfare work of the workers in the factory.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. The Indian worker has been condemned as an inefficient instrument of production by many writers on economics of India. To justify this statement, they maintain that the main cause responsible for this inefficiency lies in his migratory tendencies, not only from place to place, but also from industry to industry, resulting as it must in lower standards of skill in industrial occupations. As wages in one industry show a tendency to rise he rushes to that industry leaving aside his previous occupation. The natural consequence is that the employer does not take much interest in the labour in the way of its training at his own expense. Among other causes of the inefficiency of the Indian labour may be mentioned his lack of education, insufficient quantity of food taken, lack of thrift, inaptitude to learn when opportunities come in his way, etc. It may, however, be stated that the efficiency of the Indian worker has been increasing steadily in recent years. This is attributable to several causes. The industrial educational institutions, which are now operating in the province, are responsible, to a very great extent, for the production of a better and more efficient class of worker. The growth of labour legislation has also succeeded in awakening consciousness in the industrial worker. The third factor which is responsible for the increase in the efficiency of the industrial worker is the central localization of a few industries. To illustrate this point, mention may be made of the sports goods making, steel trunk making, and cutlery industries of Sialkot, woollen industry in Dhariwal, and foundry industry in Batala. In all these places the industries mentioned against their names have more or less centralized themselves and have helped in the growth of the efficiency of the labour which is available in those localities. Another minor point which has also played some part in this direction is the gradual adoption by the factory owners of the system of division of labour. In the case of skilled and highly paid workers the diminution in the number of working hours per day has succeeded in making these classes of workers more efficient.

113 and 114. *Extent to which Comparisons are Affected by Migration of Workers, etc.*—It is almost impossible in the absence of any recorded observations to give an estimate of the comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers. No attempt has yet been made in the Punjab to measure the comparative efficiency in exact mathematical terms. Scientific comparisons of efficiency should necessarily be based on (a) physiological conditions, (b) the general education of the workers concerned, and (c) the conditions of working in factories, and (d) the types of machinery and appliances used. In the absence of data worked out by special investigations on the basis of these preliminary conditions no opinion whatever can be given regarding the comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers.

115. (i) The reduction in the number of working hours from 12 in 1911 to 10 in 1922, in the amended Factories Act, 1922, has been much resented by the factory owners. The general consensus of opinion among them is that the amount of output per operative has fallen by about 20 per cent., i.e., the amount which he produced by working for extra two hours. This view of the factory owners cannot be accepted as a conclusive proof of the reduction in efficiency or in output. As a matter of fact, those industrial concerns in India which have devoted scientific attention to this subject are of the view that no reduction in output has taken place.

(ii) & (iii) It cannot be gainsaid that production is affected by other working conditions, such as well ventilated workrooms, sufficient lighting arrangements, division of labour, sanitary conditions, etc., etc., all of which tend to lessen fatigue and improve the productive capacity of the worker. It cannot, however, be said of the majority of factories in the Punjab that these conditions do prevail in them. Under the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925, a provision has been made for the

submission of plans of such factories to the Director of Agriculture, Punjab, before they can be set up. The main idea underlying this provision is to judge the plan of the building from the point of view of the health of operatives. There cannot be two opinions regarding the fact that the factories set up since the enforcement of this legislation are far better than those set up prior to the promulgation of this law.

(iv), (viii) (ix) and (x) These subjects have been dealt with above. The effect on production of housing and dietary and the habit of taking intoxicants has never been systematically observed in the Punjab, and it is difficult to say to what extent production is affected on account of insufficient provisions for housing and dietary, etc.. In a general way it may be stated that insufficient nourishment and dismal hovels in which the labourer lives tell upon his health and consequently effect his productive capacity. The industrial fatigue consequent upon these facts coupled with the absence of welfare activities and provisions for recreation, the monotony of life, low wages and large number of dependants tell upon the constitution of the worker and thereby produce a feeling of depression which pervades his actions and affect production adversely.

(v), (vi) and (vii) The movements in wage levels and methods of remuneration have been discussed above. The increase in wages, according to most factory owners, has not resulted in increased efficiency or increased production.

116. The causes of the inefficiency of Indian labour have been discussed above in answer to questions Nos. 112-113. With a view to securing increase in efficiency of labour the first consideration must be directed towards checking the too frequent migration of labour from town to town and industry to industry. Increased efficiency is a result of continued employment in one particular industry over a fairly long period, and as such the worker must be able to realize that it does not pay in the long run to change his occupations too often.

Next in importance is the introduction of bonus and profit-sharing schemes which will induce the worker to exert to his utmost, as he will be a co-sharer with his employer in the profits of the industry.

The employers' outlook must also undergo a thorough change. They should endeavour to improve the housing conditions of labour and make better provisions for sanitation in workplaces. The standard of living must also be raised and the worker should be enlightened on such subjects as dietary, sanitation and thrift, etc. It must also be realized that in the long run a better standard of living depends entirely on better education and better wages.

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

Under this section the only subject that concerns us is the types of contract commonly in use. In so far as this province is concerned, the only form of contract entered into between the employer and the employee is that of mutual understanding. There are, however, exceptions which provide for the advance payment of wages, and in these cases the employee undertakes to serve the master for a definite period, permitting the latter to deduct small monthly instalments from his wages.

#### XVII.—Administration.

136. Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all the Acts passed in connection with labour legislation.

146. *Future developments necessary.*—This province has no labour office. The entire work is done by a very small section of the Director of Industries office. Labour questions are now assuming greater public importance than ever and it is high time that we started collecting statistical data on such matters as are engaging the serious attention of the public.

#### APPENDIX VI.

The following statement shows the percentage of increase or decrease in the wages of certain classes of labourers in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan in 1927 as compared with 1922 :—

Class of labourers.	Percentage of increase or decrease.		
	Lahore.	Amritsar.	Multan.
Workers in iron and hardware .. ..	-25	-17	-25
Brass, copper and bell metal workers ..	-22	-70	-20
Carpenters .. .. .	—	-17	-9
Cotton weavers .. .. .	—	-42	—
Masons and builders .. .. .	+ 3	-11	-9
Unskilled labourers .. .. .	—	+ 7	—

Lt.-Col. C. A. GILL, D.P.H., I.M.S., DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC HEALTH, PUNJAB.

*B.—Vital Statistics.*

1. *General population.*—The birth-rate and death-rate of the Punjab during the past sixty years is shown in the attached chart (chart 1\*). It will be seen that the death-rate is extremely high. The mean death-rate during the past five years was 33 per mille or about 3 times the death-rate of England and Wales.

2. The infantile mortality rate is likewise extremely high, being approximately 200 per 1,000 births (as compared with 70 in England and Wales), and as this rate is not greatly affected by epidemics (except malaria), it indicates the existence, apart from epidemics, of a low grade of health. A favourable and hopeful feature is the high birth-rate, which is 40 per mille as compared with about 20 per mille in England and Wales. That the province should exhibit a remarkably high birth-rate, in spite of being constantly decimated by epidemics, indicates not only the high fertility, but also the great recuperative power, of its inhabitants.

Another striking feature of the vital statistics is the disparity between the sexes ; the number of males exceed the number of females by over 2 millions in a total population of 20.5 millions. This feature is mainly attributable to the fact that the female death-rate under almost every head of mortality is invariably higher than the male death-rate.

3. Of special interest from the point of view of labour is the fact that the urban death-rate is relatively and absolutely high as compared with the rural death-rate, which is indicative of the fact that the artificial conditions associated with an urban environment are peculiarly prejudicial to health.

The death-rate under all heads of mortality, except malaria, which is essentially a disease of rural areas and the outskirts of towns, is appreciably higher in towns than in rural areas. The large towns are a fertile breeding ground of disease and the starting point of many epidemics in the countryside. The most striking feature of the urban death-rate is the high respiratory disease death-rate, which in 1928 was 5.79 per mille as compared with 2.18 per mille in rural areas. This feature is in large part due to the great prevalence of pulmonary tuberculosis in towns, which is the outcome of neglect of sanitation, intense congestion and bad housing, to which must be added such dysgenic habits and customs as child-marriage and the purdah.

The death-rate from dysentery and diarrhoea in towns is also about three times higher than it is in rural areas, and this fact is again attributable to the gravely insanitary conditions prevailing in urban areas.

4. *Labour.*—It is unfortunately impossible to quote any statistics bearing specially upon the health conditions of the labouring classes, and it is only possible to state, in this regard, that, as for the most part the death-rate increases *pari passu* with a decline of social status, and as labour is almost solely drawn from the poorer classes, the remarks made and the conclusions drawn in respect of the general population apply with special force to the hewers of wood and the drawers of water.

5. *Summary.*—This brief review of the vital statistics permits of the following conclusions :—

The Punjab is inhabited by a vigorous and prolific people, whose "natural increase" is held in check by the high mortality occasioned by disease and pestilence. The low grade of health is indicated by the high death-rate, apart from epidemics, the high infantile mortality rate and the high female death-rate, all of which are characteristic of a society in an early phase of social, economic and cultural development. The relatively high insalubrity of towns, where, owing to the congestion of the population, the need of sanitary safeguards is infinitely greater than in villages, is a reflection of the low standard of municipal and domestic hygiene.

*C.—Public Health Administration.*

These local bodies were left largely to themselves, and it was hoped that something in the nature of local self-government would emerge. A sanitary board was also created and given funds with which to assist local bodies to provide themselves with sanitary amenities, and large grants were given for water supply and drainage schemes to the more important towns. When the schemes broke down or required extension, further assistance was given from provincial sources. Sometimes the grants were not used at all or they were used for an unauthorized purpose. This tentative experiment in local self-government failed to awaken any sense of civic responsibility and the inspection reports of the sanitary commissioner of 20 to 30 years ago, which might, with only a few modifications, have been written yesterday, show that no appreciable improvement and sometimes actual deterioration, has taken place in the arrangements made by local bodies for safeguarding the public

health. The standard of health remained very much what it was before. The world-wide awakening of interest in matters affecting health, which in this province dates from the inception of the reforms in 1920, gave a new impetus to local self-government and a new hope to the public health expert. A provincial health service was created in 1923, and a special staff, albeit small, was provided for combating epidemics. An insistent demand for sanitary reforms asserted itself and an optimistic feeling was engendered that great and rapid progress would be made. Many new boards and committees were created to deal with health problems, the sanitary board, by a process of fission, became the Urban Sanitary Board and the Rural Sanitary and Improvement Board, a Rural Community Board came into being, whilst the Legislature appointed a Standing Committee on Public Health.

In the mofussil, district community councils were formed, whose functions partially overlapped and partially supplemented those discharged by district boards, whilst in some districts, officials sought to create a new heaven and a new earth in the countryside by novel and not entirely orthodox (from the financial point of view) expedients.

8. The old-time administrator had behind him great traditions and wide administrative experience; their guiding hand has, however, been in large measure removed, and it is therefore all the more necessary that the Director of Public Health should be placed in a position to bring his expert knowledge to bear upon the problems, more especially in connection with labour, which demand his attention. He is attached to the Ministry of Local Self-Government, but he is not a member of that ministry.

But if he is usually consulted by the Ministry of Local Self-Government on technical questions, it is only rarely that other ministries or departments, almost all of whom have the health and welfare of labour under their care, feel the necessity of doing so. In connection with factory labour, which comes under the Director of Industries, he should be in touch with the Ministry of Education; labour problems, in connection with engineering works require that he should be in touch with the Ministry of Agriculture. Criminal Tribes Settlements are administered by the Home Department who should consult him in regard to the important question of the health of these unfortunates, and last but not least, town-planning, in so far as it affects the many new towns—the towns of the future—now springing up in the Canal Colonies requires that he should be in close contact with the Revenue Department.

There is no Ministry of Labour, and, as will be shown shortly, the necessity of safeguarding the care and well-being of labour, of which Government is the chief employer, is as yet scarcely envisaged, and, in consequence, such action as has been taken, almost solely within the past few years, is due to the initiative of the Director of Public Health and his insistence on the adoption of sanitary safeguards.

Such action, however, places the Director of Public Health in an entirely false position. It should not be necessary for him to have to incur the odium of intruding his unsought and therefore unwelcome views upon other departments or ministries. Progress should not depend upon the view to which the Director of Public Health for the time being, may happen to take of his duties and responsibilities, he should not be looked upon as an officious or obstructive person, because he desires to satisfy himself that the plans of new towns are in accord with modern sanitary requirements. Obviously, if all departments of Government who are employers of labour or are engaged in schemes of development, realized their responsibilities in respect of the health and welfare of labour, they would obtain expert advice upon all such matters.

It is now proposed to state the action taken by the Director of Public Health to discharge his task of endeavouring to provide for the needs of labour and thereafter an attempt will be made to indicate the manner in which the administrative machine might be adjusted to modern conditions.

#### D. Health Conditions affecting Labour.

9. It is first necessary to consider the precise definition attaching to the term "labour." It obviously includes mill and factory labour and those engaged in industrial pursuits. It likewise includes certain classes of railway employees, and especially those employed temporarily on new construction. It also includes those engaged in the construction of other large engineering projects. It must surely include the unorganized labour by means of which building operations are carried out in towns and cities. It may even be said that the casual migrant labour which plays a large part in agricultural operations, especially at harvest time, comes within the scope of the definition. It is proper too to include the labour, in this case forced labour, employed in the factories attached to jails and Criminal Tribes Settlements.

On a broad view, therefore, labour comprises a large section of the poorer classes and it is just because these classes have little or no political influence—although they may be exploited by those who have—that their welfare should be a matter of close concern of Government. Another reason for adopting this view, is the fact that Government is perhaps the largest employer of labour and upon Government therefore rests in a peculiar degree, on moral, economic and political grounds, the responsibility of safeguarding the health of labour.

It is not suggested for one moment that this duty has been ignored, but, in the opinion of the writer, it is correct to state the needs of labour have not yet been fully envisaged and that, in consequence, adequate provision has not as yet been made to meet them.

#### *I.—Large Engineering Projects.*

10. It has not in the past been the practice of the Public Works Department to consult the Director of Public Health in regard to the sanitary arrangements to be made for its employees on engineering works, nor can it be said that provision has ever been made in the estimates for the public health, as opposed to the medical requirements, of the labour force. It thus happened that the Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme, which is now being executed in Mandi State by the Punjab Government at a cost of over Ra. 4 crores, was started without any steps being taken to obtain expert advice in regard to the measures necessary to safeguard the health of the labour force.

As soon as the Director of Public Health came to know of the scheme, he at once (1926) addressed the Ministry of Agriculture and pointed out that, as the area was highly insalubrious, the concentration of a large labour force at Jogindernagar would almost certainly, unless elaborate precautions were taken, be followed by serious outbreaks of disease and the decimation of the labour force.

As this warning did not appear to have been effective, the Director of Public Health proceeded to Jogindernagar to make a personal investigation and to draw up a detailed medical and sanitary scheme for presentation to the authorities concerned. This investigation revealed the fact that certain departmental arrangements had been made to deal with the welfare of the workmen. A layman belonging to the Y.M.C.A. had, in fact, been appointed under the title of a "Welfare Officer" as "an Estate Agent, Health Officer, Club Secretary, School Master, Librarian, Lecturer and Canteen Agent."

The scheme drawn up as a result of this visit at first met with opposition, but it was eventually accepted and brought into operation. The arrangements included a chlorinated water-supply and effective arrangements for the collection, removal and disposal of refuse and rubbish. The health and welfare of the labour force was placed under close observation by the Medical Officer of Health, their food supply was inspected and all recruits were vaccinated and periodically inoculated against cholera. In order to meet the needs of the wives and families of the labour force an Infant welfare centre was opened and placed in charge of a qualified health visitor and midwife. Both cholera and scurvy appeared amongst the labour force in the summer of 1928, and it is recognized on all hands that, but for the measures adopted in the previous year, the consequences would have been serious. This is the first occasion upon which adequate provision has been made in the Punjab for safeguarding the health and welfare of the labour force employed on a large engineering work, and it may be assumed that, the benefit having been demonstrated, similar undertakings will in future be treated in a similar fashion. The salary of the Medical Officer of Health was on this occasion met by the Public Health Department, whilst the Lady Chelmsford League provided the funds in connection with the infant welfare centre. The Public Health Department is, however, pressing for the recognition of the principle that in future the medical and sanitary arrangements made in connection with large engineering works shall be drawn up before the inception of the scheme, and that the cost thereof shall be included in the estimate of the project.

11. One other point remains to be mentioned, and as it is of general application, it requires detailed consideration. The investigation carried out in February, 1926, brought to notice the serious hardships and privations experienced by the labour force arising out of their mode of recruitment.

The labour employed on engineering projects is engaged by contractors, and in consequence there is no direct contact between the officials and the labour force. The employer in this case, Government, pays the contractor, who in turn pays the labour force. This system is open to serious objection for several reasons. In the first place, the employer is apt to take the view that, as the labourers are in no sense employees of Government, he has no responsibility for their health and welfare ;



but those who are responsible for the concentration of large bodies of men cannot in this manner discharge their moral responsibility for the well-being of those who "deliver the goods". Secondly, although the contractors are supposed to be men of substance, they turn out sometimes to be rogues, and instances are not uncommon of contractors decamping with the pay of their men.

Thirdly, the men are usually in debt to the contractor for advances (no doubt loans bearing interest) made to the workmen, and, fourthly, it is the common practice for the contractor to keep his men in arrears of pay in order to guard against desertion. Finally, the contractor often runs the bunnia's shop of the labour camp and, unless prices are controlled and the food-stuffs inspected, the scales are, indeed, heavily weighted against the poor and ignorant workman. Actual instances of the pernicious results of this system, which is only too likely to be exploited by political agitators, came to notice both amongst the labour force employed on the Kangra Valley Railway and at Jogindernagar. In the former case, loud and bitter complaints were made to the Deputy Commissioner by a deputation of workmen that they were starving owing to their pay being many months in arrears. In another case the contractor had absconded without paying his men, whilst at Jogindernagar, labourers (Tibetans) were encountered, some of whom, owing to their inability to obtain their pay for five months, were suffering from scurvy and in a state bordering on starvation.

I am of opinion on humanitarian and political grounds, that this system should, if possible, be abolished. The main objection to doing so, I gather, is that it would mean the employment of a considerable number of additional clerks, but where vast projects costing crores of rupees are concerned, the cost of employing a few additional clerks is trivial. It is furthermore clear that a regularly paid, properly housed and adequately fed labour force, is a contented labour force which will not desert, whilst its increased efficiency and freedom from disease will go a long way to compensate for the additional capital expenditure entailed by the direct recruitment of labour. These views, when represented in 1927, were unfavourably received, but I am glad to say, although it was not found possible to change the system, that the attention drawn to the evil and the watch kept over the labour force by the medical officers of health concerned was responsible for the removal, in very large measure, of the evils to which reference has been made. So much so is this the case that, provided the health and welfare of the labour force is properly supervised by a medical officer of health, directly responsible to the director of public health, the contractor system need not necessarily be the cause, which in other circumstances it is only too likely to be, of grave hardships to labour.

The contractor system is open to less objection in the case of engineering projects conducted in or near large towns, where, as elsewhere, engineering works are carried out, in accordance with Government rules, through the agency of contractors. The same remarks applies to the sanitary works (contribution works) carried out by Government agency on behalf of local bodies.

In both cases, the labour force finds accommodation either in the town or, if the works are situated some distance from the town, the skilled labour is provided with tents, and the labourers with temporary brick huts—the bricks being those provided for the project—roofed with thatch or sheets of galvanized iron. The water-supply usually consists of the water (unpurified) provided in connection with the project, whilst temporary latrines are dug in the vicinity. These somewhat primitive arrangements cannot be regarded as entirely satisfactory and steps will be taken in future to ensure, through the local medical officer of health, that more adequate precautions are adopted.

## II.—Railway Construction.

12. The provision made by the railway authorities for the labour force engaged on new construction was precisely similar to that already described in the case of the Mandi Hydro-Electric project. Under long-existing but forgotten orders the railway administration is required to inform the Director of Public Health when new lines are to be constructed and of the arrangements made for safeguarding the health of the labour force. When the construction of the Kangra Valley Railway was taken in hand in 1926, these orders were forgotten and little or no provision was made for safeguarding the health of the labour force until the Director of Public Health took up the matter with the railway authorities. Here again, he followed up his advice by carrying out a local investigation and thereafter submitted to the railway authorities—although it was not his duty to do so—a complete sanitary scheme on the lines of that employed at Jogindernagar, which the railway authorities eventually agreed to adopt and to put into operation.

An outbreak of cholera occurred amongst the labour force in April, 1928, and there can be little doubt that if it had not been for the protected water supply and for the efficient sanitary arrangements, including the inoculation of the whole force, many lives would have been lost.

The same contractor system was in vogue and the same efforts were made—with success—to mitigate its worst features. As the work progressed, the labour camps, huts and shelters were constantly moved, but there are advantages in a good climate of living in the open air and, as a result of the care bestowed upon the welfare and health of the men by the Medical Officer of Health, almost all avoidable hardships were eliminated.

The railway authorities now possess their own medical and sanitary staff and there is reason to believe that the procedure adopted with success—as is freely admitted by every railway official employed on the Kangra Valley Railway—will become the standard practice in future.

### III.—Factories.

13. The inspection of factories is carried out under powers conferred by the Indian Factories Act, 1911. Medical examinations are carried out by certifying surgeons, and with this aspect of the work the Director of Public Health is not concerned. Until recently no provision existed for any effective inspection of the sanitary condition of the factories or of the health of the employees. In 1928, on the representation of the Director of Public Health, he and the Assistant Directors of Public Health were appointed additional inspectors of factories, but his proposal that District Medical Officers of Health should also be appointed additional inspectors in respect of their several districts was not approved.

Only a few inspections have so far been carried out, the most important being the inspection of the Bakteshwar Cotton Mills, which the Director of Public Health inspected in company with the Inspector of Factories, with a view to the study of the question of humidification and to the drawing up of regulations which have since been promulgated. There are only two cotton mills in the Punjab—and this question is therefore not of any local importance. Something has been done, but much more remains to be done to improve the conditions under which work is carried out in factories and to provide sanitary conveniences and a few amenities for the workers.

Even more scope for useful action exists in connection with ensuring that new factories are built in accordance with modern hygienic principles. I have suggested to the Director of Industries that, before he sanctions the erection of any new factories, the plans should be submitted to the Director of Public Health for scrutiny, but so far no plans have been submitted.

### E.—A Public Health Policy for India.

16. So far as is known, no attempt has been made to draw up a public health policy for this, or indeed for any other, province of India. Public health being already a "transferred" subject the Indian Statutory Commission did not apparently consider this subject in any detail, and although the Director of Public Health, along with other heads of "transferred" departments, appeared for a few moments before the Commission during its first visit to India, the Punjab Government did not approve of my request to be allowed to submit a memorandum on the subject to the Commission. But public health constitutes the very bone and marrow of local self-government—and it seems to be a matter of vast importance to the future welfare of India, and more especially to "the silent millions" from which labour is mainly drawn, that cognizance should be taken of the arrangements for promoting their health and welfare in framing the new constitution.

It may be that the Royal Commission on Labour will rectify this omission—and it is clear, for reasons already stated, that its wide terms of reference permit it to act, if so inclined, as a Royal Commission on Public Health as well as on Labour.

In the first place, it is taken for granted that the future health and welfare of this country, whatever the nature of the constitution, will continue to be an important preoccupation of central and local administrations. Secondly, it is assumed that the insufficiency of the existing arrangement for promoting the well-being of the community is admitted. Finally, it is assumed that this public health policy must be attuned to the spirit of the times in respect of local self-government.

17. The first and perhaps the most important matter requiring consideration has reference to the manner in which the administrative machine can be adjusted so as to be capable of meeting more adequately the new functions which are now demanded of it. The views put forward in this memorandum point to the conclusion that the time has arrived when a Ministry of Health should be created. Then, and then only, will it be possible to ensure that important matters affecting public health, whether affecting departments of Government or local bodies, will be adequately dealt with. It is obvious that a Ministry of Health without technical experts would be an absurdity—and it is therefore necessary that the Ministry should include, in addition to its

administrative Secretaries and Under-Secretaries, at least one medical and public health expert and one public health engineer. A Ministry, so constituted would be in a position to examine public health problems from every aspect and its considered views on important questions of policy, of which the Minister would be the mouth-piece, would be placed before Government by the Minister and, so far as accepted, would be promulgated to the public as the official policy of Government and thereafter constitute the basis of administrative action.

On settled questions of policy, decisions and orders would issue under the authority of the Ministry. And in order that the health problems, more especially those affecting labour, of which Government is at present the chief employer, should be given due consideration, all departments of Government should be required to submit schemes having public health implications to the Ministry. The Ministry would thus consider the plans in connection with all engineering projects, in so far as their public health aspect is concerned and the arrangements for safeguarding the health and welfare of the labour force. Questions affecting town development and the creation of new towns, plans in connection with the erection of new factories, government institutions (provincial works), Criminal Tribes Settlements and the sanitary projects of local bodies (contribution works) would likewise be examined by the Ministry in so far as their public health aspect was concerned. The Ministry would be responsible for drawing up and revising from time to time all standard plans in respect of buildings and it would also be responsible for drawing up and revising the model bye-laws framed under the Municipal and other Acts.

It is perhaps not possible at once to staff the Ministry with whole-time experts, but even now, a beginning could be made by appointing the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health and Superintending Engineer, Public Health, as the medical, public health and engineering members of the Ministry. They would thus act for some time to come both as heads of their respective departments and as technical advisers of the Ministry, but, as local self-government progresses, their functions as heads of departments will steadily dwindle. The next step would be the creation of a Board of Public Health upon which would serve, in addition to, representatives of the Ministry, a number of non-official members of the Legislative Council. This Board, upon which the non-official element should be predominant, would review the proposals submitted to it by the Ministry in respect of all public health matters affecting local bodies and the general population. It would in fact discharge the duties now performed in respect of urban areas by the Urban Sanitary Board, and it would replace both this Board and the Rural Sanitary and Improvement Board. As the non-official members would be drawn solely from the Legislative Council, these members would also be in a position to discharge their duties as the Standing Committee of the Legislative Council on Public Health.

18. In its relationship with local bodies, who it is assumed will be given greater powers of local self-government, the Ministry would act as guide and mentor, but with the gradual withdrawal of direct provincial control and the substitution of local for provincial establishments, the security of tenure of the public health staff will have to be carefully safeguarded. In addition to the provision of adequate safeguards the Ministry must be given the powers, now enjoyed by the Ministry of Health in Great Britain, of ensuring that grants-in-aid from provincial sources are properly expended and that public health measures are carried out on approved lines. The membership of local bodies would also need to be increased, so as to include women—and at least one non-official medical man, and, in the case of District Boards, a civil official, together with a medical and public health officer and the district engineer, should act as its executive.

In this scheme there is no room for a Rural Community Board, and District Community Councils, for it is difficult to see in what respect "the co-ordination of the activities of the different departments" cannot be fully brought about through the agency of existing authorities, viz., the Deputy Commissioner and the District Board.

19. In this manner it is thought that efficient administration and technical supervision can be combined, without loss of efficiency, with the grant of additional powers to local bodies. It remains to consider the manner in which a requisite measure of co-ordination can be brought about with similar organizations in other provinces and with the Government of India. Up to date, for reasons which need not be particularized, each province has gone its own way irrespective of its neighbours and of its overlord, the Government of India, but the times have changed, and it is clear that public health problems cannot be regarded solely from the parochial and even the provincial point of view.

The steps taken by a municipal committee to suppress an epidemic of cholera is no longer purely a matter of local concern. Epidemics take no account of district or even provincial boundaries. India is the great breeding ground of disease and the source of the world-wide spread of infection; what happens in one province is therefore of vital interest not only to neighbouring provinces, but also to the whole

world. The League of Nations no less than the public opinion of the world looks to the Government of India to put its sanitary house in order and to pursue an enlightened public health policy. Apart from these considerations, the need of a co-ordinating authority is experienced by provincial Governments. Many legal enactments, if they are to be effective, or if unnecessary hardships are to be avoided, must be based upon All-India legislation, supplemented and implemented by power to frame local regulations. Such an Act is the Vaccination Act, which makes provision for local regulations to facilitate its application. There is a great need for similar legislation in other matters; a new law, for example, for controlling epidemic diseases (in place of the existing Act which is now out of date) is wanted and a law for the prevention of adulteration of food and drugs is required, and manifestly legislation by the Government of India is preferable to local enactments. Then again, without a certain measure of general supervision, the Government of India is scarcely in a position, with propriety, to accept responsibility before the world for the state of the public health of India as a whole and of its component provinces. From the provincial point of view there are occasions when the advice of the Government of India on technical problems would be of the greatest value to provincial Governments, whilst it is the proper authority by means of which, as in the remote past, necessary co-ordination and co-operation between provincial public health services could be preserved. Undue interference with the actions of the local Government would undoubtedly be resented, but expert advice on difficult problems based upon the larger experience of an All-India authority, would be valuable and should be welcomed. It is clearly necessary, too, that in respect of medical education and medical research close co-operation should exist between the central and provincial Governments, whilst there are many public health questions, such as the form and "content" of provincial public health reports, medical education, standards of health, the "observational periods" of disease, definition of stillbirths, etc., in which a uniform practice should prevail throughout India, and this can only be achieved by the co-ordinating authority of the Government of India. Whatever, therefore may be decided in the political sphere, absolute provincial autonomy in respect of health problems can only be attained at the price of inefficiency, and it may confidently be predicted that if this policy is adopted the time will come, perhaps not until after the occurrence of some disaster, when it will have to be revised.

*Note regarding Food and Diet in the Punjab,  
by Lieut.-Colonel C. A. Gill, D.P.H., I.M.S.*

The Punjabi is renowned throughout India for his energy and physique, and these characteristics, in association with high fecundity, have given rise to the conclusion that there can be nothing seriously amiss with the diet of the Punjabi.

Colonel M. C. Carrison has indeed shown that the staple food grains grown in this province are more nourishing—on account of their high vitamin content—than those of the tropical part of India. Another feature of the Punjab is complete absence of "deficiency diseases," such as beri-beri and pellagra and the rarity of rickets and scurvy.

It does not, however, follow from this premise that the Punjabi's diet is adequate in quantity and quality. The Punjab enjoys during about half the year a remarkably stimulating climate and it is possible that the Punjabi is what he is, not because of, but in spite of, his diet.

It is certain at any rate that owing to the variable character of the monsoon livelihood is extremely precarious in many parts of the province—and a few bad monsoons in succession invariably give rise to economic stress and even to famine in districts not protected by canal irrigation.

Conditions bordering on famine do readily occur and economic stress now prevails in the south of the province, where famine relief works were recently opened. In other districts, more especially Kangra, owing to the poverty of the soil, economic stress is almost a normal feature and is reflected in the relatively low birth-rate, high death-rate and the poor physique of the inhabitants. So much so is this the case that the military authorities find it difficult to obtain recruits from this recruiting ground of one branch of the Indian Army.

It is a curious fact that, in spite of precarious livelihood, the rural population display a certain unwillingness to undertake manual labour, as the result of which difficulty is experienced in obtaining unskilled labour for carrying out large engineering projects, which are in consequence largely executed with the aid of the Pathans, Afghans, Kashmiris, Tibetans and others, who visit the Punjab during the cold weather for this purpose.

The rural population is, however, more readily attracted to the towns, in which, as temporary residents, they constitute the bulk of the casual labour employed in mills, factories and other industrial enterprises, whilst many seek employment in menial capacities as messengers, servants, grooms and orderlies. It is with this class of the population—the poorer section of the urban population—that this note is mainly concerned. Speaking generally, although no statistics can be quoted in support of the statement, these emigrants exhibit a poor grade of health and a low standard of efficiency; and, as will be shown, their earnings do not permit them to obtain a physiologically adequate diet.

To what extent their inefficiency is attributable to their low pay cannot be precisely stated, but it is clear that it is not possible to expect high efficiency from underfed persons. The position is, in fact, one of stalemate; the employee complains that he is underpaid, whilst the employer retorts that he is paid what he is worth in accordance with the law of supply and demand. We thus have everywhere, in private houses, offices, mills, factories, railways, etc., excessively large establishments of relatively inefficient and low-paid employees.

But this is not all. The more or less casual labourer is drawn from the countryside, but his wages are so small that he cannot support more than himself on his pay, and the result is the family remains in his village and the home is broken up. This is the case with many menials employed in Government offices in Lahore, who are in a large measure recruited from Kangra and neighbouring districts. Their pay varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 16-8 including Re. 1 as a Lahore allowance. They state that their diet costs about 6 annas per diem and that ordinarily they cannot afford to purchase milk, sugar or ghi. Their diet, they state, is normally as given below, the relatively high cost of atta as compared with prisoners' and soldiers' (vide Table I and II) being due to the fact that it is purchased in small quantities at retail rates:—

			A. p.
Atta (wheat flour) .. .. .	20 ounces		2 6
Pulses .. .. .	4 "		1 6
Vegetables, condiments, fuel	8 "		2 -
			6 0

This diet is not deficient in necessary food factors, but it is unbalanced and defective, more especially in respect of fats and carbo-hydrates. The food value in calories is approximately 2,347, as compared with the Indian Army 3,470 and prisoners in jail 2,847 (vide Tables I and II).

On the other hand, their work is not exacting and they are provided with uniforms and free quarters. At the end of 30 years and on attaining the age of 60 years they earn a pension of Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 p.m., according to the class of the office, and they enjoy a few perquisites. They cannot, however, afford to bring their families to Lahore, nor can they save anything or provide for their families in case of sickness or death.

Their lot is therefore not a happy one, but it is superior to that of the manual labourer on a daily wage of 12 annas per diem, who is often at the mercy of contractors or middlemen. The diet of the latter is not known, but it does probably differ greatly from that of menials on Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per mensem. This diet compares unfavourably with that of prisoners in jails (Table I) and of the Indian Army (Table II), whose dietary has been the subject of official consideration and control.

It will be seen that in the case of the army and the jails the daily cost of the official dietary is 5-25 annas and 2-25 annas respectively. The jail figures, however, do not include the cost of vegetables, which are grown in the jail garden; moreover, the foodstuffs both for the army and the jails are bought at wholesale rates at the most favourable state of the market. We may safely double the figures in the case of the retail purchaser and surmise that the cost of the diet of an average coolie drawing 12 annas a day is about twice that of a prisoner or about 4-5 annas per diem.

The average weight of Punjabis, as judged by prisoners, is approximately 120 lbs. and as the minimum calories to maintain life is 30 calories per kilogram of body weight the diet should provide a minimum of 1,800 calories, whilst the army diet provides 3,470 and the jail diet 2,847 calories and the diet of the average labourer about 2,347 calories.

On this basis the living wage—the wage sufficient to keep body and soul together in respect of food only—for an adult man doing hard labour is somewhere about 5 annas per diem or about Rs. 9 per mensem, but this figure makes no provision

for light, clothes and rent, etc., which might amount to another Rs. 7 per mensem. In other words, a man earning Rs. 16-8 per mensem has just sufficient to live but no more—which is precisely what my chaprasis allege—but not enough to support a wife or family.

How this situation is to be met is a difficult problem.

The suggestion has been made that the imposition of a minimum wage will meet the case. This is a matter upon which I am not competent to express an opinion, but it seems clear that if the wage is fixed too low, it will standardize present conditions, and if too high, it will check industrial development and lead to unemployment. Other possible methods are fewer but more efficient workers on higher pay, but this suggestion is more easily made than carried out.

What appears to be certain is that the present position in which a large section of the poorer classes in urban areas lives permanently on the verge of economic stress is unsatisfactory and that unless action is taken matters will get worse. The fact that industry, which is in a nascent condition at present, is likely to develop rapidly as soon as Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme is completed and cheap power becomes available, requires to be taken into consideration. But in suggesting remedies the need for caution is no less imperative than the need for action.

It may be that the remedy does not lie, at present, in more legislative enactments but in the more rigid enforcement of existing Acts, closer supervision upon the part of Government over the welfare of labour and finally more consideration for the needs of labour upon the part of employers—and more especially of Government, the chief employer.

It is useless drawing up rules and regulations either as regards wages or diets unless it is possible to enforce the former and the people have the wherewithal to purchase food. It is, moreover, useless to increase the pay of labourers if contractors and middlemen are to reap the profit. It is impossible to improve housing conditions unless Government is prepared to bring pressure to bear upon Municipal Committees to put their sanitary houses in order. Finally, it is impossible to enforce any enactments made by Government for the welfare of Labour unless a technical staff—adequate not only in quantity but in quality—is provided to see that they are carried out.

It seems to me that it is along these lines that progress is most likely to be achieved, and it will be clear that these suggestions imply firstly, a new outlook towards the labour problem and, secondly, extensive administrative changes on the lines suggested in my Memorandum on the Health, Sanitation and Housing of Labour in the Punjab.

TABLE I.  
Ration Table.  
Prisoners (Punjab).

Article.	Amount.	Calories.	Proteid.	Fat.	Carbo- hydrate.	Vitamins.				Cash value (approximate)
						A	B	C	D	
Atta .. .. .	20 oz.	2,032	78	10.6	406	+	+ +	-	+	1.35
Dal .. .. .	3½ oz.	311.5	31	4.2	162	+	+ +	-	+	.15
Gram .. .. .	4 oz.	356								
*Sugar .. .. .	1 oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.4 (daily).
Ghi .. .. .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Oil .. .. .	½ oz.	13.5	—	12.0	—	—	—	—	—	.40
Vegetables .. .. .	8 oz.	77.5	4.4	—	44.8	—	+	+ +	—	free
Salt .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.03
Condiments .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.03
Firewood .. .. .	14 oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.10
—		2,880.5	113.4	26.8	612.8	—				2.25 annas.

\* Once a week at present. Government has under consideration the proposal that the sugar ration should be given daily and ghi ½ oz. should be added.

TABLE II.  
Ration Table.  
(A) Indian Army.—Peace scale.

Article.	Amount.	Calories.	Proteid.	Fat.	Carbo- hydrate.	Vitamin values.				Cash value.
						A	B	C	D	
Atta .. .. .	24 oz.	2,514	75.4	8.8	517.8	+	+ +	-	+	annas. 1.91
Dal .. .. .	3 oz.	296	17.1	0.3	54.3	—	+ +	—	—	0.20
Ghi .. .. .	2 oz.	438	0.1	47.1	—	+++	—	—	++	2.15
Sugar .. .. .	1½ oz.	171	—	—	42.5	—	—	—	—	.35
Potatoes or vegetables .. .. .	2	51	1.1	—	11.2	—	+	+ +	—	.15
Salt .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.03
Firewood .. .. .	3 lbs.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.48
Total .. .. .	—	3,470	93.7	56.2	625.8	—				5.27 annas.

## THE REGISTRAR, CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, PUNJAB.

2. In Lahore there are two co-operative printing presses—one Urdu, the other English. The latter is working badly, and may soon have to be closed down; the former is working quite well as a press; but it is questionable whether it is of much co-operative benefit to its members.

3. In the Chhangamanga forest, in Lahore District, there is a supply society for the employees of the forest; this, however, is doing badly, and appears to have practically stopped working. There are also two supply societies among the criminal tribes who work in the forest. These are in a very much better condition. There is a large supply society in Moghalpura, whose members are employees of the railway workshop.

4. At Dhariwal in Gurdaspur District there is a flourishing co-operative society among the employees of the New Egerton Woollen Mills. This society does both supply and loau work, and is very keen on the improvement of its employees' conditions.

This society is entirely exceptional. It is, in fact, unique in the province. Its success is entirely due to the fact that the management of the mills is also the general management and the moving spirit of the society, and that, as the mills are well run, its labour staff stays with it for years. In any mill or factory where circumstances are different, the starting and running of a co-operative society of any kind is entirely out of the question.

At Khewra Salt mines there is a supply society which has gone completely to pieces owing to mismanagement and dishonesty. Arrangements are being made to cancel it. The salt miners here have also four ordinary credit societies, of which one is bad and two are average in quality.

There is a very bad supply society among the salt miners at Varchha in the Khushab Sub-Division. The salt miners at Kalabagh, District Mianwali, have a very successful credit society.

There were several labour societies in the forests and elsewhere, but these have all proved to be unsuccessful, for which the difficulty of persuading local bodies and forest officers of the lower grades to give them work, instead of giving the work to the contractors already known to them, is chiefly responsible.

## THE PUNJAB CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The Punjab is predominantly an agricultural province. Although some industries exist, they are small and cannot be compared with the industries of Bengal, Madras, Bombay and the United Provinces. The few industries that do exist are scattered about throughout the province, and are not situated in one area, as obtains in other provinces. No commercial towns, as such, exist. The industries are confined to cotton ginning presses, woollen and cotton mills, breweries, glassworks and a few other miscellaneous factories, the whole of the labour being small, considering the size of the province, and would not very much exceed the total labour employed in the neighbouring province of Delhi, which is a very much smaller province in comparison. It naturally follows, therefore, that the labour employed in industries other than agricultural are not subject to the same conditions as prevail in large industrial centres. Although the following memorandum will deal mainly with the Delhi Province, it will reflect the conditions obtaining in the Punjab as well.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. Originally when industries started in Delhi thirty or thirty-five years ago labour was recruited from different provinces, principally from Bombay, to work in the cotton mills. Labour from other provinces such as Rajputana and Central India was also recruited, but at the present time it is more or less settled. In recent years, that is, since the transfer of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi, building operations on a very large scale were started, for which labour was imported mostly from Rajputana and Central India.

(ii) The causes of migration are, briefly, skilled labour for the textile industry had to be imported from the Bombay Presidency, where it was already established.

(iii) Owing to the contraction in building operations in recent years in Delhi, recruitment of labour for building purposes has greatly diminished, and as time goes on and Government buildings are completed, it will be on a restricted scale.



2. So far as settled labour is concerned it has very little contact with villages but there is a certain proportion of seasonal labour which maintains contact with villages. Settled labour is more or less confined to those industries such as textile, flour milling, power supply companies, etc., which work all the year round, whereas seasonal labour is attached to those industrial establishments which work during a part of the year only, such as ice factories, foundry works, ginning factories, etc. The proportion of settled labour in Delhi roughly speaking will be 70 per cent., and of seasonal labour 30 per cent., but this proportion is reversed in the Punjab where seasonal industrial establishments such as ice factories, ginning factories, etc., attract the bulk of the labour population.

Labour throughout the Punjab as well as in Delhi is drawn from the labouring classes which have very little land of their own for agricultural purposes. Those workers who are settled with permanent industrial establishments work there all the year round and others connected with seasonal establishments work for the time these industries offer work and for the remaining part of the year they go back to the villages and work as agricultural labourers. They mostly prefer to work in the factories firstly because they get more wages than what they can earn as agricultural labourers and secondly because work on the land is more strenuous than in the factories.

3. As stated above, labour is more or less settled in the permanent industries and not much recruitment is therefore necessary. Yet sometimes when there is any need for skilled labour employers send their agents for recruitment. As regards seasonal labour, the labouring classes known when the seasonal industries start, where they go of their own accord for work, and there is, therefore, not much need of recruitment. There are no public employment agencies, nor is there any need for them.

7. Amongst the working classes there does not seem to be acute unemployment. Therefore the need for unemployment insurance or the application of International Conventions relating to unemployment is hardly felt.

8. (i) As already stated, labour in the permanent industries is more or less settled and the duration of employment is fairly long and the composition of the working population is steady.

(ii) There are, however, casual employments, the percentage of which is very small.

(iii) The chief causes of absenteeism for any length of period may be attributable to sickness. This often happens during the prevalence of malaria in the three months of August, September and October. The proportion of such absenteeism may be stated to be within 10 per cent. of the whole labour population for two months in the year. Other causes of absence are marriage festivals, casual illness and religious ceremonies, but barring marriage, the duration and extent of such absenteeism is negligible. Absence due to malaria is computed at 10 per cent. for two months and other absence at 5 per cent. for the whole of the year and taking 10 annas as the average wage of the workmen, what they lose in wages in a year owing to absence will be Rs. 12,50,000 calculated in the following manner:—

	Rs.
Ten per cent. of the working population of 100,000 (made up of 62,000 in the Punjab and 38,000 in Delhi) absent for 50 days in the year on account of malaria at 10 annas per day per workman .. .. .	3,12,500
Five per cent. of the working population of 100,000 (made up as above) absent for 300 days in the year on account of casual absence at 10 annas per day per workman .. .. .	9,37,500
	12,50,000

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. Selection of the managing staff is made after considering the individual's experience and ability. Recruitment of supervising staff is made in the same way as that of the managing staff, namely by advertisement as well as by means of personal contact. Owing to lack of education it is not easy to train labourers for promotion to the superior staff and there are, therefore, not many facilities to train them. What they learn is by experience.

13. Relations between the staff and rank and file are generally cordial.

Works committees and works councils do not exist in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi.

14. Time-keeping, piecework, contract and attendance registers are kept by the managing staff according to the provisions of the Indian Factories Act and they are checked by the factory inspector now and then. As regards wages, in big establishments labourers are paid by the accounts staff under the supervision of a responsible officer of the employer.

15. Contractors as intermediaries are unknown in these provinces but the piece-work system is in vogue. This refers to industrial undertakings only but in the building profession sub-contract is quite general and its effect is satisfactory.

### III.—Housing.

16. In the permanently established industries housing is provided by the employers to a great extent but neither Government nor any other public agency provides housing for the labouring classes. A certain percentage of workers, however, live in rented tenements provided by private landlords.

17. As far back as 1920 a suggestion was made by Government as to the desirability of interesting local Governments in the matter of housing which this chamber fully endorsed and it is understood that Government always assist by leasing out its land for industrial concerns on favourable terms.

18. Accommodation provided by the employers is generally satisfactory and in most cases is far better than the standard of houses in which the working population lives in its village home. In providing accommodation the employer gives due consideration for the needs of the labourer and builds houses to suit his requirements, and not to any demand of his as no such demand is generally made. From the health point of view such accommodation is generally satisfactory. As regards conservancy and water supply, adequate provision is made, but as regards lighting, except in rare instances, it is not provided.

19. Whatever accommodation is made available by the employer is utilized by the worker.

20. Accommodation provided to the superior staff is rarely charged for, whereas in the case of workers the rent fixed is uneconomical to the employer which varies from 40 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent.

21. Sub-letting and occupation of employers' houses by tenants in other employ are non-existent. Cases of eviction are very rare and workers are only evicted when they leave their work, but in that case they are given adequate time to make arrangements for shifting.

22. The moral effect of industrial housing conditions on the worker has not been found detrimental for otherwise there would be many instances of disturbances in areas where houses for labourers are situated.

### IV.—Health.

23. The general health conditions of workers are satisfactory. Statistics of mortality, etc., are not kept and it is therefore not possible to give figures. It cannot be said that the present housing of industrial labourers is responsible for any increase in mortality. There is no marked effect shown owing to unequal sex ratio in the cities of Amritsar, Lahore and Delhi where the permanent industries of the two provinces are located.

24. The extent of medical facilities provided by the employers is considered adequate. No medical facilities are provided by Government or by any other public agency specially for labour except in the case of the Delhi Municipality which maintains a dispensary near the Delhi Cloth and General Mills for their labour population. This was done at the instance of the secretary of the mills who donated Rs. 10,000 for the purpose. Provision for women doctors does not exist but in certain places midwives and dhais are engaged on a restricted scale.

25. Medical facilities are generally utilized by the workpeople both male and female.

26. Sanitary arrangements at workplaces are adequate and satisfactory. Latrines and drinking water are adequately provided for, but as regards bathing and washing no special arrangement is generally made.

27. In municipal areas inspection by the health officer and his staff is frequently made. In other places the inspector of factories is the only person who makes the inspection as regards sanitary arrangements in addition to his other duties.

28. Control of temperature in factories and humidification of mills has attracted the attention of Government and statistics are now being collected for the purpose.

29. The prevalence of industrial diseases is unknown in the Punjab and Delhi Provinces but sporadic cases of cholera are reported now and then. Malaria, however, is generally prevalent and affects the industrial population. Hookworm and other tropical diseases are unknown.

30. Provision for sickness insurance in this country does not exist.

This Chamber, however, views with sympathy any scheme of sickness insurance on a restricted scale and a reference made to it by the Government of India on this subject in September, 1928, was considered by it and generally approved. The Chamber is of opinion that sickness insurance should be made compulsory and made applicable to workers in organized industries, the cost of the scheme to fall equally, in the proportion of one-third, on the worker, the employer and the State. It also holds the view that the scheme to be successful in its initial stage should be applied only within well-defined limits, either regional or industrial or both, and that legislation, as in the case of the Indian Factories Act should be central.

31. In a very restricted scale maternity benefits are available. An allowance of three months' wages is in certain cases given to women labourers, that is, two months before and one month after confinement. A Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits was introduced by the prominent labour leader, Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly and employers of labour are sympathetic towards the general principles underlying the Bill.

#### V.—Welfare.

32, 33, 34, 35 and 36. Employers of labour in well-established industries have now taken up welfare work more or less and the extent of such work at the present time is on a moderate scale. As regards other agencies, social reform workers also have taken it up. Employment of welfare officers and workers is also coming into vogue, though only on a small scale. Provision for refreshments, etc., is made by established industries which make them available on payment. For physical culture, recreation and amusements, facilities are provided and the results achieved have been satisfactory. Provision of educational facilities by employers is made by industries in urban areas for adult workers, half-time workers, and for workers' children and they are fairly well used.

40. The Delhi Municipality have now enforced compulsory primary education in certain wards and it is expected that illiteracy among the workers in those wards would gradually be removed.

41. In certain urban areas facilities are provided for industrial education but they are still on a restricted scale.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. Those industries which come under the purview of the Indian Factories Act and the Mines Act are bound under rules to undertake safety measures for the prevention of accidents among workers.

44. Statistics of accidents will be found published each year in the Annual Report of the Working of the Factories Act for each province.

The appalling illiteracy and absence of education amongst the workpeople is mainly responsible for preventable accidents and in certain cases the drink habit amongst the workers must be considered as one of the factors causing accidents.

46. Employers as a whole take adequate precaution for preventing accidents whether in factories or industries regulated by the Factories Act or not.

48. The first-aid and medical relief provisions are also satisfactory.

49. Stringency of inspection and enforcement of regulations are generally at times more than necessary both in seasonal and permanent industries.

50. It is not disputed that long hours of work, ill-health and poor working conditions always reduce the margin of safety and employers generally are alive to this fact.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. The use of the Workmen's Compensation Act in recent years has been fairly extensive as will be evident from the fact that intelligent employers always have had recourse to insurance against accidents to workmen. It is yet too early to say whether this Act apart from humanitarian considerations has done any actual benefit to the industries generally. It is not perhaps wrong to say that workers are not fully alive to the benefits of this Act to make them more efficient.

(e) Regarding the desirability of compulsory insurance by employers the Chamber is of opinion that every employer should be compelled to insure so as to secure workmen from possible hardship by reason of the inability of the employer to pay compensation.

53. Scales of compensation and conditions governing grant of compensation prescribed under the Act are considered satisfactory.

## IX.—Hours of Work.

55. The normal hours of work are ten hours per day, but in exceptional circumstances overtime of an hour is granted under the Indian Factories Act.

(iii) Except for the period of interval during which time the worker is not on call, hours of work are calculated so long as the worker is present at the establishment, whether he is actually at work or not.

56. *Days worked per week*.—Six days.

57. The effect of 60 hours' restriction both on workers as well as on the industry is salutary.

58. The effect of the daily limit is equally beneficial.

59. There is no possibility of reduction in the maxima of hours of work as fixed for India under the Washington Hours Convention. At the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva this year, the employers' delegate, Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai, of Ahmedabad, made pointed reference to the special circumstances as provided in Article 405 of the Treaty of Versailles, under which hours of work for industrial workers in this country was fixed. This maximum of 60 hours a week is considered suitable for this country, and its reduction is not desirable.

60. The existing practice of granting one hour's interval has worked well both in relation to fatigue as well as to workers' meal times. As already stated, the hours of work were fixed by law and are found suitable. The number of holidays given is generally restricted. Except those provided by the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act holidays granted are almost entirely for religious ceremonies.

61. Generally speaking, Sundays are observed as days of rest, but in certain establishments week-days are also resorted to for the purpose. In all cases when there are not other holidays only one day in the week is allowed as weekly rest day.

78. The industrial establishments which do not come either under the Indian Factories Act or under the Indian Mines Act are not restricted with regard to hours of work. The desirability of the regulation of hours of work is recognised, but how far it will be possible to have it in effect is doubtful.

81. The effect of the 1922 Act on women, young adults and children has been satisfactory.

82. The admission of infants to the working premises of industrial establishments is prohibited by law. The provisions in the Indian Factories Act regulating women's work are satisfactory, and the same can be said of the work of children.

84. Hours of work, intervals, maximum and minimum wages fixed, have worked well.

85. Double employment of children is unknown.

86. Young adults are in some industrial establishments trained as apprentices, but this is not very general.

87. The dismissal of children on attaining full age is also unknown.

88. Women and children are prohibited under the Indian Factories Act to work at night. Those industries which work double shift employ them during the day.

## XII.—Wages.

101. Fixing of wages of the superior staff in industrial establishments is generally done by written agreement. As regards workmen they are fixed more or less verbally. Workers employed for more than 60 hours a week are paid overtime wages at a rate not less than one and a-quarter times the normal wages.

103. Standardization of wages is generally non-existent.

106. Deductions for bad and negligent work are not rare. Fining also is not infrequent, but such fines are generally used towards workers' welfare work.

107. The system of monthly payment of wages is generally in vogue in industrial undertakings in the provinces of the Panjab and Delhi. Some of them, however, pay wages fortnightly. Wages earned are generally paid within the 15th of the next month.

108. The indebtedness of the industrial worker is almost general.

109. Schemes for the payment of bonuses in industrial undertakings are generally based on production, but such bonuses are restricted to certain industries only. Profit-sharing schemes are unknown.

110. Workers are not generally allowed any annual or other periodical leave except without pay. But the supervising staff are usually allowed leave with full pay, and this varies in different establishments. As regards loss to workers of backlying wages arising out of their being absent on leave such instances are rare. Unless workers themselves are negligent about demanding or realizing them backlying wages are always paid.

#### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112 and 113. It is admittedly a fact that in recent years efficiency of workers has improved, though slowly, and as regards comparative efficiency between Indian and foreign workers there is no doubt that the Indian worker is very much less efficient than the foreign worker. The appalling illiteracy of the Indian worker is, to a certain extent, responsible for this.

114. Comparative efficiency of plant and perhaps management contribute greatly to the lack of efficiency of the Indian worker. Health, physique, and standards of living cannot be said to affect it to any appreciable degree, but climatic conditions surely are to a great extent responsible for the Indian worker being less efficient.

115. It is doubtful whether changes in working hours will cause any increased production, whereas changes in working conditions may do so. Industries generally are in such a depressed condition at present that it is impossible for the employers to undertake any further extensive programme for the cause of health, sanitation, housing, etc. It is not understood what alteration in the method of remuneration would affect production unless it is meant to introduce piece-work system, which is already in vogue. As regards movements in wage levels, as already stated, industries are in a depressed condition, and it will be difficult for them to bear any further burden which raising the level of wages entails. It is also extremely doubtful whether raising the level of wages will mean any corresponding increase in efficiency. It may even have a contrary effect. As regards alcohol and drugs, absolute prohibition will not only raise the moral standard of the worker but will also increase his efficiency.

116. Not only primary education but provision for technical education amongst the working-classes and the introduction of up-to-date machinery will contribute to a very large extent to secure increased efficiency among Indian workers.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Compared to workers' associations, the employers in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi are fairly well organized.

118. The effect of employers' organizations on industry has been satisfactory, but it cannot be said that the workers' organizations have contributed much to the improvement of the condition of the workers. It must, however, be said that discontent among the workers in these provinces is very rare, and they are more or less happy, as will be evident from the few strikes and lock-outs.

119. Trade union activities in these provinces are not well organized, and therefore not much history of their constitution can be given. The same applies also to the question whether the workers participate in mutual aid benefit schemes, such as payment during unemployment, sickness, old age, etc. It can, however, safely be said that no such schemes by the so-called trade unions are in existence.

122. Whenever there is any dispute between the employer and the employed some political leaders of the locality take up the workmen's cause and ultimately some compromise is arrived at. But as no serious disturbance has taken place in recent years in these two provinces no comment can be made as to the suitability or otherwise of such methods. Generally speaking, the relation between the employer and the employed in these provinces is cordial.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. The effect of differences in the law relating to working conditions or administration between Indian States and British India has been to the detriment of the latter in various ways. It will be evident from the speech of Mr. Furt Wangler, the German workers' delegate at the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference, held at Geneva (May-June, 1929), that there is an impression abroad that the Factories Act in India is not seriously administered, and that the ratification of the Washington Hours Convention is merely in name. This impression has been caused by the want of any strict regulation in the Indian States about the hours of work, etc., an impression which certainly is undeservedly to the detriment of British

India in international circles. This is one aspect of the question, whereas from the employers' point of view the factories situated in Indian States have practically no regulations about hours of work, employment of women and children, etc., so that they can favourably compete with the factories situated in British India. No doubt when the Commission sat in connection with the Peace Treaty in January, 1919, H.H. the Maharaja of Bikaner made a reservation that whatever the representative Lord Sinha accepted on behalf of the Government of India would not apply to Indian States. Yet every representative of the employers from this country to the last International Labour Conference at Geneva brought this matter up and while Sir A. Chatterjee, the delegate of the Government of India, explained the defects connected with the introduction of similar factories legislation in native states, the Secretary-General of the International Labour Organization, in reviewing the position, said, "Will the work, partial but still considerable, accomplished in British India for the production of labour survive if competitive industries, exempt from all social charges, develop uncontrolled in the native states?"

There is no doubt that uniformity of legislation is very desirable from all points of view.

198. It has already been said that want of education amongst the workpeople is universal. This being the case, it is not expected that they should be fully acquainted with factory legislation. At the same time it must be said that they have a faint idea as to the significance of the inspections often done by the Government agencies.

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Mr. H. F. ASHTON, CHIEF ENGINEER, PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT  
IRRIGATION BRANCH.

I.—Recruitment.

The works carried out on open canals are in the aggregate large, but taken individually they are small; it is only occasionally that large works may become necessary at a headworks, or perhaps on a main canal. As the works are scattered over large areas it follows that practically all labour employed on open canals is employed in small bodies and comes from villages near the sites of works. This local labour is composed of cultivators and village menials who turn to canal works when agricultural operations are slack and wages offered tempting; these men will not take up work more than two or three miles away from their villages to which they return each night. There is but little "migratory" or "imported" labour on open canals, as there is seldom sufficient concentrated work for it; it is only when some big work has to be carried out that the employment of "imported" labour becomes necessary and economical.

As regards canals under construction the employment of "local" or "imported" labour depends on the conditions of the tract in which the canal is being constructed. In tracts thinly populated practically all labour is "imported," but there have been cases recently of new canals being constructed in tracts already poorly served by inundation canals in which "local" labour was easy to get; in these "local" labour has been mainly employed.

Imported labour is of two kinds:—(1) Permanent, (2) migratory.

The permanent labour is merely of the "Baghri" and "Od" classes from round about Bikaner; they move about in large groups, going from one big work to another. They are the most skilled earthwork labour obtainable. The numbers of these classes are decreasing annually, due to increased irrigation and labour conditions in the Bikaner State.

The migratory labour comes from Afghanistan and the North-West Frontier Province, and from the dry districts of the Punjab, where rainfall is scanty and conditions bordering on famine frequently prevail. The labour from Afghanistan and the North-West Frontier Province will work only under contractors from their own tracts, and practically all return to their homes for the hot weather.

They form the largest body of migratory earthwork labour in the Punjab during the winter months. The amount of labour obtainable from the dry districts of the Punjab depends entirely on rainfall conditions in the monsoon; in a good monsoon they are hard to obtain.

Statistics of labour employed on open canals are not maintained; statistics maintained on canals under construction show that (a) in one circle the average number of men employed daily from 1st January, 1925, to 31st October, 1926, was 6,644; the maximum number was 12,414 in February, 1926, and the minimum 3,431

in October, 1925; (b) at a headworks now nearing completion the average number employed daily from beginning of November, 1926, to end of June, 1929, was 2,172 men, the maximum number being 5,448 in February, 1929, and the minimum 945 in August, 1927.

3. (ii) There appears to be no necessity for any change in methods of recruitment. It is usually the employer who seeks out the labour and not *vice versa*. "Local" labour is not dependent solely on works; contractors have to go from village to village seeking it out, and unless they treat it fairly and properly the labour just quits work. "Imported" labour has not only to be sought out but usually will not move out unless advances of money are given.

There is no unemployment in the labouring classes which work on canal works.

It is considered that public employment agencies would not be successful; they would not go from village to village to seek out labour, and the labour certainly would not go to them looking for work.

The present methods of recruitment work quite satisfactorily and are suited to local conditions.

4. There is no serious disturbance of family life in the case of labour imported for canal works, as the permanent labour bring their families with them and the other imported labour come only for short periods.

7. *Unemployment*.—The only unemployment of which I am aware is amongst the educated classes (men who have passed or failed to pass the matriculation examination), and whose one and only aim in life is to get into Government service of some kind.

## II.—Staff Organization.

10, 11, and 12. Appendix I shows the number of engineer officers and subordinates on each canal; each of these officers and subordinates has under his charge a certain portion of the tract served by the canal. The officers are trained at engineering colleges in England and India; the subordinates at the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, and the Government School of Engineering, Rasul, mainly at the latter.

In addition each subordinate is allowed a certain number—dependent on the amount of work in hand—of "mistris" and "mates" for the immediate supervision of work.

"Mistris" are men of a little education who have learnt to read plans and drawings, and are frequently skilled workmen, e.g., masons, carpenters, etc.

"Mates" are usually illiterate and are selected from the ordinary labour for intelligence and force of character in getting work done. Both these classes are employed for the immediate supervision of works to ensure that orders are properly carried out and good sound work is done.

13. Relations between staff and labour are usually good.

15. Practically all work on canals is done through the agency of contractors, who are really only suppliers of labour; for instance, in the construction of masonry works Government supplies the materials and the supervising staff, the contractor supplies merely the masons and unskilled labour.

Regular contracts specifying rates, quantities and time limit are used only for brick manufacture.

All other works are carried out on "work orders" in which only rates and kinds of work are specified, quantities and time limits not being mentioned.

Under the "work order" system the contractor can stop work at any time if he is not satisfied and similarly the officer in charge can stop the work. This system has been found very satisfactory indeed and no change is necessary.

Relations between contractors and labour are generally very good; if anything, the labour has the upper hand, as it simply will not turn out if it is not treated well by a contractor. Contractors have to be and are very careful to treat their labour well.

Sub-contracting is not countenanced, but is carried on no doubt to a limited extent on large works.

In the case of large masonry works in particular, the masons are paid on piece-work and do not receive a fixed daily wage.

## III.—Housing.

16 and 18. Government provides housing for those of its employees who are required to live at particular sites for the proper performance of their duties. For unskilled labour the accommodation provided usually consists of one room 10 ft. by 10 ft., with a verandah for each man; a certain number of such quarters are provided

with small courtyards, these are for men who have their families with them. This accommodation is usually equal to and sometimes superior to what the men have in their own villages. As already stated, the labour generally employed on canals comes from neighbouring villages to which it returns at night.

Works on canals usually do not last long, the great majority do not last as long as six months. On big works which may last up to five years, "imported" labour is generally used and contractors are given an allowance for "hutting" this labour. The labour itself makes the walls, the contractors supplying the roofing materials.

19. The accommodation provided by Government is always utilized if three or four men or families are to live in close proximity; it is difficult to get isolated quarters occupied because of the prevalence of robbery.

20. Rent rates in various classes in cases of accommodation provided by Government.

*Skilled Labour.*—(a) Those drawing over Rs. 100 per mensem pay up to 10 per cent. of their salary as rent, or 6 per cent. of the capital cost of the building, whichever is less.

(b) Those drawing above Rs. 50 but under Rs. 100 per mensem pay up to 5 per cent. of their salary as rent.

(c) Those drawing less than Rs. 50 per mensem get rent-free quarters. No menial or coolie labour pay rent.

#### IV.—Health.

23. The labour employed on canals is usually very healthy; all work being done in the open air and therefore under very healthy conditions. Statistics of mortality are not maintained, but the figures must be very low.

(iii) (a) and (b) In the case of the subordinates, clerical and menial establishments on an up-to-date public work in India I am of opinion that outside of climate the working and housing conditions, combined with the medical aid easily obtainable free, and the general sanitation is such as should ensure a better standard of health than were they living at home if their home is in a town, while if their home is in a village there would not be such a marked superiority—the latter opinion is applicable to the permanent labour in even a great degree principally owing to medical aid.

(iv) In the case of the artificers and coolies I should think, from casual observation, that their food is plentiful, and unless the person concerned belongs to an entirely different and remote part of India he probably has no great difficulty in obtaining a diet according to his requirements.

(v) The physique of all classes of labour in Northern India is, of course, vastly superior to that of any other part of the country. The Baghri has not such a fine physique, but his output is correspondingly less. These are the natural characteristics of the races, and labour on public works should tend to improve rather than impair their physique.

24. Contractors provide no medical facilities—these are provided by Government. Generally in each assistant engineer's charge—known as a sub-division—a dispensary under the charge of a sub-assistant surgeon is provided at which medicines and attendances are given free of charge to labour and their families. The sub-assistant surgeon does not stay at headquarters only; he can be called out to attend to labour and Government employees by any subordinate, and for this purpose is provided with a travelling medicine chest. At canal headworks where large bodies of labour are employed, a large dispensary with a ward for two to four or more in-patients, under the charge of an assistant surgeon, is provided.

25. (i) The medical facilities provided by Government are freely used and much appreciated; most of the canal dispensaries on open canals have now been thrown open to the public and are used freely by villagers to whom no charge is made.

(ii) Women do avail themselves of medical aid, but I should say principally from the physician's rather than the surgeon's side, there being many obstacles in the way of the latter.

26. (i) Latrines and other sanitary arrangements do not exist in villages from which labour is drawn, and are not required where labour is employed only temporarily. Latrines, etc., are provided by Government at all canal headworks, inspection houses, etc., where labour is employed steadily.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. There is very little machinery used on canal works and accidents are very few and far between. As already stated, most of the work is done out in the open air.



### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. Where an accident does occur compensation is given as soon as possible in accordance with the Workmen's Compensation Act.

53. (ii) The granting of such compensation is a cumbersome process at present, and should be simplified so that actual payment can be made more quickly than is at present possible, especially as accidents are very few and far between.

### IX.—Hours.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

78-80. Hours and days of working are somewhat elastic, except in workshops, where definite hours must be adhered to in order to run the shops in a businesslike manner. Workshops are at work for about nine hours a day with a suitable interval in the middle of the day, the length of this interval varies with the time of the year. Outside the shops hours are elastic; labour usually works about nine hours a day, but there are no fixed hours. In the summer months the working hours are usually 6 a.m. to 10.30 or 11.0 a.m., and again from 3.30 or 4 p.m. till about sundown; in winter the hours are from about 9 a.m. till sundown with a suitable interval for food about mid-day. Offices are closed on Sundays, but this applies to clerical establishments only; in the ordinary canal officer's and subordinate's lives there are no fixed hours for work on any day and work goes on throughout the seven days of the week.

There are so many religious festivals during the year on which labour will not work, that having a fixed day of rest per week would very seriously affect the earnings of labour and progress of the work. There is no necessity for any regulations for labour employed on canal works, the labour is perfectly happy and contented under present conditions.

#### X.—Employment of Women.

92. Women and children are not employed in canal department workshops; in fact are not employed directly by the canal department at all.

Women, but not children, are found working in contractor's "imported" labour, not "local labour." They do not work as long hours as the men, and do not get the same wages.

There is no need for any regulations regarding their employment; usually work is not done during the night, and if ever done during the night women are not employed on night work.

### XII.—Wages.

96 and 97. Labour employed by Government is employed either on monthly wage or daily wage. The present sanctioned monthly wage for unskilled labour is Rs. 13 per mensem, while this is just sufficient for light work such as watchmen, it is not sufficient for men who are expected to patrol canal channels and keep them in order. For such a low wage only old and decrepit men are obtainable, men quite unsuited to the work required, but the canal department has not yet been able to persuade the Finance Department that this wage is inadequate, and that it is mere waste of money to employ men on such wage.

The daily wage demanded by unskilled labour varies greatly with the time of year and what agricultural operations are in hand; when agriculture requires no labour men can be obtained at 8 annas per diem each, but when Rabi is being harvested the daily wage rises to Re. 1 and over.

Generally speaking, daily wages may be taken as:—

	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	
Coolies (men)	0	8	0	to	1	0	0 per diem.
Coolies (women)	0	6	0	..	0	12	0
Carpenters	1	12	0	..	2	8	0
Blacksmiths	1	8	0	..	2	4	0
Masons	1	12	0	..	2	8	0
Tinsmiths	1	12	0	..	2	0	0
Turners	2	4	0	..	2	12	0
Fitter, first class	2	8	0	..	2	12	0
Fitters, second-class	2	0	0	..	2	4	0
Moulders	—	—	—	..	2	4	0
Hammerman and oilmen	—	—	—	..	1	0	0

100. In regard to labour employed by contractors labour employed on earthwork is usually paid on "piece-work," that employed on masonry and other works is paid daily wages as above.

101. Wages are fixed initially, partly on experience of recent work and partly on supply and demand; there is no real standardization of wages, and there is no real necessity for statutory establishment of minimum wages.

107. Wages are paid to labour employed by Government 10 daily or monthly and usually 10 to 15 days in arrears, this delay in payment is due to audit requirements. There appears to be no necessity for any further regulation. Unclaimed wages are treated strictly in accordance with code rules ; wages unclaimed for more than three months are credited to Government.

108. Fining is almost non-existent.

109. A system of bonus payments to contractors has been introduced on the Sutlej Valley canals now nearing completion of construction with considerable success ; such a system properly managed is bound to produce a considerable improvement in out-turn.

**XIV.—Trade Combination.**

117. On canal works there are no trade combinations of either employers or employed, and there have hitherto been no strikes or lock-outs. As already explained, labour generally has the upper hand and has to be treated properly and fairly by contractors. Contractors are usually far too keen on making profits and too jealous of each other to treat their labour in any but a fair manner.

**XV.—Industrial Disputes.**

123. As there have been no strikes or lock-outs there has been no necessity for any conciliation and arbitration machinery.

**XVI.—Law of Master and Servants.**

127. The effect of the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act has been that contractors have to be more careful than they used to be in the treatment of labour, since they have had to give the labour advances of money to get it on to the works.

**APPENDIX I.**

Serial No.	Name of Circle.	Gross Area commanded in Square Miles.	Engineering Staff.				Remarks.
			Superintending Engineers.	Executive Engineers.	Assistant Engineers.	Subordinates.	
1	Western Jumna Canal ..	4,413	1	4	12	53	—
2	Sirhind Canal { British ..	3,786	}	4	12	69	—
	States ..	3,054					
3	Derajat ..	3,550	1	3	9	46	—
4	Upper Bari Doab Canal ..	2,562	1	4	10	52	—
5	Lower Bari Doab Canal ..	2,779	1	4	11	47	—
6	Upper Chenab Canal ..	2,416	1	4	11	55	—
7	Lower Chenab Canal (West and East).	5,650	2	7	20	97	—
8	Upper Jhelum Canal ..	915	1	3	10	40	—
9	Lower Jhelum Canal ..	2,295	1	5	12	61	—
10	1st British { British ..	2,206	}	4	12	72	—
	Bahawalpur ..	145					
11	2nd British ..	2,138	1	4	11	66	—
12	3rd British ..	1,250	1	3	7	42	—
13	1st Bahawalpur ..	2,390	1	4	17	102	—
14	2nd Bahawalpur ..	2,219	1	4	12	72	—
15	3rd Bahawalpur ..	2,274	1	5	21	126	—

Colonel H. M. MACKENZIE, M.B., I.M.S., INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF CIVIL HOSPITALS, PUNJAB.

The heads of the subject matter with which I am concerned are :—

**IV.—Health.**

24. Since the State provides all the necessary medical aid free of cost, it is probable that the need for providing medical aid by private employers has not been felt. Poor people, who include all labourers, receive free medical attendance, free medicines and free lying-in accommodation in hospitals and dispensaries maintained by Government and local bodies.

One of the greatest needs of this Province is the provision of medical aid for women by doctors of their own sex. The profession of medicine appeals to very few Indian women in spite of many inducements held out in the shape of scholarships, stipends, etc. Included in the scheme for the expansion of medical relief, to which reference will be made later, there is provision for (a) the building of good up-to-date hospitals for women under the charge of a lady assistant surgeon at the head-quarters of each district, and (b) the addition of a female section under the charge of a lady sub-assistant surgeon at the headquarters of selected Tahsils. This scheme is progressing steadily but its ultimate success depends entirely upon the women themselves.

Women are trained as Sub-assistant surgeons in the Punjab Medical School for Women, Ludhiana, which is a Government aided institution, and as midwives, dais, nurses, nurse dais and dispensers at that institution and at various centres scattered over the Province. Women, after completing their training, are employed in hospitals and dispensaries in the districts.

The conservatism of Indian women in the Punjab causes them to eye with suspicion any attempt at innovation or at drawing them away from established customs, and the untrained indigenous dai is an important factor in village life, and still carries on an extensive practice among the ignorant masses. The indigenous dai will continue to ply her trade and, until she can be successfully supplanted by a trained worker, she will continue to be a menace whose existence is, to a very large extent, responsible for the appalling infant mortality. The remedy for this state of affairs lies in educating public opinion.

There are in the Punjab 964 hospitals and dispensaries of all classes and these cater for the medical needs of the entire population. A scheme for the establishment of rural dispensaries was devised and received the sanction of the Punjab Government in the latter half of 1925. This scheme aims at the establishment of one dispensary for every 100 square miles of territory, or for every 30,000 of population, and it was found that, in order to attain this ideal, it would be necessary to open 375 dispensaries in rural areas. The entire cost was to be borne by Government in the shape of grants-in-aid and funds available for the purpose were necessarily limited. A standard plan was recommended to district boards and Government agreed to give a grant of Rs. 5,400 for the construction and Rs. 1,600 for the equipment of each dispensary. The following figures show the number of rural dispensaries opened during the years 1925-29 :—1925-26, 21 ; 1926-27, 86 ; 1927-28, 105 ; 1928-29, 88.

It is proposed to establish 55 more dispensaries during the current financial year, and the remaining during the next financial year, thus bringing the whole scheme into operation.

The Departments of Public Works, Forests, Surveys and Criminal Tribes are perhaps the largest Government employers of labour and in every place where these departments operate and employ labour there exist Government dispensaries maintained by the departments themselves, or by the Provincial Government or by local bodies, and these cater for the medical needs of the labour employed. There are 120 Canal, 2 Forest and Survey dispensaries and 20 other dispensaries, of which some are maintained by the Criminal Tribes Department, and others by the Buildings and Roads Branch of the Public Works Department. The number of hospitals and dispensaries of the various classes are given below :—

State public	..	..	..	..	..	..	65
Police	..	..	..	..	..	..	31
Forestry and Survey	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Canal	..	..	..	..	..	..	120
Others	..	..	..	..	..	..	20
Local fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	354
Private non-aided	..	..	..	..	..	..	8
Railway	..	..	..	..	..	..	66
Rural	..	..	..	..	..	..	264
Private aided	..	..	..	..	..	..	34
Total	..	..	..	..	..	..	964

25. The medical facilities provided are utilized extensively by the public generally and the figures of attendance at hospitals and dispensaries go to show that the institutions are popular. There are 36 institutions where special arrangements exist : some of these are hospitals exclusively for women and some ordinary dispensaries where a special section is set apart for the treatment of women by women doctors.

30. No difficulty arises in this province from non-acceptability of scientific medicine and, so far as my information goes, Government employes rarely have recourse to the indigenous systems of medicine.

The committee formed to investigate and report found that there was much unemployment among medical graduates and that the only way in which the unemployment could be lessened was to subsidize private practitioners in order to induce them to practise in rural areas. This solution presented considerable practical difficulties and was not adopted.

Miss AHMAD SHAH, INSPECTRESS, CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, PUNJAB.

### III.—Housing.

18. *Nature of Accommodation provided in each Class—(ii) in relation to the best type from health point of view.*—This point is not kept in view on the whole, while providing accommodation for the workers. The idea kept in mind is :—“ What kind of a house a man has been used to.”

There is a mistake in this, because a man can put up in all sorts of places, while he is free from the bondage of service, in such a free state there are many other things to make up for the lack of a good house.

On the other hand, especially in a hot country, with a depressing climate for most of the year, when a man comes into the bondage of service, he loses several advantages of a free life. He is pressed with the strain and anxieties of duty, and therefore needs a comfortable house where he can recoup and refresh his exhausted and strained body and mind and keep himself fit for work.

### IV.—Health.

29. *Disease.*—The health of the wives and children of the clerks and other low paid workers is steadily deteriorating ; as for the health of the men, it can be easily judged when these men expect to die at the age of 50 or 55 years, because the houses provided for or rented by them are small and crowded ; too hot and suffocating in summer, and badly ventilated in winter. In such houses tuberculosis is spreading by leaps and bounds and victims cannot afford to protect themselves.

30. *Sickness Insurance—(iii) how to meet difficulties arising from non-acceptability of western medicines.*—There is a misunderstanding here : because those who can afford to get the best western medicines prefer them to the eastern treatments. The cause of non-acceptability lies in the fact, that in most dispensaries the medicines given to the patients, especially to the poor, are mostly a watery mixture with only a part of the prescribed medicines. These sort of mixtures do no good, on the contrary the patients form a mistaken opinion of western medicines and begin to avoid them and tell others to do so also.

This can be remedied by providing large stocks of fresh and good medicines in the dispensaries and by employing conscientious dispensers and compounders in hospitals.

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### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) In the absence of statistics, it is almost impossible to measure arithmetically the extent of the migration of labourers and workmen both skilled and unskilled into Punjab from the outside provinces and *vice versa*. As I have already said in section I, quite a good number of unskilled labourers hail from Kashmere, Rajputana, N.W. F. Province, and United Provinces, and some of the skilled labourers come from United Provinces, Bombay and Calcutta. From Punjab, both skilled and to some extent unskilled, also go to other provinces and even to Africa and Persian Gulf. So some labourers go from the Punjab and some come to it from outside. Both the streams run to and fro, and it is difficult to mark their velocity with any certainty and precision. It may be said, however, that emigration is far less than immigration.

2. *Causes of particular streams of Migration*—(a) *the Kashmere stream*.—The people of the Kashmere State are generally very poor. There are no industries worth the name there. On account of the mountaneous nature of the country, agriculture cannot be carried on on a grand scale there. The result is that there is much employment there. Hence a number of Kashmiris called "Hatoes" migrate into Punjab to work as labourers here. Being inhabitants of a cold country, they cannot stand the intense heat and scorching sun of the Punjab. They are therefore "birds of passage" only. They come in the beginning of winter and go back at its end. Being very poor indeed and being absolute simpletons, they are far cheaper than the local labourers, and work much harder than the local ones. They are therefore in great demand during the winter months. This is another reason of their streaming into Punjab in large numbers.

(b) *The Frontier Stream*.—The chief reason of the Pathan's migration in the Punjab is that some of the big Khans take big contracts from the North Western Railway and the Public Works Department, and so forth, and they bring their own Pathan labour from the frontier.

(c) *The Rajputana Stream*.—The Rajputana and the surrounding country is a vast sandy and rainless desert. The people are extremely poor. They therefore come to the Punjab to earn their livelihood. They are very meek, docile and obedient people, and never shirk from any hard work. Being residents of a hot country, they work in the Punjab in the hot weather without minding in the least its clemency. They seldom mix with the Punjabees. They never quarrel. They are generally cheap and of simple habits. They are, therefore, in great demand everywhere, particularly in the building industry. They come with their families. The women do as much work as the men and charge less than the men. Their children also work. It is therefore they come in large numbers to the Punjab, and get on very nicely here.

(d) *The United Province Stream*.—The United Provinces is undoubtedly a Landlord-ridden Province. There are big "Zemindaris" there. This being so, majority of the people are either tenants or labourers. Not finding enough employment in their own country, they resort to the Punjab. They are not very popular with the Punjabees, but on account of their comparative cheapness, they are employed in different factories in this Province.

(e) *The Punjab Stream*.—Some Punjabi labourers, mostly skilled, as has been already stated, go to Sind, Baluchistan, Bombay, Calcutta and to foreign countries like Africa, Strait Settlements and the Persian Gulf. The more adventurous naturally go to the foreign countries, for they are by far better paid there. Sind and Baluchistan lack in skilled labour. It is therefore imported there from the Punjab. The wages there are certainly higher than they are in the Punjab. Another class of skilled labourers, mostly motor drivers and motor mechanics, who got their training to serve in Mesopotamia during the Great War, find good business in the rich cities of Bombay and Calcutta. Fitters, engine drivers and mechanics find employment in Jamshedpur and Jharra on better wages. It is on account of these reasons that the Punjab labour, too, stream out in different directions in search of money and more money.

2. It has been said with singular felicity that towns are meant for rich people and the villages for the poor. The labourers being poor mostly hail from the villages. There are therefore naturally in intimate contact with them. Some of the labourers who belong to the agricultural classes have some land in their villages. Others have some other vested interests. Most of them have their houses there. They leave their families behind. They have therefore natural contact with their villages. Out of the Punjab rural labour, there are few labourers who have severed their connections with the villages of their origin.

(i) To my mind, 90 per cent. of the rural labour have a tendency, for reasons set forth above, to return to their villages when a suitable occasion affords itself to do so. Those who work in the seasonal factories usually return to their homes after the season is over. Again on domestic occurrences, ceremonial occasions, and religious festivals, the village labourers like to go to their villages. Again, in times of unemployment, adversity, illness and so forth, the labourer remembers his home and usually turns his face to it. There are some labourers too, who work for a short period, earn some money, and run home with the little money they have saved jingling in their pockets.

The above is mainly true of the unskilled labourers who work in factories not very far from their villages. The tendency of returning home frequently does not exist so much among the skilled labour as it does among the unskilled labour. When the home is very far, to reach which the labourer has to spend some money as railway fare, he thinks twice before returning home frequently. Again, if he is employed permanently in a factory and not on daily wages or on piecework system, he is not generally allowed to return home as frequently as he might like. Under these circumstances, he lives with his family in or near the factory and returns home once in a year or so.

(ii) It may be said at once that as the seasonal factories, e.g., cotton ginning and ice factories are not permanent, hence the labour working there is also not permanent. About half the labour employed in our factories is employed in these seasonal factories. Hence that is not permanent. In the perennial factories, it is more or less permanent. But the tendency of returning home as explained in sub-section (i) is always there. By "permanent" I do not mean that a particular labourer sticks to his job in a particular factory for ever. He often shifts from one factory to another. It is only in the big industrial undertakings that he sticks to his job for a fairly considerable long time. As for example, in the North-Western Railway Moghalpura workshops and in the other railway sheds, the labour employed there is more or less permanent. The same is true of the New Egerton Woollen Mills at Dhariwal and some of the factories in Amritsar, Lahore, Sialkot, Ludhiana and Lyallpur.

In this connection, it may be stated that the Punjab labourer and more particularly the rural labourer, has not yet developed the industrial proletariat mentality. Hence he seldom tries to stick to one particular industry. He would work as an agricultural labourer in the Canal Colonies for some time, and then would seek work in a flour mill and after some time you will find him working as a tonga driver in Lahore or Amritsar, and then perhaps in some factory again. The best permanent labour in the Punjab is in the salt mines at Khewra. They are hereditary labourers there, and they seldom leave the factory.

3. (i) The existing methods of recruitment of both skilled and unskilled labour are either (a) direct or (b) indirect. In most factories the labourer presents himself at the factory gate usually in the evening, and if he is required, he is engaged from the next day. This is what I call "direct method." In practice this method works through a Jamadar or the gatekeeper or the mistri, or some other man who is in charge of labour. Generally, the labourer goes to his house privately, flatters him and beseeches him for getting him employed in the factory. He pays to him an amount of money which may be settled between them. Out of this sum generally, he pays some share to his immediate officer, and thus the labourer gets an appointment. This may not be true about the smaller factories, but it is true about the bigger concerns, e.g., North-Western Railway workshops, Dhariwal Mills and so forth. Moreover, it may not be so much true about the unskilled labour, but it is mostly true about the skilled labour. Several cases have been brought to my notice as well where the chageman or the mistri had taken a good amount of money for having a labourer employed in the factory. The evil has taken such a deep root that it has now become almost customary to thus pay to the men who are in a position to get a person employed.

The other method is the "indirect method." The owner or the manager deputes some agents to recruit labour for the factory. Sometimes a requisition is made by the new factories to the gods of the old ones to send their surplus labour to them. The bigger concerns usually employ such an agent. He usually goes to the old established factories rather surreptitiously, and tries to fleece the men from there by holding out all sorts of promises to them. Again, generally, there is always a certain amount of unemployment everywhere. The unemployed flock to the agent, and thus get themselves employed. The agent also often charges some money provided there is sufficient supply of labour to meet his demand.

Another way of recruiting labour is to make a requisition to the Deputy Commissioner of the Criminal Tribes called "Sansis," who might allow a few of them to work in a particular factory. As these men have generally or supposed to have generally criminal propensities, hence very few requisitions are made, and the Deputy Commissioner, after due inquiries, allow the men to be thus employed.

It is only in the North-Western Railway workshops at Moghalpura that labour is now recruited through an employment officer, who is in charge of the Railway Labour Bureau. But in practice, after all, it is the mistri or the chageman who, after getting his usual tip, gets a labourer employed. A relative or an acquaintance or a friend of a mistri, chageman or some clerk or some other official in the factory or workshop gets a job there more easily than those who have no such friends there. This is natural, and it is so found everywhere.

(ii) and (iii) The methods of recruitment described in sub-section (i) are as old as the factories in the Punjab except the new method in North-Western Railway workshops at Moghalpura. The abuse of taking tips and bribery for getting a particular labourer employed is of recent growth. In the good old days the lower strata of our society was very honest, sincere, religious and sympathetic. It is only recently that on account of the economical stringency and the contact with the towns that the evil has crept in. Of course, there can be no judicial proof of such bribery. But the evil does exist, and something ought to be done to do away with it, and thus save the poor labourer from the burden of its ravages.

The only possible improvement that can be effected in this respect is to establish labour bureaus throughout the Punjab. These public employment agencies would be, in my opinion, of considerable help to the poor labourer. In the first place, the

evil of tips or bribery will surely be eradicated to a great extent. Secondly, the unemployed workers will be able to get up-to-date and authentic information as regards the demand for labour in a particular factory. Thirdly, they will come to know of their future prospectuses attaching to the particular job. Fourthly, the labourer will get a suitable post in accordance with his qualifications. The public employment agencies will thus prove a boon to the labourers and workmen. I have no doubt that by their establishment, much of the discontentment among labour will disappear.

From a study of the existing methods of recruitment described above, one can easily come to the conclusion that they are at once so unsatisfactory and so crude that some improvement is really called for. The recruitment ought to be regularized and put on some certain and satisfactory basis. No better possible method can be devised than the establishment of the labour bureaus or public employment agencies. So there is no question of the desirability of establishing them. The sooner they are established, the better it is.

If employers are wise, they should not, in their own interests, object to the establishment of these agencies. Through them, they can get the labour most suitable for their purposes. Now-a-days, on account of lack of information, they get whatever comes before them. Through the agencies they will get the best labourer most suitable for a particular job in the factory. We might in this respect follow the example of the various civil engineering colleges, motor training colleges, electrical colleges through which a number of skilled labourers are recruited as described in Section I (b) of this chapter. Recently an association called the Northern India Automobile Association has been started in Lahore. A number of the motor owners get their motor drivers or mechanics through it, and are quite satisfied. If this can be done as regards the supply of recruitment of motor drivers or motor mechanics or electricians or draftsmen or surveyors and other skilled labour to the great advantage of both the employer and the employed, I fail to see why the same method cannot be adopted as regards the unskilled labour and the other skilled labour. The example set by the North-Western Railway Employment Bureau should be followed throughout the Punjab.

I would therefore most humbly venture to suggest that in the well-known factory areas in the Punjab, and at those places where the more important industrial undertakings are situated, labour bureaus or public employment agencies should be established. They should be organized in close collaboration with the factory owners. Their office should not be in the factory itself. The bureau or agency should be independent of the factory influence. There may be three members of the bureau or agency—one representing the factory or a group of factories, in latter case he should be elected by them, the other representing the labour, usually a trade union official elected for the purpose and the third member should be a Government official.

If there is no properly organized trade union, the labourers should be asked to elect someone to represent them on the bureau or agency. The members may meet as often as there need be. All factory owners within the sphere of influence of a particular bureau or agency should be required to recruit their labour through it. At first there might be some trouble with some of the factory owners, but in the long run, as explained above, they are sure to realize that it is to their advantage to thus recruit their labour both skilled and unskilled. The bureau should keep a regular office and regular register of candidates with their full qualifications, age and other necessary particulars. Similarly, it should keep a register of requisitions. In this the needs of labour of a particular factory should be entered with the necessary particulars. The members then after judging the qualifications of and having a personal interview with the candidate, should decide whether he should be employed or not for a particular factory. The members should fix the wages of the candidate with due regard to all the interests concerned. In my opinion, the bureau should not be a mere recruiting agency, but it should also decide all questions arising between the employer and the employee. In other words it should act as a court of appeal of the master or servant. All questions incidental to the service conditions should be referred to it. For instance, dismissals, fines, bad workmanship and so forth, should be decided by the bureau or agency.

I need not go into greater details of the working of the bureau or agency than what I have described above. The details might be worked by a special committee appointed for the purpose. I would propose that a legislation for the establishment of labour bureaus or public employment agencies should be taken in hand, and thus the great problem of the relations of the employer and the employed might be solved.

One question remains to be discussed in this respect. That is the question of financing the bureau or agency. I think that as the establishment of such bureaus or agencies will be beneficial to both the employer and the employee, and they will be conducive not only to better relations their but also to promote order and peace, it should be the Government who should bear all the expenses. At any rate, the Government should do so till such time as the employer and the employee will get

used to the system, and will realize its advantages. The expenses will not be heavy. The three members of the bureau will be honorary. Not more than two clerks or so will be quite sufficient to do the work. After a few years' experience, the factory or the factories and then after some time, the trade unions may be required to share the expenses. To my mind, it is a practical scheme and is worth giving a trial.

4. If it is true and my experience is that it is true, that wealth is the source of all such evils as are referred to in the above subject, then I can state without any fear of contradiction that there is no question as a rule of the disturbance of family life whether the male labourer leaves his wife at home or whether she were to work as a labourer in an industrial undertaking along with other men. It is only in the richer strata of society that family life is disturbed generally by the abovementioned and other circumstances. Poverty tends to make one honest, pious and God-fearing. Among the labouring classes the cases of the disturbance of family life are very few and far between indeed. Apart from the above sentimental grounds, there are other reasons also for the non-disturbance of family life. The labourer generally, as explained in Section (1) of this chapter, works in a factory not far from his home, and therefore he frequently returns to his wife and children. Again, there is more or less joint family system in the Punjab. The wife lives with either the parents of the labourer or with other relatives. They look after her. Moreover, as in the villages, there is one compact brotherhood, therefore there is not so great a danger of leaving a young woman alone as there is in the towns where the population is of a cosmopolitan character. At home she does not remain idle. She either works on the fields or performs some other household duties. Thus her thoughts seldom go astray, and it is really seldom that we hear cases of her illicit connection with other men. Likewise, the labourer also lives a pious life, and never thinks of establishing illicit connections with other women. Again, the woman labourer in the factories if of pretty grown-up age, is generally married, and works along with her husband or some relatives. All this goes to show that the family life of a labourer is generally happy, and it is only very seldom that we hear of any disturbance of family life among this class of people.

7. *Unemployment.*—(i) A Punjabi is by nature a very hardy man. He is not fastidious or swanky as the people of the United Province, and some of other provinces are. He does not regard to do any work, however menial it may be, below his dignity. He is a very adventurous person also. If he cannot find work here in the Punjab, he would go to other provinces and countries to earn his livelihood. If he cannot find any work according to his taste or to his particular calling, he will do some other work. Idle he will never remain. So there can be no question of unemployment of a serious nature among the labourers and workmen of a nation of the above character.

I have already said that the Punjabi labourer whether skilled or unskilled, has not developed an industrial proletarian mentality. So if he cannot find work in a factory or in a workshop, he would go to the Canal Colonies of Lyallpur and Montgomery and work as an agricultural labourer there. In the Canal Colonies, labour is always required there. So it is mostly due to the Canal Colonies that the problem of unemployment in this province has not very seriously faced the authorities. Moreover, the industries in the Punjab are on the increase daily. Factories after factories are being opened every year. Thanks to the order and peace established so nobly by the British Government, the province is developing itself industrially very rapidly, and it is therefore that there is practically no unemployment among the labouring classes here. With the opening up of the Mandi Hydro-Electric works in the near future, there will be a net of industries throughout the country, and whatever unemployment there is, it will surely be done away with. So I can safely say that the problem of unemployment in this province need not worry us much.

The Punjab Government, sometime ago, appointed a committee to make an inquiry into the question of unemployment in the Punjab. The committee unanimously found that there was no unemployment worth the name among the labouring classes, by which term they meant the manual workers with whom we are here mostly concerned.

(ii) Whatever little unemployment there may be, it is all voluntary. Dismissal from his job seldom worries a Punjabi labourer. There is seldom any retrenchment in any industrial undertaking nowadays. These are days of development. We require more labour everywhere. The financial stringency and economic distress due to the aftermath of the Great War is over, and therefore the notorious "axe" of the Retrenchment Committee is dead and gone, and I hope for ever. Hence I say that no unemployment is caused nowadays to any appreciable extent by either dismissals or retrenchment.

As I have said, if there is any unemployment it is all voluntary. There are some labourers, although their number is very few, who work for a little while, then kick off their job and would not seek another employment until the last pie jingling in



their pockets has been spent. Similarly, there are some labourers who work in the seasonal factories and remain idle in the off season. They remain idle not because they cannot find work elsewhere, but on account of their apathy to do any other work than in the seasonal factories.

(iii) *Possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress.*—When there is practically no unemployment in the Punjab, it seems to me unnecessary to dilate upon this subject in any detail. Suffice it to say, that whatever little unemployment there is, it will automatically go away when the Mandi Hydro Electric Works will be in full working order. Again, the benign policy of the Government of developing the industries in the Punjab, has solved, and will I hope, further solve the problem of unemployment. The Government should vigorously carry on this policy and should see that the Mandi Hydro-Electric Works supply the electric current as soon as possible and at a cheap rate. Both from the industrial and labour point of views, much depends on the success of the Mandi scheme.

I have already suggested in Sub-sections (ii) and (iii) of Section (3) of this chapter the establishment of the public employment agencies or labour bureaus. If they are established, the question of unemployment will be reduced to a negligible point. At present there may be some labourers who may not know whether they are required somewhere or not. The bureau or agency can easily inform them of certain jobs waiting for them. So these are some of the possible methods of alleviating and remedying the distress caused by the unemployment among the labouring classes.

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*—There is no such system in vogue in the Punjab. In fact, its need has never been keenly felt, for as stated in the previous sub-sections, there is not much unemployment here. If such a system is introduced in this province, it will be all the more beneficial to poor labourers indeed. Although much labour spirit has not yet been created among the labourers, still with the growth of their organizations under the Indian Trade Unions Act, the benefits of the unemployment insurance can be brought home to them, and the scheme can succeed here to the advantage of the labouring classes of this province.

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. The selection of the managing staff of an industrial undertaking is the business of the capitalist. He will, therefore, be in a better position to speak on this subject than my humble self. All that I know is that in almost all the bigger factories and workshops in the Punjab, the managing staff is imported from England. As an example, I may quote the North-Western Railway Workshops, the Dhariwal Mills, Attock Oil Refinery, Portland Cement Works at Wah, and the Paper Factory at Jagadhri. It may be true in some cases that qualified Indians are not available for the particular posts, but where Indians are available they are generally not given an opportunity of showing their worth. Thanks to the slave mentality of the Indians, a foreigner is generally regarded as a better officer or manager than an Indian. It is, therefore, that in almost all the bigger factories, the chief manager, the works manager, and in some even the foremen are Europeans. In these factories, a European or Anglo-Indian or even an Indian Christian who has adopted European manners, dress and language, has a better chance of being selected as a member of the managing staff on account of his supposed superiority than an Indian, however better qualified he may be than his rival European or Anglo-Indian. Some of the graduates of the MacLagan Engineering College at Moghalpura, however, are now taken on the managing staff of the North-Western Railway workshops. It is generally the agent of the North Western Railway who selects the higher officers of the managing staff on the recommendation of the chief mechanical engineer. The other members of this staff are generally selected by the said engineer or the works manager who are generally appointed by the railway board.

In the second rate factories it all depends upon the whim and sweet will of either the owner or the directorate to appoint one or not on the managing staff. In these factories, it is generally the Indians who are appointed. There they do not look so much to the qualifications as to such considerations as the relationship between the candidate and the owner or some influential director. They do look to the experience of the man to run a factory and to control the labour.

Whether the industrial undertakings are big or small, no worker has ever risen to the managing staff. It is so not because of the incapacity of the worker to rise, but because no chance and no encouragement is given to him to rise.

12. No facilities whatsoever are given by the industrial undertakings for the training of workmen as supervisors or as some other officer. His practical training in a factory might have secured him a place on the supervising staff, but such cases are very few and far between indeed. A workman has, therefore, no incentive to

make any improvement. This is a most sorry state of affairs so far as labourers and workmen are concerned. I would, therefore, suggest that in at least the Government controlled factories and industrial undertakings some suitable facilities ought to be provided for the training and promotion of the workers. Night industrial schools ought to be opened near the factory or near the labourer's residential areas, and training should be given there.

13. *Relations between Staff and Rank and File*—(iii) *Works committees*.—No such committees exist in the Punjab. Their establishment will remove many hardships under which the labourers and workmen simply groan. There is no machinery provided except the ordinary courts which the poor labourer may move for compelling the employer to pay his wages. The result is that he often foregoes his wages and except wishing bad luck to his master, with a heavy heart, reposing his trust in God and hoping to get his dues on the Judgment Day he does nothing, and the poor man is made to suffer.

Under these circumstances I would strongly suggest that works committees should be established as soon as possible. The system of such committees is not entirely unknown to this country. We have already what we call punchayat system. All petty disputes in the villages are set at rest by these punchayats. The labourers, therefore, would simply welcome these committees and I see no reason why the employer should have any objection to their being constituted.

(iv) *Works councils and industrial councils*.—Nowhere in the Punjab, except I think in the North-Western Railway Workshops, works councils or industrial councils exist. I believe that if these councils are constituted they will be of immense advantage both to the employers and the employees. In order to take the latter into confidence it will be better to have their representatives on these bodies.

15. *Contractors as Intermediaries*.—For the majority of the ills of the poor labourer and workman in this province, these greedy contractors are certainly responsible. Nobody is so hard on the labourer as these contractors are. For their selfish ends they would overwork the labourer, would not pay their wages regularly and would treat them as slaves. I would suggest in this respect that the real employer i.e., the one who has engaged the contractor should be made responsible for the labour working under him.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) I would suggest that a provision be inserted in the Indian Factories Act compelling owners of industrial undertakings to build suitable houses for the labourers and workmen after a plan sanctioned by the Public Works Department, Health Department and the Factories Department. No new factory should be allowed to be opened unless suitable accommodation is provided for the labour there. These houses should be free of rent. It should be provided that when there is an industrial dispute within the meaning of the Indian Trade Disputes Act, the employer is not entitled to have the houses vacated. They should be repaired annually at the expense of the employer and the factory inspector should see that the houses are in good condition.

(ii) The private landlords as shown in the next sub section, charge exorbitant rents which the poor labourer cannot afford to pay on account of the low wages. I would therefore suggest that either the Government itself or the municipalities and district boards should build houses for the labourers specially and should charge nominal rents for them.

(iii) No special houses have been built by the private landlords for the labourers and workmen. Anybody can rent them. There is no doubt that cheap and smaller houses are generally rented by the labourers. But the system of chawls, as said already, does not exist in the Punjab. Most of these houses are hopelessly insanitary and unhealthy and therefore unfit for human beings to live in. The municipal committees should be asked to prohibit the occupation of these houses and should insist on their being improved.

17. There are no special facilities provided for the acquisition of land for the workers' houses. No company and no society exist which might help a worker to acquire land for his building a house there. In my opinion, some such facility ought to be provided either by providing a special provision in the Land Acquisition Act or some such legislation as the proposed Punjab Acquisition of Land (Industrial) Bill with certain modifications. The principle of acquiring land by authority has already been established by the Land Acquisition Act. Under the Act, the Government is empowered to acquire any land for a Government purpose. Similarly,

land can be acquired for a railway, canal, and other public purposes mentioned in the Act. If to these purposes, the purpose of acquiring land for workers' houses is also added, then the difficulty of finding accommodation for workers can be minimised to a great extent.

In the Punjab Legislative Council in 1921, the Punjab Acquisition of Land (Industrial) Bill was introduced. The object of the Bill was to "facilitate the purchase of land voluntarily sold for industrial purposes." It had to be dropped on account of the opposition from the rural members of the Council. Had the bill not been confined to industrial purposes only but to the labour purposes also, e.g., acquisition of land for worker's houses, I am sure the bill would have never met the fate it did. The rural members would certainly never have opposed it for then they would have realized that the benefit of the Bill will also go to the agricultural classes from whom most of the workers in the industrial undertakings are drawn. If the Bill is again introduced in the form that I have suggested, it is sure to be passed.

18. Most of the houses in which labourers and workers live generally, are worse than dungeons. Even the dogs of the rich people live in better kennels than the houses the labourers pass their lives in. Most awfully dirty, most hopelessly insanitary, most thoroughly unhealthy and limited accommodation are the chief features of these houses. Generally they consist of one single room only in which the whole family of the labourer live. Even the railway quarters, the Dhariwal mill and other factories' quarters are not much better than the houses above described. Wherever newly built factories provide labour quarters they are better in every respect.

Worker's spirit has not yet been sufficiently aroused to demand a certain type of house. Their activities are yet confined more or less to the wage question. Whenever in the list of demands or grievances the housing question is also included, it is not pressed. Generally no particular attention is paid to the labourer's houses from the health, sanitary, lighting, conservancy and water supply points of view. The Health Officer or the Municipal Committee who sanction the plan of the factory passes it blindly so far as the quarters for labourers are concerned, for they consider it below their dignity to worry about the health sanitation, conservancy, and water supply of the labourers. The members and officers of the municipalities are capitalists and it is therefore they pay no heed to the requirements of the poor labourers and workmen.

21. (c) *Eviction.*—This is a rather serious matter and often very embarrassing to a worker. As soon as a labourer is dismissed or he leaves service on his own accord against the wishes of his employer, he is turned out at once bag and baggage from the house he was occupying. Again when there is a strike then the employer orders the labour to vacate the quarter. This is always done by the employer to break a strike. For instance when there was a strike in 1924 in the North-Western Railway Moghalpura workshops, all labourers were turned out of their quarters. The police broke open the locks and threw away the furniture and other belongings of the labourer on the road side. Similarly in the Dhariwal mill strike, the labourers were turned out of their quarters by police force. These forcible evictions are certainly a great hardship on the poor labourer. In case of his dismissal or his voluntarily leaving his job, some sufficient time ought to be given to him to clear out from the quarter. When there is a strike the labourer should not be evicted at all. So long as there is a strike, the labourer is in the eye of the law an employee and hence he cannot be evicted. Such was my argument in a case brought by one, Mr. Baker—a striker against the agent North-Western railway during the North-Western railway strike of 1924. I was successful in getting a temporary injunction but eventually the suit was dismissed, as was expected, on a technical point and the injunction was discharged. Mr. Baker was therefore evicted from his quarters all the same. If the power of eviction is taken away from the employers during a strike, it will strengthen the hands of labour immensely and strikes will not so often be failures.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (iii) (a) In the Government controlled and the bigger industrial undertakings, the working conditions are generally satisfactory. There is enough air and enough light in the factory. In the summer, however, on account of the tin-sheet roofs, heat inside the workshops is simply intolerable. At mid-day, when the sun is at its zenith, the workshop is worse than an oven. The poor labourers have to work there in the killing heat of the inside. In the smaller factories, and more particularly in the majority of the cotton ginning and flour mills, the air and light is not enough.

There too, the roofs are of tin sheets generally, so it becomes very hot indeed inside the factory. It is a most pitiable sight indeed to see a labourer working in summer inside the factory in such an atmosphere. Many workers faint on account of the most intense and intolerable heat. Something should really be done to better the working conditions inside the factories in summer. I would humbly suggest that the tin sheet roofs be thatched in the hot months and fans should be provided in every workroom. There should be some special arrangement for cold water for the labourers and for protecting them from the hot blasts. Anti-sunstroke methods should always be ready in the summer in the factory. I would further suggest in this respect that no one should be allowed to start a factory unless its plans were duly sanctioned by a competent authority as is already referred to in Chapter III. Again the factories should never be inside a town or city. They should always be some distance away from the habitation.

(iv) The usual diet of an average labourer is the same coarse and simple food which an average villager eats. They generally eat "dal and chapati." Sometimes he has to go without "dal" even and has to content himself with a little salt or sugar. His food generally is neither sufficient in quantity nor sufficiently nutritious in quality. He will buy the season's cheapest vegetables. Often he gets the worst vegetables available in the market for they are cheap and suit his poor pocket.

(v) The general health and general physique of the average labourer is generally good. This is due more to the congenial and invigorating climate of the Punjab than to the conditions in the factories. In the majority of the factories in the Punjab, the conditions obtaining there are not conducive to the general health of the labourers and workmen. Apart from the nature of the work which in most factories is directly against the principles of health and physique, the conditions in factories tell heavily on them. For example, there is too much dust, particularly in the cotton and ginning factories and there is too much heat not only in the engine rooms but in the places where the workmen have to work. Save the few bigger factories, most of the rest are awfully dirty. No heed is paid to cleanliness. No one cares to keep the place clean. The labourers also are not of clean habits. All these things have their own effect on the physique of the labourers and workmen. In order to avoid all these things, I would suggest that sanitary inspectors ought to be employed in the bigger factories. In the smaller ones, it ought to be the duty of the municipal committee to see that the factory is clean as required by the Factories Act and the rules thereunder.

25. (i) Speaking generally, medical facilities wherever provided are fully utilised. The labourers and workmen have not now any great prejudice against the Allopathic system of medicine provided they can get the treatment free. But if they have to pay, then they prefer to go to a hakim or vaid. The Bagaria labourer still hesitates to go to a hospital and prefers his own treatment.

(ii) For ordinary diseases, the women labourers generally do not care and hesitate to go to a hospital. If things have gone a bit too far, then they go to a doctor. For their peculiar diseases, they prefer their own dais to the lady doctor or the trained midwife. There is a reason for that. In the first place, they or their husbands or fathers cannot afford to engage a lady doctor or trained midwife. Secondly, they cannot afford the cost of the lady doctor or trained midwife's treatment. Thirdly, they do not get nice treatment from them. Fourthly, on account of the time-honoured custom and the natural shyness, they prefer the dai's treatment which is simpler and cheaper.

26. (a) (i) The conditions of latrines both at work places and at home are simply awful. Such bad smells emanate from these latrines that it is impossible to stand there. In some of the bigger factories, phenyle is used and the latrines are kept clean, but in other factories, the less said the better. On account of the most insanitary condition of the latrines, labourers generally go to the open as is the custom in the villages in this province.

Again at home in the cities the conditions of latrines are simply disgraceful. The scavenger comes but once in the 24 hours. No disinfectants are used. The attention of health officers of the municipal committees should be particularly drawn to this disgraceful state of affairs. At the work places, it should be insisted on the employer that suitable arrangements be made for the cleaning of the latrines according to the requirements of the Punjab factory rules.

28. So far as the present stage of development of industry in this province is concerned, the present Factories and Mines Acts and the rules made thereunder are, to my mind, quite suitable. There are however a few changes here and there required

but the pity is that no suitable machinery is provided for to enforce the provisions of the acts and rules with greater vigour. At present so far as the Punjab is concerned, there is only one Inspector of Factories and another additional has recently been added. And these two inspectors are expected to visit more than 600 factories in the Punjab, more than 60 in the Delhi province, about 25 in Ajmere and about 15 in Merwara and 24 in the North-West Frontier Province. That means to say that they must visit and inspect more than 725 factories throughout the year if the Factories Act is to be really complied with. This seems to me impossible. It is therefore that the Factories Act is so much avoided and is to all intents and purposes a mere dead letter. It is a mere show on the part of the Government. The Report of the Inspector of Factories for the year 1928 show that of the 559 factories, "409 were inspected once, 102 twice and 18 thrice" (vide page 3 of the Report). This shows how utterly impossible it is for the staff to see that the provisions of the Act are really complied with. One inspection in the year is practically no inspection at all. I would therefore suggest that at least half a dozen inspectors of factories with full powers ought to be appointed for the Punjab only.

Again, the penalties provided in the Act for the non-compliance of the provisions of the Act are too meagre: Mere fines will not do. It is no deterrent punishment for a rich capitalist to be fined a few rupees for a factory offence which entails no moral turpitude and which is not looked upon by the employers as an offence at all. Again the courts are also very lenient towards the factories' owners. The present Inspector of Factories who is a very able, sincere and honest officer told me that he prosecuted a factory owner for employing child labour and overworking his men. The man was fined only Rs. 10 by the court. Now such a small amount of fine is really a paying concern for him. Hence under these circumstances, I would suggest that Chapter VII of the Indian Factories Act should be thoroughly overhauled and the offenders should be punished with rigorous imprisonment of at least one year and a heavy fine of at least 1,000 rupees for each offence committed.

(i) By virtue of the Indian Factories Act, the Government exercises control over the factories so far as sanitation, ventilation, lighting, humidification, latrine and urinal accommodation, water supply opening out of doors, escape from fire, fencing, repairs, etc., are concerned. But it can exercise no control over the keeping down or keeping up the temperature in the factories. No provision is made as regards the control of temperature. As suggested in Chapter (IV), Section 23, Sub-section (iii) a provision ought to be added to the Indian Factories Act (Chapter III) to the effect that the tin roofs of the factories ought to be thatched in summer and the temperature ought to be kept below 90 degrees by artificial means in the workshops and work-houses where the labourers have to work. Again it ought to be provided that anti-sun-stroke methods ought to be kept ready in every factory in case of emergency in summer.

(ii) (a) According to Section 12 of the Indian Factories Act, it is incumbent on every factory owner to use pure water for producing humidity. I cannot say whether this provision is always complied with by the owners or not. Anyhow, the Punjab Government has now drafted rules with regard to the control of humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills. If these rules are enforced then "the control of humidity by prohibiting the introduction of live steam into any room where the temperature is more than 85 degrees F. will assure comparatively comfortable conditions to operatives."

30. *Sickness Insurance.*—(i) *Suitability of International Labour Convention.*—The Punjab Government constituted a small committee in February last with the Director of Industries as its chairman to go into the problem and report accordingly. I had the honour to be a labour member of this committee.

To the Report of the Committee, I appended a Minute of Dissent.\* I was of opinion that the scope of the scheme was kept too limited by the committee and I suggested its application to other workers as well. Again I was of opinion that the contribution by the employer should be a little higher than the employee. I suggested that instead of equal contribution among the parties, it should be in the following proportion:—The State, one third; the employer, five-twelfths; the employee, one fourth. I also suggested that the scheme should be compulsory.

31. *Maternity Benefits.*—I think there is a possibility of legislation provided in the first place the scheme is not costly and secondly if the employer is not to pay a heavy premium.

\* Mr. Ghani's Minute of Dissent is printed in Appendix V to the Memorandum of the Government of India.

## V.—Welfare.

34. (i)—*Provision for Refreshments, Shelters and Creches.*—No such provisions are made anywhere in the Punjab. I think that at the present stage of development of the country in general and the labour movement in particular, a provision for refreshments and creches will not be a success for a long time to come. A labourer being a member of the lower strata of society is more caste-ridden and therefore more orthodox than most of those of higher strata. A Hindu labourer would not eat food cooked or even touched by a non-Hindu. Similarly a Mussalman labourer also would not cherish food cooked by a Hindu cook. If the refreshment system is introduced it would mean the engagement of as many cooks as there are castes or religions of the labourers. The employer will have to provide not only separate kitchens but separate places for the labourers to take their food. No employer can at present be induced to embark upon such a costly scheme.

The "creches" system will also be a failure. An Indian mother can hardly dare entrust her child or children to a nurse or some other keeper of a nursery. This is all the more true in the case of a woman labourer. Any such system, if introduced in the Punjab, much as I would like it to be introduced, will be doomed to failure.

Of the three things mentioned in this subsection, "shelters" ought to be introduced at once. In a number of factories, I have seen labourers without any shelter whatsoever and either taking shelter from the sun under some tree or running to a verandah when it is raining. Such shelters are badly needed by the tonga drivers and motor drivers throughout the Province. Even in the premier city of Lahore there is no shed for the motor drivers where they can park their motors or lorries. I approached the authorities some time ago to provide such shelters, but no result has so far come out of it. At my representation, the Simla Municipality has now agreed to provide more shelters for rickshaw drivers there.

(ii) *Provision for Physical Culture, Recreation and Amusements.*—Except in the cement factory at Wah, no such provision exists in any industrial undertaking in the Punjab for physical culture and amusements and recreation. If the provision is introduced it will be a great success indeed. A Punjabi is by nature very fond of wrestling. One can see thousands and thousands of people even from distant places rushing forth to see a wrestling match. If the "Akhara" system is introduced in the factories and other industrial undertakings, a number of labourers and workmen are sure to take part in it. Again if for the evening some recreation or amusements are provided, they will also be very popular. For instance, a singing party may be arranged or music party may be engaged now and then to provide amusements and recreation.

37. Some provision is certainly and necessarily desirable for not only old age retirements but for old age pensions too. Such a provision now exists in almost all the civilized countries. It is really unjust for any employer to take work from a labourer when he is young and to throw him overboard when he has become old. Nor is it justified in any sense to compel a labourer to work in his old age. So I would submit that in the Indian Factories Act a provision ought to be inserted providing old age retirements and old age pensions or provident funds and gratuities. In the Punjab, however, I think the system of provident fund would be more practicable and possible than the old age pensions. Here in this province the labourer is migratory. Industrial undertakings are on a small scale. Hence the system of old age pensions cannot work properly here. Let the employer deduct say one anna per rupee and add one anna himself together with compound interest and give this provident fund to the employee whenever he retires from his employ. Similarly, out of the profit made by an undertaking, some amount ought to be set apart for distribution among the employees as gratuity as suggested hereafter.

## VI.—Education.

40. To my mind, nothing but free and compulsory education will solve the great problem of education which is our greatest desideratum. Employers cannot be expected to provide good schools for the education of the workers and their children. I would therefore suggest that the Government should be approached to open schools in the industrial areas and promulgate a law whereby worker's children should be compulsorily sent for at least five years.

There is much talk in the country about free education. I am against education being made free for all. Those who can pay the fees of their children must pay it while those who cannot pay may be excused. Why should a rich man's son be educated free? Hence under these circumstances, I would suggest that the children of those whose income is less than Rs. 150 a month should be educated free up to

the highest standard of a college. Those having an income of less than Rs. 300 a month should pay one-half of the fees in the college and full fees of the school and so forth. In this way, a labourer's son will be educated and the state would not lose its income which it gets in the form of fees.

41. Except in the Government industrial schools, and the North-Western Railway's practical training to the graduates of the Moghalpura College, no facility is provided by any employer to give an industrial or vocational training. The result is that once an unskilled labourer—always an unskilled labourer. Even the skilled labourers seldom rise higher than a mistri. I would therefore suggest that along with the ordinary school in industrial areas, night industrial classes should be started by the Government. The employers should also be asked to contribute a little to the upkeep of these schools and classes, for, ultimately it is they who will be benefitted.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. (i) The regulations for safety in factories in the Punjab are contained in the Punjab Factory Rules made by the Punjab Government under Section 37 of the Indian Factories Act (XII of 1911). These rules are fairly exhaustive and very suitable indeed for the purpose they are made.

But they are paper provisions after all. Seldom are they followed and they are put in force only when the Inspector of Factories pays a surprise visit. These provisions will not to my mind be of much help to labour unless the number of inspectors of factories is increased as already submitted, and again unless a thorough "safety" propaganda is done among the factory workers. It is true that an abstract of these rules is posted at the outer gates of the factories, but as almost all the workers are illiterate, they seldom read them. It should be made compulsory for a manager or foreman of a factory to read these rules to the workers on the first of every month.

45. According to the report of the factories inspector for 1928, mill gearing shafts and pulleys claim the largest proportion of fatal and serious accidents. As the inspector shows, these accidents were invariably the result of the workers being entangled with the belting and consequently being drawn into the pulleys. This entanglement with the belting is mostly due to the loose clothing of the workers. The provision in the Factory Rules prohibiting the wearing of loose clothes should be rigorously enforced.

In some of the workshops, injuries to the eyes are most frequent. As the inspector of factories suggests, eye protectors ought to be given to the workers whose eyes are in danger of being hurt. In fact it will be far better if the provision of the eye-protectors is inserted in the Factory Rules. Again, most of the accidents are due to the worker's ignorance of the Factory Rules and the Factory Act.

Another cause of accidents is that new machinery is introduced with which the worker is not acquainted. A provision ought to be inserted in the Factory Rules that only that worker is to work a machine for which he has been declared fit by the inspector of factories. Often an unskilled and inexperienced worker is put to work machinery. This ought to be rigorously discouraged. Again, sometimes accidents are due to the carelessness, fatigue, sleeplessness, indisposition and general depression of the worker. It ought to be provided that it is incumbent on a manager to see that the worker is quite fit to handle the machinery before he is put there.

47. Accidents in non-regulated factories may be taken to be in the same proportion as in the regulated factories. If in the non-regulated factories, the machinery is not complicated, the safety measures also do not exist there in the same way as in the regulated factories. I think it will be far better if the factories employing five or more than five workers on any one day in the year are also brought under the Factories Act, and thus regulated in order to give the workers there the benefits of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder.

48. "First Aid" as such is practically unknown in our Factories as yet. Among the workers there is none who could render "First Aid" in case of an accident. When an accident occurs, either the victim is sent straight to the Hospital or someone among the superior staff renders "First Aid." In the interest of the workers, it is necessary that "First Aid" methods ought to be taught to some of the workers who may be of some help in case of an accident. Some of the more advanced and clever skilled workers would surely volunteer to be trained in "First Aid."

49. (i) On account of the paucity of the inspectors of factories as already stated in chapter IV Section 28, very few inspections are made and it is therefore that the regulations contained in the Indian Factories Act and the Punjab Factory Rules cannot be properly enforced. For Punjab, N.W.F. Province, Delhi, Ajmere, and Marwara, there is one Inspector of Factories and one additional inspector. Even these two are not sufficient for the Punjab only. I would therefore suggest that for every one hundred factories, there ought to be at least one inspector as already submitted. It will be then and then only, that the regulations would be properly obeyed and adhered to. At present, they are not much cared for, and they are honoured more in their breach than in their obedience.

(ii) The remarks made above as regards the breach of the Factory Laws apply with great vengeance to the seasonal factories. They are the greatest breakers of the factory legislation. Being hard pressed for time to gin and bale the cotton within a short period, they cast aside the laws, take risks and do whatever they like. They play all sorts of dodges either to avoid inspection by the Inspector of Factories or get timely information of his visit and set things right to show him. If more inspectors are employed, there will be greater detection and the poor labourer will be saved many a hardship he has to bear in these so called seasonal factories.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) *General remarks.*—The Workmen's Compensation Act came into force in India for the first time in its history in July, 1924. Although it was a boon for the workers, but on account of their illiteracy, the majority of the workers knew nothing about it for a good many months. Even during the early years of its working the number of claims were low as compared with the number of accidents. The labourers are now—thanks to the spread of the labour movement—gradually acquiring familiarity with the Act and are claiming compensation under it. The number of claims increase year after year. This is not due to the increase in accidents, but it is due to the putting in of claims in greater numbers. Even now every effort is being made by the employers either to deprive the victim of an accident altogether or to give a few rupees out of Court and thus avoid his applying to the Commissioner for full compensation.

*Causes of paucity of claims.*—Naturally the greatest and foremost cause of not taking full advantage afforded by the Act is the illiteracy of the workers. It is therefore that they are ignorant of its advantages and their rights. Their poverty also plays a great part in depriving them of the benefits of the Act. Again they find it most difficult to secure legal assistance, at a nominal cost. They cannot pay the high fees of the good lawyers. Then, it is most difficult for them to produce their fellow workers as eye-witness in a Court of Law. They do not appear for the fear of losing their jobs. The procedure of the Courts is also very lengthy and complicated. It is therefore that most of the labourers generally accept a small sum out of Court and avoid pressing their claims in the Court.

*Suggestions.*—In order to give to the workers full benefit of the Compensation Act, it is necessary to carry on a thorough propagananda among them about it. Just as an abstract of the Indian Factories Act and the Punjab Factory Rules is hung up at the gates of a factory both in Urdu and English, similarly it should be provided that an abstract of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act should be put up there. Just as I have previously suggested about the Factory Rules, the salient features of the Act may also be read to all the workers on the 1st of every month by the manager or foreman of an industrial undertaking. Then it should be provided that every accident must be reported with full particulars to the inspector of factories. The breach of this provision should be made penal. The Commissioner appointed under the Act should take action *suo moto*. Every claim even if compromised out of Court must come before the Commissioner to see if the compensation claimed or is paid in accordance with the Act. No Court fee should be required in Compensation cases. Even the diet money of the witnesses should be paid by the Government. The Public Prosecutors should be ordered to appear free for the claimants and press their claim before the Court. If this is not desirable then special pleaders should be retained by the Government to conduct the compensation cases on behalf of the claimants. All compensation cases should be heard and decided at the factory where the accident has occurred. Other suggestions will be found in their proper places in the various sections of this chapter.

(v) It is very desirable indeed to make it compulsory for the employers to insure their workmen against all possible accidents. If it is not made compulsory, very few employers would come forward to insure their workmen and the results would not be good either for the employer or the worker. Insurance saves both the employer and the employee from many a botheration as stated above.



53. (i) The amount of compensation is most hopelessly inadequate and requires an immediate increase. I think the amounts were intentionally thus fixed. The Act was totally a new measure and it was not known how the employers would take it. Now that the Act has been in work for more than 5 years and no employer has felt any difficulty in complying with its provisions, I believe it is time now to double the amounts fixed by Section 4 and Schedule 1 of the Act.

(ii) As the Act stands at present, according to Section 3 (1), it is not every personal injury nor even every personal injury by accident which makes an employer liable for compensation. According to Section 4, the amount of compensation depends on whether the injury results in death, permanent total or partial disablement or temporary disablement whether total or partial. Again the employer is not liable where the injury does not result in the total or partial disablement of the workman for a period exceeding ten days or in the case of a workman employed in the construction, repair, or demolition of a building or bridge where the injury does not result in death or permanent total disablement. His liability does not extend to every case in which death or disablement follows a personal injury to a workman. His liability is limited by various considerations.

Some of them are very wholesome indeed others seems to be unnecessary and uncalled for. For example why a worker should be deprived of his compensation if his injury were to last for less than 10 days. Nor is there any reason for not providing for compensation where neither death or disablement results from the injury. The stringent provisions as regards notice and period of limitation for filing application for compensation are necessarily hard. The workers are illiterate and they cannot be expected to know the procedure. Many a claim has been dismissed for want of notice or limitation. Moreover as regards the "disregard" provisions, the onus should not be on the worker but on the employer. When an accident occurs, it must be presumed that the employer is liable unless he can prove it to the contrary.

(iii) No provision is made for the diseases arising out of smoke or gas or electricity and so forth. Again workers working in mines particularly in Salt Mines get all sorts of diseases. Some provision ought to be made about them also. Then workers working in lime factories ought also to be included in the list.

(iv) The machinery of administration as described above is not as good as it ought to be. The Senior Sub-Judges are after all Presidents of a Civil Court which has no jurisdiction under the Act (*vide* Section 19 (2)). Hence I think it was not the intention of the Legislature to appoint Civil Judges as Commissioners. These Judges are very busy with their Regular Court work, so they seldom care much for the compensation claims. They do not sufficiently apply their mind to this work. They consider it as a miscellaneous sort of a work and hence treat it as a matter of no consequence. The above criticism as regards the apathy of the Senior Sub-Judge applies with greater force to the Deputy Commissioners who have been appointed as Commissioners under the Act. They are Executive Officers and as such do not know civil law. Hence I do not consider these persons as suitable commissioners to administer the Act. I would suggest that a legal practitioner of good standing and having special knowledge of the Act ought to be appointed as Commissioner for the whole of the Punjab. He should be such a man who has got the sympathy of the labourers at heart and still not against the employers. If such a person is appointed, the Act will be administered to the satisfaction of all.

34. In view of the most satisfactory working of the Indian Workers' Compensation Act, I do not think it is necessary to embark on any other legislation on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act. Certain amendments may however be made in the Workmen's Compensation Act to fill up the gaps and thus the benefit of the Liability Act may be given to the workers.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. Hours have not yet been fully regularized in the Punjab, so far as all the industrial undertakings are concerned. There is no doubt that according to the Indian Factories Act, all the factories which have been brought under the Act, should have their hours regularized according to Section 21, but in practice, the provision is seldom acted upon particularly by the cotton ginning factories, flour mills, and by most of the smaller factories far away from Lahore. The employers are generally in the habit of making their labourers work for longer hours. If they are afraid of anybody it is the Inspector of Factories. So they make all sorts of arrangements for getting information of his visit beforehand and when he does come, everything in the factories is according to law. There are, therefore, very few prosecutions made for overworking the labour.

In the non-regularized factories, i.e., those not brought under the Factories Act, there is no time limit for taking the work from labour, I have known of cases in which a labourer has been made to work for 15 hours and even 18 hours a day. The labourer knows nothing about any International Convention or about the Factories Act. Like a dumb and mute animal he goes on working for as long as his master may like. He thinks he is a slave of his master and must do his will. In the bigger and better organized factories, the hours are of course regularized and the hours fixed are adhered to rigidly both by the employer and the employee.

(i) and (ii) In a good many industries, e.g., building industry, the carpenters, masons, and other unskilled labourers work from 8 in the morning to 6 in the evening, with one hour off for meals. These hours may now be regarded as fixed by custom. Similarly in the printing trade, the workers come at 9 and leave the work at 5. They have also an interval of one half hour in the mid-day for meals, etc. Similarly in the other minor factories, the hours are from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. There is always one hour or half an hour as an interval for meals in the mid-day.

In the carpet factories at Amritsar not coming under the Factories Act the hours are very long indeed. The workers come soon after sunrise and work up to the sunset. They have one hour off as an interval as in other industries. Similar is the case of the hosiery workers of Ludhiana.

57. The effect of restriction of 60 hours a week on industry is very advantageous. It will be still more advantageous if the restriction is further brought down to 48 hours a week. It is common knowledge that a well paid worker would certainly do far more work than he would if he were to linger on half-heartedly for 10 or 12 hours a day. If my suggestion as to 48 hours is accepted, it will be beneficial to the masters as well as their servants.

59. There is a possibility of still further restriction. As I said in Section 57, the hours per week ought to be reduced to 48 hours a week, the daily limit being 8 hours. Out of these 8 hours, one hour or say one half hour as may be agreed upon should be given as an interval after 4 hours' work. Let the workers start the work at 8-30 a.m. in winter and continue it up to 12-30. Then there will be an interval of one hour. They are to begin to work again at 1-30 p.m. and finish their day's work at 4-30 p.m. This means to say that they are to work for 4 hours before the interval and 3 hours after the interval. Similarly some suitable hours may be fixed for the hot weather by mutual agreement between the employers and the employed.

60. (i) In the bigger and more advanced factories, an interval of one hour is generally given at 12 o'clock. During this interval, the workers generally take rest and have their meals. A loud whistle is blown from the engine room, at the appointed hour, the workers come out of the factory, some wash up and take their meals, others lie down and take rest. In the Moghalpura workshops meetings of the union of the workers are generally held during this hour. The speeches of the labour leaders refresh the brains of the workers, infuse new spirit into them and give them hope of their future betterment and amelioration. Thus, the worker is satisfied. On comes all of a sudden a low whistle once again, the worker with a gladdened heart hastens to the factory gate again, and again he is on his machine or crane.

## X.—Special Questions re Women, Young Adults and Children.

### A.—Factories.

82. There is no provision in the Indian Factories Act prohibiting the admission of infants to the factories in the Punjab. An Indian mother is too loving and too devoted to her child to keep him or her away even when God has so placed her as to compel her to work in a factory for her livelihood. She must take her child along with her when she enters a factory to work. She cannot bear to leave it behind. I remember the Inspector of Factories issued orders some time ago prohibiting the admission of infants to the factories. These orders have practically been a dead letter and they have been honoured more in their breach than compliance.

I admit that it is not desirable that infants should also accompany their mothers in the factories and thus be susceptible to the bad factory atmosphere from their very infancy but as our society is at present constituted, I think we cannot prohibit their admission by legislation. If we do that, the majority of mothers with children shall cease to work in a factory and thus not only the capitalists but the women labourers too would suffer. I think if orders are issued to the effect that a woman labourer taking her child with her in the factory would be paid a little less than the one not so doing, the evil of admission of infants to the factories would be greatly minimised.

83. Employing women for 11 hours a day is nothing but, to say the least, a gross cruelty. Even if we take 60 hours a week then for all labourers, a day is of 10 hours' duration. Even this is too much for the male labourers but what of the labourers of the weaker sex. I would therefore suggest that it ought to be provided that no woman is to work for more than six hours a day. If women are paid less than the men, they should therefore be required to work for less hours. Again every woman worker should be given one hour's interval after three hours' work. It should also be provided that no woman is to be employed on hard and dangerous work. It is not desirable that female workers should work along with the male workers. The work in the factory should be so arranged as to set apart a particular work or works and it should be provided that women should be employed on such work or works only.

84. (i) Children like to sleep in the morning. It is conducive to their health. Therefore I would suggest that the section should be so amended as to provide that no child shall be employed before 8 o'clock in the morning in the winter and before 7 o'clock in the morning in the summer and shall cease to work at or before 1 o'clock in the afternoon in winter and 12 o'clock in summer. He is to get one hour's interval after working for two hours as discussed in the next heading. Again in Section 23 (c) the word "Six" should be changed to four and this provision should be enforced rigorously. Four hours' work from a child is quite sufficient. To work him for longer hours would mean retarding his growth and depriving him of his education. As suggested elsewhere, after doing the work in the factory, a child should be compulsorily sent to a school to receive his ordinary or technical education there. It will be far better for him if he is imparted the ordinary education and is taught a particular profession from a practical point of view.

If my suggestion as regards the hours for children as explained above is accepted, then Section 21 (b) shall have to be changed accordingly as suggested above. Even if my suggestion *re* the hours is not accepted, then the interval of half an hour must be increased to one hour. This is very essential. Children like to play. On account of being young they become tired after three hours' work, therefore they require sufficiently long rest.

89. *Work of Women and Children in Factories not subject to Act.*—(ii) I have already suggested and I suggest with all the vehemence at my command once more that the provisions of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act ought to be extended to all the factories in the Punjab and thus every factory should be brought under the Act and thus regularized. If the Local Government see it fit to apply the above section to certain cotton and ginning factories there is no reason why it should not be applied to other factories as well. I would therefore suggest the immediate application of this section to each and every blessed factory in the Punjab.

## XII.—Wages.

96 (i). In the Industrial Undertakings in the Punjab, the wages are frightfully and shamefully low. With these low wages, labourers live a very poor life indeed. In no other part of the world perhaps may people be living so poor a life as the labourers and workmen of the Punjab. The wages paid to them are even not sufficient to keep their body and soul together. They wear most scanty and dirty clothes. They live in most dirty and dark houses. They eat the coarse food. Life to them is no pleasure. With most of them it is simply a burden, but as it is naturally dear to every one, therefore they linger on, waiting eagerly for the time when death will relieve them of the misery and poverty which Providence has been pleased to reserve for them.

In most of the factories, the wages of unskilled labourers range from four annas a day to one rupee and four annas or so. Children are generally employed at four annas and even less than that. Adults usually begin from six annas a day and sometimes get eight and even twelve annas when there is a rush of work and labour is scarce. But in no case does a labourer get more than one rupee and eight annas per day at an average. The skilled labourer usually begins from twelve annas a day and can often get even one rupee and eight annas per diem. They often rise to four or five rupees per day when they have become quite experts in a particular calling.

Fortunately Punjab is an agricultural province. Most of the labourers have some land the produce of which goes a long way in supplementing their earnings, and thus they manage to support their families, otherwise if they were to depend on each of them singly starvation would surely be the result.

(ii) The prevailing rates of wages in the agricultural areas surrounding the industrial undertakings of the Punjab are even less than those prevailing in the factories. There the average rate of wage is never more than four to six annas a day. Generally the labourer gets his meals free. He has a free house in the village. He has not to pay the barber, the water carrier and the sweeper, as the labourers in the industries in the towns have to pay. Therefore it can be said that, taking all things into consideration, both the agricultural labourer and the industrial labourer are at an average in the same boat so far as the question of wages is concerned.

(iii) *Relation to Prices and Cost of Living.*—Although in the Punjab a cost of living index has never been prepared officially, still it can be said without any fear of contradiction that the cost of living is not less than double of what it was before 1914—the pre-war year. This can be easily judged from the price of the flour which is the staple food of the Punjabi. Before the war a bag of flour of 2 maunds cost from five to six rupees. At present it costs from ten to twelve rupees, or exactly double the pre-war price. The prices of the other articles generally follow suit with those of flour. Hence it can be safely asserted that the present cost of living is double the pre-war cost.

With this double cost of living, the employees were at an average given only 50 per cent. increase. Justice demands that even on the basis of the pre-war wages an increase of 50 per cent. is still due and is justly demanded. As a matter of fact, it is a misnomer to call it an increase. It is no increase at all. The workers demand to give them the same price of the money as the used to get before the war. Give them the same amount of flour, the same amount of ghee, dal, meat, and so forth, as they used to get before the war and they will be satisfied. If you cannot do it, then give them the money by which they can buy the same quantity as before the war. This can only be done by giving them 50 per cent. more increase. Then, and then only, will labour be satisfied, and then, and then only, justice will be meted out to them, and then, and then only, will their agitation cease; otherwise they are sure to resort to Bolshevik methods, which, I am afraid, will not only paralyse the Government but will also be the cause of disruption of the society.

102. Whenever a labourer is required to work "overtime" he is generally paid at the rate of one and a quarter times what he usually gets. The same is true about Sunday work. This rate has now become almost well recognized in all the more important industrial undertakings in this province. The same is the intention of Section 31 of the Indian Factories Act.

In the minor industrial undertakings, no "overtime" is paid. When there is a rush of work the poor labourer is made to work overtime, and even on the best of his festivals. If all factories, of whatever status or dimension, are brought under the hammer of the Act, the evil of working a labourer overtime without any payment will be greatly minimized. The "overtime" payment is not sufficient either. It ought to be one and a half times the usual rate. Section 31 does not say that the rate for overtime should be one and a quarter times. What it says is "at least one and a quarter times." It will be better to avoid any misunderstanding if for the above words "not less than one and a half times" is substituted.

104. Whether the wages change or not, or whether they increase or decrease, there is always enough supply of labour. So it can be said without any fear of contradiction that labour supply is not at all affected by the changes in wages. The extreme poverty of the poor labourer compels him to accept what the rich employer is pleased to give him.

105. *Minimum Wages.*—This is the dire necessity of labour to-day. Minimum wage ought to be fixed by legislation, which must be penal. Law must punish the one who gives as well as the one who takes less than the minimum wage fixed by the Statute. If minimum wage is fixed by law, it would mean end of labour troubles to a great extent.

By minimum wage I mean neither more nor less than the mere living wage. Let a standard of living of different labourers be fixed and then pay them in such a way so that they may be in a position to keep it up. At present there is no such standard fixed and no minimum wages are fixed even by custom or agreement. They are unknown in India. They ought to be fixed.

In no other country in the world are labourers paid far below the living wages than in India. The minimum wage paid to an adult labourer at an average, as already shown, is about six annas a day. That comes to about Rs. 1½ or say Rs. 12 a month. This is the very sum that is paid by the Punjab Government to the "Chaukidars," who are most lowly-paid Government servants. Now, can it be

honestly said that Rs. 12 a month, or say even Rs. 15 a month, are even barely sufficient for a labourer to live on. Apart from this, as shown in Sections 103 and 104 of this chapter, if there is more supply of labour, the wages become even less than the above minimum. Now it is not a question of supply and demand. Human labour can never be regarded as a mere chattel and therefore the laws of supply and demand are not to be made applicable to it. Labour is not to be paid less than the living wage. You have no right to semi-starve a man simply because you can get many to serve you. The law of the country ought to make it penal to semi-starve a man by paying him less than the living wage.

The real trouble in India is that the "fat" people get "fat" salaries and never care for the claims of labour as labour. Nowhere in the world are the Government officers so highly paid as they are in India. Hence it is the Government really who does not want the minimum wages fixed. For if they are fixed in the industrial undertakings they are sure to have their own effect on the low-paid Government employees. They will surely then agitate to be paid according to the standard fixed by the minimum wage legislation. This the Government does not want. Had this not been so, the Minimum Wage Act would be passed to-morrow. And even if the capitalist-ridden Legislative Assembly were to reject minimum wage legislation, the Viceroy can issue an ordinance under the Government of India Act.

I admit that it is very difficult to come to a certain conclusion and data to fix a living wage. The Royal Commission on Labour in Australia recommended the fixation of minimum wages and in their excellent Report, a copy of which I saw in the Government of India Labour Department Library, they set forth a very nice method, although very technical, of fixing the required minimum wage. We may again follow the example of the Commission on the Codification of the Labour Laws of Canada, who recommended that the minimum wage should be adopted nationally. For a model of legislation, I would suggest the Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Saskatchewan Acts on the subject. As a rule, they provide for the boards of five members who, when they find that the scale of wages fixed by legislation for any class of particular workers in a particular industry within the scope of the Act is inadequate, may summon representatives of employers and employees and proceed to the establishment of a minimum rate of wages for the occupation concerned. The same procedure is adopted in Great Britain and in many other countries. We may also well adopt it for India with advantage.

106. (i) I would suggest that the fines ought to be prohibited by legislation. The employer has his remedy in the ordinary Courts of Justice if a worker has not done good work or has done some other thing to harm the employer or damage his property.

(iii). Fines are generally utilized by the employer most selfishly and unjustly. In the majority of cases, they find their place in the very pocket of the employer for which they are really meant by him. In other cases, e.g., in the N.W.R. Moghalpura Workshops they are utilized to add to the fund of the officers' clubs, the officers' dancing halls and officers' dinner parties and so forth. Now this is nothing but robbing Peter to pamper Paul. This is mere cruelty and the height of injustice done to the workers. In the plenitude of their power and with the little brief contemptible authority which these officers arbitrarily exercise over their subordinates they resort to fining most cruelly just to add to the fund of their dinner parties or dancing halls where they enjoy and booth. These officers have no right whatsoever to utilize the amount of fines inflicted on the poor subordinates. Either the amount should go to the owner or a special fund should be created to pay prizes to those workers who have done good work. A part of it should also be reserved for paying a subsidy to the Workers' Union if they so desire. At any rate, the money of the workers should be utilized for the workers only in one form or the other. A legislation to provide for utilization of the fines, deductions, and so forth for the use of workers as desired by them should be immediately promulgated.

107. (ii) In the bigger industrial undertakings, generally, the wages are paid on the 7th, 9th, or 12th, of the month, following the month for which they are due. In the printing presses of Lahore, payments are made generally on the 15th of every month, i.e., a fortnight after the month in which the work was done. In some of the factories wages are not paid for months and months, notwithstanding the protests, entreaties and threats of the employees.

(iii) I am very strongly of opinion that the periods of payment of the wages should be regularized by strict legislation. I am also of opinion that delay in making payment should be penalized. The machinery for compelling the employer to make regular payment on the due date should be very simple and absolutely inexpensive and should admit of no delay.

(iv). There should be some suitable legislation about the payment of unclaimed wages too. In case the wages are not claimed by the worker or his legal representative, or in case he cannot be found or otherwise the amount should be handed over to the Trade Union of which the worker was a member, or in any other case, should be utilized in the Worker's Orphanage Fund. In the case of small and out of the way factories, the amount of the unclaimed wages of a worker there should be sent to some Labour organization of industrial workers.

(iii). I would certainly recommend the insertion of a Fair Wages Clause in the contracts mentioned above.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (i) Apart from the Punjab Chamber of Commerce, the Punjab Trades Association, the Punjab Merchants' Conference and the Punjab Stock Exchange which are general bodies of the capitalists and employers, no particular organization of the employers in the industrial undertakings has yet been formed in the Punjab. My friend, Sardar Gudial Singh Salaria, Bar-at-Law, and Chief Agent of the Dhariwal Woollen Mills called a meeting of the industrialists at Amritsar quite recently. I have not heard anything of it as yet. Probably nobody attended and the attempt to organize the industrialists has probably been given up.

(ii). There are a certain number of Trades Unions and labour organizations of the industrial workers in the Punjab. The following more or less represent the industrial workers in one sense or the other :—(1) N.W.R. Union, Lahore ; (2) The General Worker's Union, N.W.R., Lahore ; (3) The Punjab Motor Drivers' Union, Lahore ; (4) The Lahore Tonga Drivers' Union, Lahore ; (5) The Lahore Press Workers' Union, Lahore ; (6) The Dhariwal Textile Workers Union, Dhariwal. ; (7) The Motor Transport Workers' Union, Amritsar. ; (8) The Simla Rickshaw Coolies Union, Simla.

Of these the first four have been registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act and the other four have not yet been so registered. The registration of the Dhariwal Textile Workers' Union has been cancelled for want of any activity but the Union has again been resuscitated. But for the most inimical attitude of the employers, as will be explained in Section (120) Sub-section (iii) all industrial workers would certainly organize themselves into Unions.

118. (i) No adverse effect on industry has at all been experienced on account of the labour organizations. The production has not been adversely affected either. As a matter of fact industry as such has been immensely improved on account of these trade combinations.

(ii) The labour organizations have certainly been of immense help to the workers in securing better working conditions for them. It is on account of these organizations that we see the workers a bit better off than they were in the past, and it is on account of these organizations that a spirit of bettering their conditions has been infused in them and a general awakening has been brought about among them. All the little facilities, all the little increments and all the little amenities that have been given lately to the workers, have been the result of the agitation created by these combinations. The movement has been a God-sent boon to the workers and they know it.

119. The activities of the trade unions of industrial workers are varied and diverse. Chiefly their activities are naturally diverted to the increase of wages or rates. That is their chief demand. Over and above that they try to ventilate their all sorts of grievances peculiar to the services or the professions of their workers. The unions take up individual cases of the members as well and represent their cause to their respective authorities. None of these unions, has however started any mutual benefit scheme or unemployment sickness or old age insurance or strike pay fund. They are yet in their infancy and are gradually developing themselves to the great advantage of the class for whom they stand and fight.

120. (i) The history of the individual trade unions mentioned in Section 120 may be very briefly summarised thus :—

(a) *Railway Workers' Unions.*—About the time I was agitating for the betterment of the Revenue Patwaries of the Punjab at Hoshiarpur in 1918, there were signs of restlessness among the North Western Railway Employees. Two of its employees—Mr. J. B. Miller and Mr. M. A. Khan took a great part in the movement and managed to bring about a strike of the railway servants and particularly of those employed in the Moghalpura Workshops. The strike lasted for about two months. The result was, so far as this subject is concerned—the North Western Railway Union. It was recognised by the authorities and at one time claimed a membership of more than 20,000 members. The usual internal differences among its officers, however brought

about its fall. Mr. J. B. Miller and Mr. M. A. Khan were dismissed and expelled from the Union—the former for his certain unconstitutional behaviour and his bullying nature, while the latter for the alleged embezzlements of large amounts of money of the union. These two joined hands and started a different union chiefly consisting of the Moghalpura Workshop people. This union has changed many names and now it is called the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway. Both are registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) *Motor Drivers' Unions*.—Soon after the Indian Trade Unions Act came into force in 1927, I organized the Motor Drivers of the Punjab and had this registered under the Act. It was the first union that was so registered. For a few months it worked very well under my presidency, but soon after, on account of my having gone to the Khairpur State as its legal adviser, it fell down and is at present not doing much at all. I opened its branch at Amritsar. It has now, however, become independent of the parent body and calls itself the Motor Transport Worker's Union, Amritsar.

(c) *Tonga Workers' Union*.—In 1922 or so, there was a great agitation among the Tonga drivers of Lahore. They struck work and their strike was very successful. The rates were increased and their other grievances were mostly done away with. Their union worked well for sometime, but on account of the usual differences among its officers, it came to naught in 1924 or so. In 1927 I organized the Tonga drivers again and had the union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. For a little while it worked well. When I went away to the Khairpur State, it came to almost a standstill. Now it is practically doing nothing and exists in name only.

(d) *Textile Workers' Union*.—The workers of the New Egerton Woollen Mills at Dhariwal were organized by Mr. J. B. Miller and D. Chaman Lal, M.L.A., and to my great pleasure a member of the Royal Commission on Labour, in 1928, into what they called the Dhariwal Textile Worker's Union, Dhariwal. They led their big strike which lasted for about three months but was a complete failure all the same. As a result of their failure, the union which was a registered body under the Indian Trade Unions Act, died out, and its registration was also cancelled on account of want of any activity. It has been, however, restarted by me and will be in full swing once more in the near future.

(e) *Press Workers' Union*.—This union was started sometime ago by certain Congress workers. It never worked well. It exists in name only and does not carry on any activity worth the name.

(f) *Simla Richshaw Coolies' Union*.—This was started by me this year and so far has been very successful indeed. If the notorious mischief makers in the trade union movement were to leave it alone, it is sure to do its work very nicely. On its representation, the Simla Municipal Committee appointed a Labour Enquiry Committee to enquire into their grievances most of which have been removed.

(ii) *Attitude of workers*.—It may be said at once that the majority of industrial workers do realize the benefits and advantages of their organizations and believe in their power and potency. The employers' iron grip however, still deters most of them and it is therefore that the unions are not so successful as they ought to be. The fear of being dismissed or being brow-beaten by his officer or employer and being victimized in some other way, does not allow a worker generally to take a keen interest in the movement—much as he would like to.

*Extent of their control*.—Generally speaking, the movement is practically controlled by the outsiders. The workers are generally illiterate and cannot carry on the movement themselves. There is no Union of the industrial workers of the Punjab which is entirely controlled by the workers themselves. There is no doubt that the executive committees of the unions are of the workers themselves but there is always some outsider as president, or general secretary, or union leader, whose will often prevails. In the present stage of the movement, it is only natural that the outsiders should guide and control it. When the workers will get enough training and experience then they are sure to control it themselves. It may be remarked in passing here that even according to the Indian Trade Unions Act, a certain number of outsiders can be executives of a union.

(iii) The attitude of employers is, in general, averse, if not inimical towards the workers combinations. The employers do not at all like their employees to be organized and united for their own amelioration. Circumstances however, may compel them to express a mere lip sympathy with the cause of the workers but inwardly they are decidedly against the movement and would kill it altogether if they could. Their relations with the unions are not friendly either. Every effort is being made to keep the movement down by avoiding the real issue or by white-washing certain affairs most vitally affecting the welfare of the poor workers.

121 *Trade Unions Act, 1926*.—(i) *Extent to which utilized*.—Out of the 13 unions of all sorts of workers that have been registered in the Punjab, there are four only which may be taken to be those of the industrial workers. If we leave out the

North Western Railway Union which is mainly constituted of the clerical staff of the North Western Railway, and if we again wash out the Motor Drivers Union and the Tonga Workers Union which, as I have already said, exist on the files of the Register of Trade Unions only, there is one union, namely, the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, which may be said to be doing some work. Although it claims a large number of members, but its *bona-fides* are always doubted, on account of the thoroughly bad record of those who run it. It is not recognized by the Railway Administration and has practically done nothing for allaying the grievances of the workers who are quite illiterate and ignorant and are often led by certain of their leaders for their personal glorification and aggrandisement.

(ii). *Effects.*—The effect of the Indian Trade Unions Act on the workers' organizations has been, in general, very wholesome indeed. The mouths of the capitalists against the right of the workers to combine, have been shut once for all. The angle of vision towards the labour movement has decidedly been changed. They cannot now openly challenge the labour leaders—however much their blood might be boiling within themselves against the workers' combinations. The accounts are now regularly kept and audited, the registers of the unions are properly written. Meetings are held without any fear. The Act has certainly given a great impetus to the trade union movement in general. It is a boon to the worker and is certainly a Magna Charta of the proletariat.

(iii) *Possible amendments.*—The present Act is necessarily limited in its scope. It is the first Act of its kind in India. I feel it is suitable to a great extent so far as the present stage of the movement is concerned. Every one knows that the labour movement in this Province is still in its infancy and has not yet attained its teens even. It is about a decade old. The Act itself, is not more than about a couple of years old. I therefore, think that very many drastic changes in the Act will arouse great agitation among the capitalists who, on account of their power, may not stifle the noble movement. Let the Act grow with the growth of the movement. There lies the wisdom and there lies the statesmanship.

A few amendments here and there, are however necessary even at this stage of the movement. For instance, I would suggest that unions of workers and wage-earners must be registered under the Act. The registration under it ought to be thrown open to Government servants as well. It ought to be provided that if a member of a Trade Union were to desire in writing to have his subscription for membership sent to his union out of his pay or salary the employer shall be bound to do so. Again the Act ought to provide for greater facilities for starting the mutual benefit schemes, sickness, deaths, old age and orphan's funds, and for the utilization of the political fund and so forth.

122. *Miscellaneous questions regarding Trade Unions—Position of Employees in State Industrial Concerns.*—The Government employees cannot still have their Unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. I have never been able to understand the position of the Government in this respect. I would strongly suggest that all Government servants should be expressly allowed to take full advantage of the Trade Union Act. It is really a very sorry state of affairs that professional people, servants, workers, employed by private individuals and quasi Government can have their unions registered, but Government servants cannot. The sooner this invidious distinction is done away with, the better will it be both for the Government and its employees.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. Ever since the advent of the labour movement in this province and so far as the industrial workers are concerned, there have been two strikes of the North Western Railway employees out of which the second was a lock out. Another strike was of the Lahore Tonga Drivers, one of the Dhariwal Mill Workers and one of the Motor Drivers of Amritsar. Another strike was that of the workers in the Khewera Salt Mine. Quite recently there was a strike of the Mandi Hydro-Electric Power House Workers at Jogindarnagar, and that of the Rickshaw Coolie of Simla. Out of these the North Western Railway Employees Strike and the Dhariwal Workers' Strike were the most important. Although the Tonga Driver's Strike was a complete one, but the number of strikers was not a large one.

(i). Except the Amritsar Motor Driver's Strike, all the strikes of the other workers mentioned above were purely economical. If the North Western Railway employees struck twice, they did so for the increase of their wages, if the Dhariwal hands declared the strike, they also did on account of the most frightfully low wages, again if the Tonga Workers of Lahore struck, they also resorted to it to have their



rates increased. The economic cause was the main cause of all these strikes. Of course, with it, other grievances were also added. The Motor Drivers of Amritsar struck because the Government has not provided a free Motor stand for parking their lorries.

*Successes and failures and their causes.*—Of all these, the first strike of the railway employees, the Tonga Drivers strike and the Motor Drivers strike was successful. All others failed miserably. Again the first was successful to some extent. The second one also resulted in a partial victory. The third resulted in a promise by the authorities to provide stands. This promise has not yet been redeemed although it was given about two years ago.

(ii) Although the Canal Patwaris Strike was the first in the Punjab, the North Western Railway strike of 1919, was the biggest and the longest strike in the province. It lasted for about two months. The second strike taken to be a lock-out of the same employees of 1924, also lasted for about two months or so. Tonga Drivers strike lasted for three days only. The Motor Drivers for about a fortnight. Although all the strikes were merely trade disputes the employers did not hesitate to give them a political colour. Again the real cause of the failure of the strikes has been the most objectionable attitude of the Police towards the poor strikers. It was also the usual underhandedness and the third degree methods of the notorious Punjab Police that brought about the failures of the strikers. In the name of order and peace, these custodians of law and order threatened the workers, intimidated them by all sorts of means and put all sorts of pressures on them. Their dirty deeds were certainly a disgrace to the King's uniform they so proudly wear. The result was that the poor workers got frightened, lost heart and came down and had to accept the employers terms. If the police would not interfere, I can challenge that in the Punjab, no strike would be a failure. It is not the Government, let me be quite clear—who is responsible for this strange and most awful attitude of the police. It is the white silvery pieces with our dear King's picture engraved on them which the beastly capitalists have so unjustly and so immorally managed to hoard that are, as a matter of fact, responsible for killing the spirit of the workers.

124. *Conciliation and Arbitration Machinery.—Opportunity afforded for Labour representations.*—All employers do not afford suitable opportunities for making representations on behalf of labour. They have set up what they call "Recognition of a Union." No negotiations or correspondence is made with the union which is not "recognized." No office-bearer of an "unrecognized" union is even granted an interview even to represent the workers cause. A provision ought to be inserted in the Indian Trade Unions Act which may provide for the *ipso facto* recognition of a union however humble it may be. The shibboleth of "recognition" ought to be done away with at once. When there is a Union, the employer should not put artificial obstacles in the way of the representation of the cause of the employees.

125. The Indian Trades Disputes Act was passed by the Assembly on the memorable day when a bomb was thrown into it. It came into force on the 8th of May, 1929, although, quite contrary to practice, the rules to be prescribed under it have not yet been framed. It has been aptly described as a panicky sort of legislation chiefly designed to curb the spirit of the workers and to all intents and purposes, prohibiting their strikes and thus putting an end to launching an economic war upon the capitalists. The measure was passed by the Assembly in the teeth of the labourers' opposition. It is therefore a thoroughly unpopular law and it is time that it should be amended.

It penalizes the cessation of work by workers engaged in utility services without notice, but it does not penalize the employers who without notice, discharge, dismiss or punish otherwise an employee. It does not punish an employer who would give insufficient wages to his workers. "Black legs" have been protected. It allows the Tribunal to adjourn the proceedings. This adjournment for an indefinite time may be used as an instrument to starve the men out. The labour representatives are not necessarily members of a Tribunal or of a Board. No panel system is provided. The function of a Board of Conciliation and those of a Court of Inquiry overlap to some extent. The Inquiry may be held in camera. Lawyers are not to appear in the Court of Inquiry. No corresponding advantages are given to the utility services although they are put under certain disadvantages under the Act. Strikes under certain conditions are to be illegal. It virtually penalizes sympathetic strikes.

#### XVII.—Administration.

133. *Central and Provincial Legislatures.*—The labour legislation is a central subject and, therefore, all labour laws of All-India importance are enacted by the Legislative Assembly. This is as it should be. The conditions of labour are about

the same everywhere in India, therefore, all labour laws must be enacted by the All-India Legislature. In the Bombay Presidency, in Assam, and in Madras, certain labour problems have cropped up peculiar to those provinces, and, therefore, suitable provincial labour laws have been enacted there. In the Punjab, no particular necessity of any provincial importance has arisen to justify the enacting of a Punjab labour law, and, therefore, none has been passed by the Punjab Legislative Council so far. I do not know about the attitude of the provincial legislatures of other provinces towards the labour matters, but about the Punjab Legislative Council, of which I have been a labour member for about three years now, I can say with confidence that its attitude, on account of its being a communal and capitalistic body, has always been indifferent towards it. There are certainly reasons for it. In the first place, the Punjab is predominantly an agricultural province. Secondly, the labour problems of this province are not so wide, so acute and of political importance of such a magnitude as to attract the attention of the council often.

The attitude of the Central Legislature may be described as a "forced benevolent sympathetic" one. In the Assembly, the majority consists of big landlords and of big magnates of industry and commerce. It is an out and out capitalistic body. If it had its own way, it would certainly crush the labourers and workmen of India and reduce them to mere slaves. But thanks to the sympathetic attitude of the Government and some of the members of more advanced views based on far-sighted statesmanship, the Assembly generally takes a sympathetic attitude towards the labour problems and takes pretty keen interest in solving them. So far it has passed the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Trade Unions Act and the Trade Disputes Act. The Maternity Benefits Bill, of Mr. N. M. Joshi, and the Weekly Payment of Wage Bill, of D. Chaman Lall, have been rejected. Under these circumstances I would suggest that some more labour members ought to be provided for both the Assembly and the Councils, so that they may jointly do something for labour in their respective legislatures. One or two labour members cannot obviously carry the Council with them.

134. *International Labour Organisation.*—So far as I know, the Government always brings a resolution in the Legislative Assembly not to ratify conventions passed by the International Labour Conference at Geneva. All sorts of reasons are advanced by the Government for not ratifying it. I would submit that all conventions of the International Labour Conference should be ratified by the Government if they are not declared expressly by the conference itself that they would not apply to India. The conventions of the International Labour Organization have their own effect on the labour legislation in this country. The sympathetic attitude of the Government and the keen interest taken by it in the labour legislation and labour problem of this country are certainly due to a large extent to the International Labour Office at Geneva. A branch of this office has recently been opened in Delhi also.

137. *Effect of Differences in Law or Administration in British India and Indian States.*—In no Indian state, so far, has labour legislation been introduced. So backward and so antiquated are they. No restrictions as regards the employment of child and women labour, no fixation of hours, no provisions for compensation, no formation of trade unions, no fear of trade disputes, no rules for safety, and no labour leaders so far exist there. It is, therefore, that some of the most selfish and greedy capitalists have shifted to the Indian states from British India. But with my experience of Indian states, I can say that they never prosper there and they are sure to retrace their steps towards British India again. Under these circumstances the labour laws of the Government of India should by order also be introduced *pace facto* in all the Indian states.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

146. *Future Developments necessary.*—I have already stated that the Punjab is sure to develop its industries in the near future immensely, with the opening of the Mandi Hydro Electric Works at Jongindarnagar, and hence industrial labour in this province also will likewise become very important. It will, therefore, be necessary to set up all those labour machineries that have been set up by the industrially developed countries of the world. The establishment of a labour office with a labour commissioner in charge of it is very necessary indeed. All questions relating to labour should be entrusted to this office. A labour gazette should be issued by this office either monthly or quarterly as might be deemed necessary, giving all the statistical data after the labour gazette of Bombay. The Punjab is the nearest province to the Bolsheviki Russia, and in order to save the

labouring classes of this province from becoming militant, it is not only necessary to keep them satisfied but it is also necessary to watch them with a lynx eye. This can be done if my humble suggestions contained in this humble memorandum of mine are so kindly accepted to the best advantage of all parties concerned.

DAGMAR CURJEL WILSON, M.D. (GLASC.), D.P.H. (CAMB.), WOMEN'S  
MEDICAL SERVICE, INDIA (RETD.).

*Introductory.*—My experience in Bengal industries has been published by the Government of India in the Bulletins of Industries and Labour, No. 31, "Women's Labour in Bengal Industries."

What I learnt about conditions among women and children on the Bihar coal-fields has been incorporated in a report to the Jharia Mines Board of Health, Dhanbad, from whom it is obtainable.

My survey of conditions among women and children employees in the mills and tanneries of the British India Corporation, Cawnpore, was done at the request of that firm, and submitted to them.

This present note refers to experience gained in the Punjab in the course of my work, first as Woman Assistant to the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Punjab, and latterly while working under the Indian Research Fund.

In the Punjab I have come in contact with women workers in the following industries:—(a) Cotton ginning; (b) women workers at Khewra salt mines; (c) women workers on Kangra tea estates; (d) women home workers at Amritsar.

III. 16. (a) *Cotton Ginning.*—The employment is seasonal, and the majority of workers come in daily from their neighbouring village homes.

IV. 23. No reliable mortality figures are available. Northern Indian women generally tend to marry early (at about 14 years) and go through a large number of pregnancies, so that the infant mortality rate is relatively high. The abortion rate is also high, as also the death rate between one and two years of age.

The atmosphere in a ginning factory is full of dust and any real ventilation is usually absent. In the districts where ginning factories are situated the people are accustomed to a fairly balanced diet, the amount only being limited by their economic condition.

Physique varies, on the whole, village women and children compare favourably with the poorer inhabitants of towns, and the yearly period of work in ginning factories is of short duration. These women, as is general in India, often suffer from the effect of prolonged lactation (reason: partly economic and partly due to the firm conviction that lactation prevents them becoming pregnant again). They are also like the rest of the population, frequent victims of malaria.

A recent survey which I made of Punjab children's teeth showed the presence of marked hypoplasia, co-related with clinical histories of fever.

24 and 25. *Medical Facilities.*—Village women who come into ginning factories know little of the medical relief which may be available at the town civil hospital. They would also plead that they have not the time to go and wait for treatment there. Female medical relief in the Punjab is advanced compared with many other Indian provinces; and in the towns where ginning factories are situated there is usually a woman sub-assistant surgeon attached to the civil hospital. Such women, however, though doing useful work in the town, suffer from the limits of their training, their knowledge of preventive medicine is very limited, and they usually come but little into contact with the woman workers in the ginning factories.

Often a trained midwife or dai is also attached to the women's department of the civil hospital. She may also carry on considerable practice among the better class town folk, but the village woman worker usually seeks the aid of her customary indigenous dai at the time of child birth.

If the management were willing to bear the expense, there seems no reason why the woman sub-assistant surgeon should not at least, one afternoon a week, attend at the ginning mill during the time women workers are employed there and the women workers be allowed to come to her for advice and treatment during their working hours. A medical woman, if tactful, has rarely any difficulty in attracting Indian women patients, who will not readily go to men doctors.

26. Sanitary arrangements are usually primitive, but those to which the workers themselves are still accustomed.

29. Malaria is the chief disease complained of, and anæmia is often present. The duration of employment in ginning mills is short, and there is no evidence to prove that these women's lungs are permanently affected. Tuberculosis in the Punjab is mostly a disease of the larger towns and cities.

V. I have no experience of any special welfare arrangements for women in ginning mills. Managers have told me they wished they could keep young children off the premises, but the short annual duration of the women's employment does not encourage the provision of creches or other amenities.

VI. There is but little literacy among the class of women who seek work in ginning factories.

IX and XVII. There is a general impression that during the cotton ginning season, women are worked overtime. The factory inspecting staff is very few in number, and millowners see no disgrace if possible in evading the law.

This question was brought up by me before a large audience of educated Indian women at the last meeting of the Punjab Provincial Women's Conference for Educational and Social Reform at Lahore, and it was decided that educated Indian ladies should try and create a public opinion against the evading of factory laws.

(b) *Khewra Salt Mines.*—The general observations made about Indian women workers under (a) apply also to the women workers at Khewra. Special points are that the facilities for medical relief are better, but there is ample scope for the provision of a trained woman health visitor to work among this special community.

As in many other Indian mines the least good condition are among the women surface workers.

(c) *Women Workers on Kanga Tea Estates.*—Women do coolie labour on tea estates a large part of the year, while living in their own village homes. They state their average earning as about 2 annas a day. For reasons which I am at present investigating in connection with my osteomalacia enquiry under the Indian Research Fund (aided by the Punjab Government), their diet is extremely unbalanced, and among them I have found conditions analogous to the "Hunger Osteomalacia" prevalent in Central Europe immediately after the war.

There is but little provision for female medical relief in the upper part of the Kangra valley, but where available the women eagerly seek treatment.

(d) *Women Home Workers in Amritsar City.*—In connection with my osteomalacia enquiry, I have been investigating the living conditions of women in Amritsar City. Women do not care to work among men in the carpet factories, but do a certain amount of joining together of small pieces in their own homes.

Amritsar is a damp town, the sub-soil water level being high with very narrow streets and high buildings.

Mahomedan women who observe *purdah* especially suffer from lack of sunlight, and the city is one of the centres of rickets and osteomalacia in the Punjab. There is also much tuberculosis.

There are efficient Government and mission hospitals for women, which are much used when the women and children are really ill; but of preventive medicine little is yet realized or practised, and there is a large scope for health education among the general population, especially through the schools.

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## THE CENTRAL LABOUR FEDERATION, PUNJAB.

The leaders of the trade union movement in Punjab organized a central body by the name of the Punjab Labour Board in the year 1926 on the initiation of Mr. N. M. Joshi, General Secretary of the All India Trade Union Congress, who arranged a meeting of the different leaders in the Y.M.C.A. Hall. There existed before this three bodies claiming to be the central organizations for the Punjab, but actually they were not the real central organizations of the trade unions in Punjab. Mr. M. A. Ghani was made General Secretary of the Labour Board. In the year 1927, when election of the office bearers took place, Mr. S. D. Hasan was elected General Secretary and Mr. M. A. Khan as President, but unfortunately Mr. M. A. Ghani refused to hand over charge of his office to the new General Secretary, who was directed by other members of the Board to start a new office under the name of Punjab Labour Board. Meanwhile, the Trade Union Act came into operation, and an application duly signed by the members of the Board was presented for the registration of the Punjab Labour Board. Mr. M. A. Ghani also counteracted this application by presenting another application for the registration of the Punjab Labour Board, showing himself therein as General Secretary of that body. The

matter prolonged, and the Registrar had to take explanation from both sides. In the meantime, legal trick was played and Mr. M. A. Ghani got the certificate of registration of the Board. When we were asked by the Registrar to change the name of our central organization and, after some consideration, the members decided that the name of the Punjab Labour Board should be changed into that of the Central Labour Federation, Punjab. This having been done, a certificate of registration was also granted to this body by the Registrar.

*The present organization of this body.*—It is composed of the leaders of the different trade unions in Punjab. The strongest organization, viz., The General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, with other small organizations, are affiliated to this body.

*Activities of the Federation.*—This Federation co-operated with the Simon Commission, and submitted a memorandum and gave evidence, urging before the Commission certain demands of the Punjab labour, so far as its political rights were concerned. There was a strike of Dhariwal workers, and the Federation gave help of 200 hundred rupees to the strikers, and visited the mill manager with a view to settle the strike. After the deputation was led by Mr. M. A. Khan, President, and Mr. Hasan, General Secretary, and other members of the Board, the demands of the strikers were discussed for about three hours with the mill manager, Mr. Lewis. The settlement being unsatisfactory and disapproved by the strikers, they refused to go back to work.

Messrs. M. A. Khan and S. D. Hasan, President and General Secretary respectively of the Central Labour Federation, were very graciously granted an interview by His Excellency Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, the Governor of the Punjab, on 26th October last year, when, after thanking His Excellency, it was submitted before His Excellency that the real trade union leaders have been ignored by the Government as to their appointment as Labour members in the Punjab Legislative Council. Also it was pointed out that no chance has been given to real labourists of this province to represent labour in the International Labour Conference of Geneva. His Excellency promised to give full consideration to the matter when time comes.

Another deputation of the Central Labour Federation met the Minister for Local Self Government, and urged the nomination of Labour members in the municipalities and district boards in different big towns like Lahore, Amritsar and Ludhiana, etc. It is yet to be seen whether the Government will nominate Labour members or not, but the Minister promised a consideration of the matter.

Steps have also been taken to help the re-organization of a union in Dhariwal, but due to the resistance of the employers, it seems to be very difficult unless the employers are compelled to recognize the registered trade unions, and are prepared to grant them the facilities for the organization of a union.

Mr. M. A. Khan, President of this Federation, has submitted a separate memorandum which deals with the terms of reference to the Commission, and a schedule of the subjects falling within them in connection with the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, which is affiliated to this body, and most of the items to be replied by this Federation have been dealt with by him in that memorandum, and therefore it will be reiteration to discuss them again.

There are a few grievances of the Tonga Workers' Union. The main grievance being the operation by the traffic police. This can be ascertained from the number of the Tonga drivers having been fined during the last year. There will not be scarcely any Tonga driver in Lahore who would have escaped punishment from the Law Court. They are also treated by the police in a very contemptuous way, filthy and abusive language is a common thing. In the Law Court, they are not allowed even the chance of defence. Here it may be urged that the secretary of a registered trade union of Tonga workers or the general secretary of this Federation should be permitted to advocate their case in the Court whenever needed. There is another trouble regarding the recognition of its union by the Municipal Committee, even though it is a registered body.

The other unions affiliated to this body are Motor Drivers' Union, Laundry Workers' Union, Press Workers' Union, which are working on mutual benefit system.

## THE PUNJAB PROVINCIAL TRADES UNION CONGRESS, LAHORE.

### I.—Recruitment.

3. (i) There are numbers of existing methods of recruitment, but unfortunately some of them are condemnable. (a) A mate sometimes induces the poor labourer to follow him, and the former gets commission or remuneration from the employers.

for supplying the labour. That commission or remuneration for all intents and purposes constitutes a reduction in the wages of the labourer. Though it must be conceded that the services of a mate in collecting the labour for the employer are not valueless in all cases. (b) The labour contractors are very helpful in supplying the labour to the employer. (c) The agents in the service of the employer to import the labour. (d) In case of railway and some other industrial departments some officials are employed in particular to recruit labour.

(ii) The desired possible improvement could be made by training the labour to seek for employment for themselves without intervention of an agency. This improvement will go to create reciprocal benefit both to the employer and employee : (a) Organized union of labour ; (b) Appointment of bureau.

(iii) (a) On various grounds it appears to be desirable to establish public employment agencies. To our mind some defects in the subsisting methods will be removed.

(b) There is a possibility of practical schemes in this direction. Various trade unions can function in supplying, respectively the required and particular kind of labour to the employer subject to constitutionally fixed conditions advantageous to both the employer and employees. The aforesaid various unions may have a central controlling body to which the requisition for labour may be sent directly. The expenditure of maintaining such central controlling office will be borne by the Government, with some reasonable contribution to be made by the employers. The honest and constitutionally recognized labour procuring firms or offices may be opened on the approval of both the Government and central controlling body and the trade unions concerned.

7. (i) (a) So far as unskilled labour is concerned, it is idle to complain much on the ground of unemployment in the Punjab, excepting abnormal cases of retrenchment and dismissal.

(b) In case of skilled labour of some particular class the question of unemployment makes its appearance. In case of clerks the complaint respecting unemployment appears to be general and real.

(ii) (a) The retrenchments and dismissals both in case of unskilled and skilled labour are deeply felt, and the aggrieved persons have seriously been resenting since last few years, which gives sometimes birth to discontent and economic trouble.

(b) Voluntary retirement, unless it is virtually forced, does not create a trouble, nor does it give rise to the controversy centering round the questions of unemployment.

(c) There are many other causes, as for instance too much inclination for State service, which appears to be due to lack of national and industrial education.

The unsuitability of the modern system of education in many cases constitutes a cause for unemployment ; non-realization of dignity of labour ; lack of real encouragement to indigenous industry.

(iii) *Possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress.*—(a) Industrial development in the country and opening of such useful works which may go to invite the unemployed and other persons without embarrassing the country economically.

(b) The legislature may provide to fix the percentage of profits to the capitalist or employer, and the remaining profit to be distributed amongst the employees.

(c) True trade unionism and its chief principles should be respected.

(d) Free trade should be done away with, subject to suitable legislative measure to prevent the propensities of getting exorbitant profits on the part of the manufacturers and dealers.

(e) National and industrial education.

(f) Strict compliance with the Trade Unions Act without any direct or indirect interference on the Executives. Unemployment insurance will go along to meet the difficult problem of unemployment to a certain extent. By various methods the unemployment insurance, when properly and constitutionally guided, might prove a very good remedy. It can successfully work by the following methods :—

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*—(1) Securing service on the payment of a fixed and reasonable premium as it is done in life and fire insurance companies. (2) In case of retirement or dismissal, getting monetary aid on the payment of a certain fixed premium, as in the case of insurance companies. (3) Provident fund to be opened by the employer or by the union whose member he is. (4) Co-operation with a view to support each other. (5) Application of international conventions relating to unemployment. Application of international conventions relating to unemployment is a very useful scheme and method indeed to some extent.

## II.—Staff Organization.

13. (i) Relations between staff and rank and file ought to be harmonious, but unfortunately, in many cases, the relation is constrained, and the constraint of the relationships affects the production of the labour materially and reduces the labour efficiency.

(ii) Jobbers do not lead to efficiency nor does it render the labour advantageously productive; so far as the value of such employment is concerned, it is of temporary character and not much.

(iii) Works committees are very useful bodies, their constitution by a combination of both employers and employees will be of material help. They are sure to make industrial achievements in number of manners.

(iv) Works Councils and Industrial Councils by their good administration render the factories more productive and minimize the chances of strike.

15. (i) Most of the works are done by contracts. The contracts of such works are generally those in which highly scientific and technical knowledge is not required.

(ii) The practice of executing by subcontracts obtains in the Punjab, and it goes a long way in expediting the work.

(iii) The controlling authority of employer or departmental head supervises the work so done and acts as controller.

(iv) *Effects.*—The execution of works by contracts and sub-contracts is more rapid and economical, especially in Government departments.

## IV.—Health.

30. (i) The international labour convention concerning the question of sickness insurance is suitable on various grounds.

(ii) The other systems to secure insurance are possible and feasible.

(iii) The difficulties could be met by the introduction of homoeopathic medicine, which is the most cheapest and suitable to Indian temperament.

31. *Maternity benefits.*—(i) In the Punjab no such system subsists as far as we know, but the system will work very well, and ameliorate the constitution of labour if the maternity benefit is extended.

## VI.—Education.

40. To our mind nothing but free and compulsory education will solve the great problem which is our greatest desideratum, capitalists owning big factories should provide good schools severally or jointly for the education of the workmen and their children. When there is a group of small factories, the number of which employees is more than one hundred, the Government should be approached to open a school in such industrial area, and promulgate a law whereby workers and children should have obtained compulsory education, and where there a group of big factories the education should be compulsory to the high standard and the curriculum should provide training on industrial subjects. Night schools would be more preferable.

41. So far as we know, no facilities and vocational training is provided by any employer for the employees, which is a great drawback to the efficiency of labour. Of course, there are few Government industrial schools and Maclagan College of Moghalpura, but their accommodation is very limited, and competition is great and hard. Hardly 5 per cent. candidates are admitted.

42. The effects of education on standard of living and industrial efficiency of workers cannot be questioned, when the eating of a fruit of knowledge tree by Adam and Eve opened their eyes and made them wiser, so how it could possibly be expected that the labour with open eyes will not crave for better living. But it all depends upon the degree and sort of education imparted. Anyhow, education will have a healthy effect on the person who receives in increasing the industrial efficiency to the mutual gain of the employer and the employees and the country.

## VII.—Safety.

43. The Indian Factories Act, 12 of 1911, Section 37, with the regulations for safety in factories in the Punjab. These rules are fairly exhaustive, but are not strictly carried out as it ought to be. There must be a provision for compelling a factory owner to have a suitable fire extinguisher and apparatus sufficient to meet an emergency. The existing regulations in factories, railways, mines and docks are fairly well considered, but are not so strictly applied.

44. With the increase in the number of the factories brought under the Indian Factories Act, there was a deplorable increase in the accidents, too. In 1919 the total number of accidents was 241, with an average of .62 out of 100 operatives, but only nine years after, in 1928, the total number went up to 1,019, showing the average of 1.97 out of 100 operatives.

This increase really is very alarming, and must be checked at once through strict application of the law.

46. The following suggestions may be safely put forward as prophylactic measures for these accidents :—

- (a) Prosecution of the employees for the non-compliance with the safety rules.
  - (b) " Safety first " propaganda.
  - (c) Wearing of tight clothes during working hours.
  - (d) Changing of the pulleys in a safer manner.
  - (e) Use of eye protectors.
  - (f) To put competent workers on improved and newly imported machines.
  - (g) Strict application of the Compensation Act.
  - (h) And acquainting the workers with the " Safety rules."
- Other suggestions can also be made on the subject.

48. This first aid is one of the most important items, and should be given a special attention. Workers should be trained in " First Aid " and be supplied with first-aid books free of charge. Homoeopathic medicines being cheaper and better are preferable.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) (a) In July, 1924, the Workmen's Compensation Act came into force in India, but on account of their illiteracy was not fully availed of by the workers. The employers always try to suppress accidents by improper means or just to adjust the matter out of court with payment of a few rupees to the victim of accident or his bereaved family.

(b) Illiteracy, ignorance and poverty are the chief causes of paucity of claims.

(c) We would like to make the following suggestions :—(1) A written report of an accident should be submitted without further delay to the local police, and a copy thereof be forwarded to the proper authorities. The breach of this rule should be made penal ; (2) No cost of fees should be required in compensation case ; (3) The Commissioner appointed under the Act should take action *suo moto* ; (4) The legal aid should be given by the Government without charges ; (5) The enquiry should be held than and there ; (6) The evidence should be recorded immediately on the spot, without giving a chance to the employer to suppress it ; (7) No case should be compromised without the previous sanction of the Commissioner ; (8) The trade union of which he is a member should also be consulted in the matter.

#### IX.—Hours.

About 9 hours a day, or 60 hours a week is the ordinary period of work in factories, but 48 hours would be most useful for an effective work.

#### XII.—Wages.

Wages of the labourers have risen during the last ten years, but they are still inadequate in comparison to the rise in the cost of living. The scavengers are the most poorly paid labourers in the province.

The British Government is the largest employer, it should take the lead in enhancing the wages of the labourers, so that the private employers and quasi Government institutions may follow the suit.

#### XIV.—Trade Combination.

Trade unionism in the Punjab had been in the infancy. It requires encouragement at the hand of the Government. The instructions of the Punjab Government against the registration of the unions of the Government employees should be withdrawn.



**XV.—Industrial Disputes.**

There were several strikes in the province. They were chiefly due to inadequate wages and ill-treatment. They lasted at the most for six months. They concluded on the compromise of the employers and the employees. They ended generally to the detriment of the labourers. The failure was due to inefficient organization and deficiency of funds.

**XVII.—Administration.**

136. There should be a separate Ministry of Labour. All the mills, factories and industrial institutions should be under it. It should look towards the welfare of the labourers. The Government should provide legal help to the labourer in factories in the matter of accidents and recovery of wages.

There should be adequate representation of labour on all the local bodies and legislatures.

**THE EAST INDIA CARPET COMPANY, LIMITED, AMRITSAR.**

The East India Carpet Co., Ltd., have four factories in Amritsar :—

Hakeeman Gate	..	95	looms,	out	of	which	48	working.
Hall Bazaar	..	64	"	"	"	"	43	"
Sultanwind Gate	..	66	"	"	"	"	2	"
Mori Gunj	..	42	"	"	"	"	—	"

Total .. 267 looms, out of which 93 working.

The labour is paid on the piece-work basis.

The wages earned by a master-weaver or loom-holder vary from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 per mensem, and even upwards, according to the ability of the weaver.

The factories are opened in the early morning. But the weavers do not generally start working as soon as the factories are opened. Even when they arrive at the factories when the gates are opened they avail of the washing facilities provided, and a considerable amount of time is lost before they settle to work.

The carpet weaving being given out on the contract system, no compulsion is enforced as regards working hours. The weavers are free to come into the factories and leave them as and when they please. The actual routine hours do not exceed 8 hours during the winter and 10 hours during the summer. The weavers' houses are quite near the factories and they naturally are continually passing to and fro.

Medical facilities are provided. A doctor visits the factories each fortnight and certifies the age of any new apprentice. No boy under nine years of age is admitted to apprenticeship. The weavers are at liberty to go to the doctor in case of need at any time. Medicines are provided free.

The health of the weavers and their general physique is good. The only complaint we have of our weavers is that they do not get sufficient work owing to the depression of trade and foreign competition, which has enforced us in the last eighteen months to reduce the number of our working looms from 267 to 93. But in a general way, and as long as there is work to give the weaver, he remains at his work in a permanent way and does not try for other employment.

One very unusual feature of this industry is the absence of indebtedness to money-lenders, as advances without interest are afforded by the Company when necessary.

Lieut.-Col. G. M. ROUTH, C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A.O.C., CHIEF ORDNANCE OFFICER, RAWALPINDI ARSENAL, OFFG. DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF ORDNANCE SERVICES, NORTHERN COMMAND, RAWALPINDI ARSENAL.

The total personnel employed, about 2,000, are made up as follows (nearly) :—

(a) Officers and other British Ranks	..	..	..	..	100
(b) Sepoys	..	..	..	..	300
(c) Clerks (Permanent)	..	..	..	..	100
(d) Artificers (Workshops)	..	..	..	..	500
(e) General Labour, for storekeeping, internal transport, etc.	..	..	..	..	1,000

Of these (a) and (b) are regular soldiers.

(c) are civilians.

(d) and (e) are on daily rates paid monthly.

2. (a) and (s) live in Rawalpindi and neighbouring villages. They are in every sense casual labour. They have no security of tenure, neither do they now lose anything but their job if they stay away (more than 6 days). They are subject to short time (5 days a week) if the reduced arsenal labour budget necessitates. They are recruited by mates and Mistris who, "bring them in." The arsenal has no concern with men out of working hours. No industrial dispute has arisen within my knowledge.

3. Efforts are made to keep the balance between castes, but these efforts are personal rather than statistical.

Men are employed from father to son if they so wish, but no efforts in this direction are made by the administration. When men become too old for work, they are usually, but not necessarily, put up for a bonus in proportion to their record, but any long period of absence often invalidates their claims. The bonus may vary from three months' pay to perhaps a monthly pension or grant of land in very special cases.

4. These men have no organization whatsoever. Economic causes and the absence of much other local employment mean that the Chief Ordnance Officer has no need, other than humanitarian or with a view to improving out-turn, to show the men any consideration at all. Speaking generally, in fact, none of the problems usually connected with labour arise in any form in this arsenal. It is a fact, however, that the absence of competitive spirit or incentive in selection has definitely reduced the standard of labour in the arsenal as compared with civil industries in the neighbourhood. It is hoped some form of bonus system may improve this.

5. Artificers of a sort are very easily obtainable. Trade testing, however, shows the local standard to be deplorable. Trade Testing in Rawalpindi Arsenal did not, as in Ferozepore Arsenal and Kirkee Arsenal, cause unrest partly because artificers are too easy to get and could not afford to complain, and partly because the arsenal standard in Rawalpindi Arsenal was not so noticeably below the local standard as in Ferozepore Arsenal and Kirkee Arsenal and did not thus lead to such a general reduction in wages.

. . . . .

**KHAN BAHADUR GUL MUHAMMAD KHAN, EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER IN BALUCHISTAN.**

The industrial development of Baluchistan is still in the most primitive stage.

2. The total area of the province is 134,638 square miles of which only 46,960 square miles represents British Baluchistan and British administered territory, the remainder being under native states and tribal territory. The total population of the province including native states and tribal areas is 834,703 of which British Baluchistan and British administered territory represent only 379,646. The sub-joined table will show that according to the census of 1921, out of a population of 379,646, only 13,084 persons were employed in industrial undertakings of which 139 were females.

	Males.	Females.
1. Extraction of minerals, coal mines and petroleum ..	1,149	7
2. Textiles .. .. .	341	2
3. Hides and skins .. .. .	17	—
4. Wood workers .. .. .	689	—
5. Metals .. .. .	1,400	—
6. Potters and brick makers .. .. .	93	—
7. Food industries .. .. .	1,039	24
8. Industries of dress and the toilet .. .. .	2,031	102
9. Furniture makers .. .. .	36	1
10. Building industries .. .. .	1,027	1
11. Construction of means of transport .. .. .	25	—
12. Jewellers and printers .. .. .	417	2
13. Transport by road .. .. .	4,681	—
Total .. .. .	12,945	139

Strictly speaking, however, the majority of these 13,084 workers are not working in any organised industries. Taking the largest item in the table, i.e., "Transport by Road," all these 4,681 persons are pack animal drivers and owners. The next largest item of "Industries of dress and the toilet" includes largely washermen (dhobis), private tailors, and tailors employed by military contractors, private shoemakers and barbers. Similarly "Building Industries" includes largely private masons, contractors and irrigation channel excavators. Organized industrial institutions of a permanent nature are but few. According to the returns of establishments, industries and factories in which the average daily number of employees during the year 1928 was 30 or more, there were all-told five such establishments, industries and factories in British Baluchistan and the British administered territory besides coal and chromite mines, namely:—

	Average daily number of persons employed.
<b>1. Government and Local Fund Factories.</b>	
Engineering (general) .. .. .	106
Ordnance Department factories .. .. .	947
Railway workshop, including engine shed .. .. .	88
Total .. .. .	1,141
<b>2. All other factories.</b>	
The Quetta Murree brewery .. .. .	66
The St. John Steam Flour Mills .. .. .	34
Total .. .. .	100
Grand total .. .. .	1,241

Of these there were 26 juveniles employed in the Quetta arsenal. No female were employed in any of these industries.

	Open working.	Above ground.	Below ground.	Total.
<b>3. Mines.</b>				
(a) Coal mines .. .. .	—	33	122	155
(b) Chromite .. .. .	105	44	35	184
Totals .. .. .	105	77	157	339

It is clear from these facts and figures that Baluchistan can hardly boast of being more than an unknown entity in the field of industrial undertakings and I, therefore, feel diffident that I can furnish any information in respect of this province which will prove of any value for the purposes of the enquiry entrusted to the Royal Commission on Labour.

## CHIEF COMMISSIONER, DELHI.

### *Memorandum on Labour Conditions in Delhi Province.*

#### L.—Number of Industrial Labourers in Delhi.

In the absence of any Government agency or labour organizations it is difficult to form an accurate estimate of the number of non-factory labourers or to arrive at any accurate idea of the condition in which such labourers live. The difficulty is enhanced by the fact that non-factory labour is scattered all over the city except in the case of chamars, who are to be found living together in small colonies, or as they are called "bastis." It has only been possible to consult a few large employers of labour, the labourers themselves and certain social workers.

It is estimated that there are about 60,000 industrial workers in Delhi of whom, according to the last report on the working of the Factories Act, 10,448 are employed in factories registered under the Act. Without statistics for non-factory labour it is estimated that the labour may be classified approximately under the following heads :—

(1) Building trade .. .. .	20,000
(2) Textile .. .. .	8,000
(3) Gold and silver thread lameta work embroidery and thread ball making .. .. .	7,000
(4) Engineering, general .. .. .	6,000
(5) Tanneries and leather works .. .. .	4,000
(6) Iron and brass foundries and allied works, including trunk making .. .. .	3,500
(7) Printing .. .. .	1,500
(8) Biscuit manufactory, preserves and pickles, and aerated water factories .. .. .	1,500
(9) Woodwork .. .. .	1,500
(10) Soaps, chemicals, dyeing and printing .. .. .	1,200
(11) Gold and silver leaf, pottery and hosiery .. .. .	1,200
(12) Cap making, ivory and paints .. .. .	500
(13) Miscellaneous .. .. .	4,100

According to the factories report the labour employed in factories during the year 1928 was 9,990 men, 190 women and 263 children between 12 and 15 years of age. Of these 7,011 are employed in textile factories, 1,196 in the Public Works Department workshops, 357 in ironworks, 706 in printing presses and 1,173 in all other factories. Eighty per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the year. Work in iron foundries as well as in the cotton ginning departments attached to the three cotton weaving and spinning mills remains slack during the months of May to October each year. Ice factories remain closed during the period October to April. Of the total number of women and children 167 of the former and 228 of the latter are employed in the textile mills.

#### II.—Sources of Recruitment of Labour.

Recruitment of labour is not a serious problem for the factory owners. They attach little importance to references except in the case of the supervising and mechanical staff. The employer frequently takes a worker for a week or more on trial, during which period wages are not always paid.

Labour in textile mills was originally imported from Ahmedabad and Bombay, but little is now obtained from outside the province, the occupation being passed on from father to son.

The local labour market is unable to provide more than a small proportion of the labour required for large building works like the construction of New Delhi. The bulk of the labour, both skilled and unskilled, was imported from Rajputana and Northern and Central India. Most of these workers were agriculturists by origin, and even the artisans are more often than not small agriculturists who desire to supplement their income. The unskilled labour has now for the most part settled

down, but the stone masons, who are drawn from Northern and Central India return to their homes and lands at the busy agricultural seasons. As the amount of work in the Public Works Department has considerably decreased during the past two or three years it has caused a surplus of unskilled labour in Delhi.

The labour employed in small industries is scattered all over the city. The occupation is generally passed on from father to son. Those employed in iron foundries are recruited locally, and the industry having been one of the chief industries of Delhi for centuries, the workers have become highly skilled in this line. The province also possesses a number of skilled potters who are employed in the pottery works. This industry is, however, not as flourishing as it was twenty or thirty years ago. The total number of persons employed in the pottery works registered under the Factories Act was 123 during the year 1928.

### III.—Medical Relief, Health and Sanitation.

The city and suburbs are well provided with hospitals and indigenous dispensaries where free medical aid can be obtained. The Delhi Cloth Mills employ a compounder to render first-aid when necessary, but the location of an up-to-date municipal dispensary in the neighbourhood has saved the mills any further expenditure on medical relief. The Birla Mills have a qualified practitioner, who attends the mill premises morning and evening for two hours. The company also provides a sufficient supply of medicines. The Khalsa Spinning Mills give an allowance to one of the municipal doctors, who pays a weekly visit to the mill area and attends at other times when specially summoned.

The health of workers employed in small industries in the city is said to be fair on the whole, while in the larger factories it is generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is not possible to say what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness, as the factory registers merely indicate absence from work. The larger mills are mostly well ventilated and healthy to work in, but there is much room for improvement in smaller factories, specially those built in congested city areas. No occupational disease has yet been reported. Lead melting is carried on in two of the printing presses, but sufficient precautions are taken against lead poisoning.

The chief medical officer notes that chronic bronchitis has been noticed in some of the labourers, and general debility is appreciably present among the low-paid workers in the mills.

Coolie camps in New Delhi are a special feature, and a note on labour conditions at New Delhi by Major Webb, health officer, New Delhi, and assistant director of public health, Delhi Province, is appended.

As regards general sanitary conditions in the factories the Inspector of Factories writes :—

“ Sanitary conditions in the larger and well-organized factories on the whole are satisfactory; in case of smaller factories sanitation frequently leaves much to be desired owing partly to the ignorance of operatives and partly to the lack of interest on the part of the factory management.

“ Latrines are provided for workers according to rules laid down in the Delhi Factory Rules; they are flushed and kept clean by persons specially appointed for the purpose. The habits of the labouring classes being generally dirty, latrines are frequently found to be in a very insanitary condition, due more to the workers themselves than lack of provision and supervision. There is a tendency on the part of big millowners to instal flushed latrines where possible.”

The lack of proper nourishment, the insanitary conditions and surroundings in which the labourers live and the want of recreation and amusements places them in an unfavourable position for resisting disease.

As regards the health conditions of the boy labourers the certifying surgeon states as follows :—

“ The boys recruited for working in the mills and factories are brought to me for medical examination before being employed. Those that are found to be under the age of twelve, and those physically unfit are rejected, those between twelve and fifteen being employed for half-day work, and those of fifteen or over for full day. These boys between twelve and fifteen have no occasion to appear for examination again until they are fifteen. It is likely that some of them may develop such constitutional diseases as rheumatic fever, tuberculosis, chorea, etc., but being armed with a fitness certificate are allowed to return to work as soon as the acute symptoms of the disease have passed over, thus getting no rest for long periods to acquire a complete cure or compensatory development in their organs. Such cases are often met with in the out-patient departments. I beg to suggest that this class of boys should be brought up for medical inspection periodically before a Government medical officer.”

The Chief Medical Officer is of opinion that boys between fifteen and twenty should not be allowed to work long hours in steam-heated rooms, and he considers that medical officers should be appointed by Government, their pay being charged to the millowners. During the year 1928, 1,056 children were examined. Of these 168 were found under age, 10 were declared unfit on account of disease, 576 were found to be fit and between the ages of twelve to fifteen, while 302 were passed as fifteen or over.

#### IV.—Efficiency and Education.

As regards efficiency the industrial surveyor, Sardar Mehtab Singh, writes :—

"The efficiency of industrial labour is claimed to depend on the chief factors affecting the standard of comfort and general health. With the rendering of the conditions under which industrial classes live more healthy and consequently more attractive, the relative efficiency is expected to show a definite and substantial rise, particularly in the case of organized industries. From the point of view of economic development, the problem of improvement of efficiency of the industrial operative which is known to be less than that of the corresponding class of worker in western countries has to be solved in the interest of facilitating effective competition with foreign industries. There is ample evidence to show that the discomfort of working conditions has invariably tended to produce adverse effect on the output. The evils of intemperance among the labouring population also affect to an appreciable extent their efficiency."

The Inspector of Factories observes as follows :—

"I am of opinion that the efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased considerably during the past five or six years. The industrial educational institutions have, to a great extent, been responsible for this. But in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed; in fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in the factories. In my opinion health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of a worker. Unless the labouring classes are well fed by a corresponding increase in their wages it appears a difficult problem to effect any appreciable improvement in this behalf."

Practically all labourers are uneducated, and very few employers take any interest in providing educational facilities for their employees. The Birla Cotton Mills, however, maintain a primary school for the education of the children of their employees, while the Delhi Cloth Mills have provided rent-free accommodation in their premises for two municipal primary schools. There is also a night school for adults.

The introduction of compulsory primary education within municipal limits will gradually remove this defect among the working classes. It may, however, be noted that the working classes generally do not look favourably on primary education, and would prefer some more practical form, while unskilled workers cannot afford to keep their children at school as they count on their assistance in adding to the family earnings from an early age. Coolie labour is constantly changing so that continuity of education is difficult.

As regards technical education the industrial surveyor observes :—

"The introduction of some form of primary education supplemented with elementary technical training among the labouring population appears desirable from the point of view of the development of a practical industrial bias in the workers."

Industrial education is provided in the Government Industrial School which has 275 boys on the roll, 186 primary and 89 middle. The number of boys in the middle department is lower than it should be owing to the ease with which partly trained boys get work outside. The boys attending the school belong almost entirely to the artisan classes. The boys are mostly very poor. The school is not well situated to attract the boys of the working classes, and it seems probable that there is considerable room for the expansion of industrial education by the location of branch schools in those parts of the city which are more largely inhabited by artisans.

#### V.—Housing and Standard of Living.

On the subject of housing the industrial surveyor writes as follows :—

"The provision of housing accommodation for the industrial population employed by the industrial undertakings in the province is a voluntary act on the part of the employer. The industrial establishments employing a limited number of workmen or carrying on business operations during a part of the year have evidently no intention to house their labour. The enlightened employer in the organized industries, such as textile and flour milling industries, has however made a provision on a fairly appreciable scale for the accommodation of his operatives, either free or at a rate

from 30 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent. The dwellings provided consist usually of the single storey lines in single-room units, with either a small projecting verandah or in some cases a narrow enclosed courtyard. The new coolie quarters of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, are an improvement in the direction of better housing. In a city like Delhi the problem of sanitation is an all important one and deserves special attention from the employers as well as the local authorities concerned. There is room for improvement in the arrangements for the supply of water, latrine accommodation and provision of light and ventilation. The desirability to provide for the housing of industrial labour on an extended scale and to improve the slum property appears evident at this date."

The inspector of factories observes :—

"Quarters are generally provided for the permanent staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., and in the bigger factories such as textile mills, flour mills, etc., quarters are provided for a number of their labourers as well. Housing of all workers is aimed at by the mill authorities, and a great advance towards this end has been noticed during the past three or four years.

"Workers in the smaller factories are not provided with quarters to any great extent. There are temporary coolie lines erected adjoining the big workshops of the Public Works Department.

"Quarters where provided are cleaner, well built and sanitary, and are appreciated by the labourers as the same are rented by the mill authorities at a less cost than such accommodation could be obtained otherwise."

The chief medical officer notes :—

"In general the labouring classes dwell in one room tenements and in poor bastis of the city where the rents are very low. Overcrowding to a marked extent prevails in quarters inhabited by them. An attempt has been made by the three big mills of the city, viz., Khalsa Mills, Birla Mills and the Delhi Cloth and General Mills Co., Limited, to provide residential quarters for some of their labourers. The labourers' quarters, built at Qarol Bagh by the Delhi Cloth and General Mills Co., Limited, require special mention, as they are built on sanitary principles. The only defect therein is that the drainage system is defective. The management of the mills is anxious to provide sanitary drains as soon as a sewerage system is provided at Qarol Bagh."

As regard the standard of living, Rai Bahadur Mr. Sohan Lal, Secretary to the Municipal Committee, Delhi, writes as follows :—

"Except the textile and flour mills, which have provided quarters for about 25 per cent. of their workers, the labour is left to make its own arrangements in the city. Most of these men, and especially the chamars, who are engaged in the leather trade, live in overcrowded and insanitary houses. They are forced to do so as house rents are high in Delhi, and with their scanty savings these men find it difficult to keep soul and body together. They have, to a certain extent, to blame themselves for the position in which they find themselves. It is a well-known fact that an ordinary labourer on receiving his wages or after earning extra money by overtime, etc., must absent himself from his work for a few days till his ready cash is exhausted. He has not learned the habit of thrift and is not far sighted enough to collect anything for a rainy day. Sickness, marriages in the family and other religious observances forces him into the hands of the moneylender, and he is never able to get out of their clutches the whole of his life. It has to be admitted, however, that the employers of labour in Delhi are getting solicitous for the welfare of their workers and have begun to realize that their prosperity depends on the contentment and uplift of their employees. The worker also is getting out of his lethargy and is getting conscious of his strength. There is less drunkenness amongst them, and there is a desire to curtail their unnecessary expenses. At present their standard of living is low indeed."

The following note by the Inspector of Factories bears out the view taken by Mr. Sohan Lal :—

"The standard of living of the labouring classes is low : this is due on account of their poor earnings. Their wages are hardly sufficient to fetch for them and their families the bare necessities of life. The food of an average worker is far from being nourishing, and he is invariably found in dirty clothes. With a view to effect any improvement in the living of an average worker and consequently in his efficiency and earning capacity it is essential that he should be given compulsory elementary education."

Sardar Mehtab Singh, industrial surveyor, adds :—

"Speaking generally, the industrial labourer is content with a comparatively low standard of comfort and does not appear to possess power to increase his earning capacity by an enhanced efficiency. The food of an average worker is poor and his

clothing often dirty. There is practically no improvement possible in the standard of living of the industrial operative till such a time as a general policy of his betterment is adopted, a satisfactory scheme for his education is introduced and a suitable provision for housing him is made. With the provision of education for the children of industrial classes under tolerable conditions of life, a new generation of workers is expected to spring up which aim to regard industry as their fixed occupation. Any increase in the comfort of the industrial operative means a proportionate increase in his efficiency which adds to the interest of the employer while the factor contributing to the latter is expected to prevent loss from the economic aspect of the problem."

#### VI.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

So far as Delhi is concerned, the relations between the employers and the employed are generally satisfactory. Some of the larger factory owners have made deliberate efforts to foster cordial relations with satisfactory results, and as a result of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act the more intelligent employers have insured their labour against accident. A good deal, however, remains to be done in the way of provision for recreation, etc.

The general friendliness of the relations between the employers and the employed is, however, shown by the fact that Delhi has been free from industrial disputes for the past ten years, with the exception of one or two strikes of a very minor nature.

Up to the present labour in Delhi has been mostly unorganized, and trade unions are practically unknown. Efforts have been made recently to form trade unions of textile workers but met with little success.

There is a considerable amount of unemployment, especially among the unskilled workers, who have been prejudicially affected by the contraction of activities in the Public Works Department workshops. In the textile mills there has been very little unemployment of late. Labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have led to a great increase in output in Delhi. As a matter of fact, some of the workers from Bombay and Ahmedabad have come north to Delhi in order to get employment in the mills here.

#### NOTE ON LABOUR CONDITIONS AT NEW DELHI BY MAJOR J. R. D. WEBB, I.M.S., HEALTH OFFICER, NEW DELHI.

*Housing : During Construction.*—Originally Government spent Rs. 5 lakhs in providing quarters for coolie labour at New Delhi when the Imperial capital was started. Brick quarters were put up at selected sites. Water and other sanitary arrangements were made. These camps were given out to the labour under definite rules. Those relating to health were under the control of the health authorities and were laid down in printed pamphlet form.

*Present Times.*—Special plots of ground are now allotted for coolies. These coolies are not employed by Government. They are servants of the various contractors working in the area with the exception of the coolies employed by the Superintendent, Horticultural Operations.

The coolies build their own huts by digging the ground. The mud resulting is used for the construction of the walls, while thatch or odd pieces of iron sheeting form the roofs. Materials for roofing, etc., are provided by the contractors. These huts are thus partially underground and are about 5 ft. in height. Each hut houses about five people, making up one coolie family.

*Work.*—The coolies work in families, but children under twelve years of age are not allowed to work. Their hours are 6.30 a.m. to 6 p.m. in the summer, with two hours off in the middle of the day (12 to 2 p.m.). Winter 7.30 a.m. to 5 p.m.

Women do lighter work than men. Families are brought to the various works, i.e., infants and children. These children play about while their parents work.

*Wages.*—Coolies earn 8 to 12 annas per day.

*Food.*—Consists of inferior quality atta (flour) dal (pulses), rice, and some ghee or oil. It is of poor quality and this quantity is, roughly, about one seer (2 lb.) per adult per day. The food is bought from bunyas' shops which exist in the camps. The supplies are inspected by the health department to see that cleanliness is observed. The coolies are invariably in the debt of the bunyas.

*Education.*—No Government schools exist in the camps, yet one effort has been made of a very minor nature by private enterprise. As the labour is constantly changing, continuity of education would be difficult.

*Propaganda.*—This is done by the health department by means of cinema and lantern lectures relating particularly to disease and welfare conditions. It is much appreciated, and some good results have been obtained.



*Fuel.*—This is collected by the coolies and is stored in the camp in bundles. Bramble bushes are chiefly used as opposed to cow dung cakes, because animals (cows) are, generally speaking, not kept in the camps.

*Medical Aid.*—For the major diseases the coolies have facilities in the civil hospital, where they receive treatment. As, however, a visit to the hospital entails the loss of a day's wages, they do not readily avail themselves of treatment from this source, unless very seriously ill.

*First Aid, and Maternity and Child Welfare.*—In consequence the municipality opened first aid and maternity, and welfare posts at each camp. The coolies readily avail themselves of the advantages gained in this way. This work is now well established.

*Epidemics, other Diseases and Injuries.*—In ordinary years malaria affects this labour considerably. In dry years, such as 1928, this disease was conspicuous by its absence. The incidence of this disease has improved also with the general anti-malarial work which is being carried out in the area of the Imperial capital by the health department.

All coolies are regularly vaccinated against small-pox. In consequence the disease is conspicuous by its absence.

Plague has been unknown in these camps.

Cholera has occasionally appeared, but with prompt action, such as inoculation of coolies, purification of the water supplies, isolation at the isolation hospital, these outbreaks have been of a very minor nature with no cause for alarm.

Tuberculosis is not as common as might be expected under the overcrowded conditions of life. The outdoor life of the coolies may be responsible.

Injuries were at first common. There is a negligible number of injuries now.

*General Sanitation.*—This is carried out by a staff of sweepers employed and controlled by Government. Rubbish and sweepings are removed by motor lorry and are burnt or buried at distant places from the camps.

*Flies.*—Are generally conspicuous by their absence in the camps, except during the months of August and September.

*Roads in the Camps.*—These are kutchas, but are kept neat and clean by the sweeping staff.

*Latrine Accommodation.*—This is adequate. This is provided by Government, as in most cases the latrines are on the water-borne flush system. In some few instances there are dry latrines scavenged by a gang of sweepers to pail depots on the water-borne system.

*Drinking Water.*—This is by a piped purified water supply to the camps and is excellent. Coolies when in work in the area drink from any and every source, and a frequent sight is to see them drinking from the unfiltered water supply which is taken all over the area by pipes for horticultural purposes in the capital.

*Stoneyard Camp.*—This has, perhaps, been the largest in the world. Here labour is housed, but at present it is under private control, and is not a Government undertaking.

The picture given above is not a rosy one, yet is excellent in comparison with labour conditions as they exist at the brickfields at Shadara or Rajpur.

It might be interesting for the Commission to visit one or two of these camps while at Delhi.

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### Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES.

#### *Labour in the Factories in Delhi Province.*

As shown in the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in Delhi is 10,443, of which 9,990 are men, 190 women, and 263 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 7,011 are employed in textile mills, 1,196 in Public Works Department workshops, 357 in ironworks, 706 in printing presses, and 1,173 in all other factories. Eighty per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the years as most of the factories in Delhi are perennial.

Work in iron foundries as well as in the cotton ginning departments attached to the three cotton spinning and weaving mills remains slack during the months of May to October each year. Ice factories remain closed during the period October to April.

Of the total number of 190 women and 263 children, 167 and 228 are employed respectively in the textile mills.

### I.—Recruitment.

1 (i) When new factories are opened most of the skilled labour required is imported chiefly from places where similar concerns are already in progress. Labour in the textile mills was originally imported from Ahmedabad and Bombay, but of recent years it has practically become local as for the past many years the occupations are passed on from father to son and very little labour is now imported from other provinces.

Labour in the Public Works Department workshops employed in connection with the construction of New Delhi was to a great extent imported from Rajputana and Central India; it has now settled in Delhi. As the amount of work in Public Works Department factories has considerably decreased during the past two or three years, there is a surplus of unskilled workers in Delhi, resulting in labour being easily obtainable.

A number of Chinese wood workers were also brought to Delhi for employment in the Public Works Department wood workshops. A Chinese labour contractor was at one time engaged to recruit labour for these shops.

The workers employed in iron foundries are recruited locally. This industry being one of Delhi's chief industries for centuries, the workers have become highly skilled.

The province also possesses a number of skilled potters, who are working at present in the pottery works. This industry, however, is not so flourishing to-day as it was twenty or thirty years ago. The total number of persons employed in pottery works registered under the Act was 123 during the last year.

(iii) The only noticeable change during the recent years is the gradual inclination on the part of the workmen to take up factory work; this is probably due to the rise in wages paid by the employers: the change is, however, very slow.

3 (i) Recruitment in factories is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who can usually meet the supply. Much recruitment is also made by personal acquaintance. Most of the permanent workers, such as engineers, mechanics, and other skilled workers appear to have friends or relations looking for an improvement on their job, and references regarding ability and certificates not being of great value, changes of service frequently occur. Unskilled and casual labour is recruited through the labour contractor and mostly paid by him at the end of the day. There is no guarantee given by the contractor that work will be forthcoming the following day as it all depends on the amount of work that is then available.

(ii) I do not know of any improvement which can be effected with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour; the existing method with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour: the existing method is simple and effective. Labour being illiterate, would look with suspicion upon any change that might be contemplated in the present system.

7 (i) Unemployment is prevalent amongst the unskilled workers chiefly owing to the contraction of activities in the Public Works Department workshops.

In textile mills there has been very little unemployment during the past three or four years. This is due mainly to the fact that labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have increased the work in textile mills of Delhi, which have not only greatly expanded during the past four years, but have also worked at full pressure by day, and three of them have worked fairly regularly both day and night for the past two years. This has provided employment for all the textile workers available in Delhi, so much so that some of the workers from Bombay and Ahmedabad have travelled northwards and found employment in the Delhi mills.

A certain amount of unemployment prevails amongst the workers in iron foundries, in which the major work is that of manufacturing or repairing crushers used in the preparation of sugar. This industry depends to a great extent on the sugar crop, as a result of which employment is not very secure.

### II.—Staff Organization.

11. The managing staff in the textile mills in India throughout originated in Bombay or Ahmedabad whilst the managing director of the biggest mill is a local man. But in the case of smaller concerns the managing staff is recruited locally.

12 (i) Subordinate supervising staff is to some extent supplied from the various industrial and technical institutions. It is also imported to some extent from abroad. There is a marked difference between the unskilled and skilled workers, the former seldom, if ever, attain positions of skilled workers or supervisors.

13 (i) In well established mills, particularly those run by responsible companies, the relations between the employer and employed are good and compare favourably with other countries from what I have seen. In the case of smaller factories difficulties occasionally arise amongst the proprietors, managers, and workers chiefly on account of the non-payment of the wages.

15 (i) Recruitment of labour in factories is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who is generally able to meet the demand.

(ii) It is difficult to say to what extent sub-contracting is carried on, but since the labour contractor usually lives near the factory area and seldom undertakes to contract for more than two or three factories, it is unlikely that he would resort to sub-contracting.

(iii) The contractor has little or nothing to do with the working conditions of the labour he supplies. His duty finishes when he has supplied labour to the extent required by the factory manager.

#### IV.—Health.

28 (i) Exhaust and overhead fans are fitted in the workrooms of well-organized factories and workers themselves frequently fit up fans worked from a pulley of the power shaft. Stoves are provided in some factories during the winter months, but factories are usually kept warm enough by the power plant. Apart from this, little attempt is made to control the temperature of the factory rooms.

Two textile mills have installed elaborate cooling systems throughout their mills, considerably improving the conditions under which operatives work. The cooling plants have been expensive experiments, but the mill managers report that there has been an increase in the output as a result of better working conditions.

(ii) Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity came into force only last year. There are four cotton spinning and weaving mills in the province in which artificial humidity is being used at present, affecting about 7,011 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29 (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has been reported or has come to my notice. Lead melting operations are carried out in one of the printing presses in the province, the fumes from the melting stove being taken away with the help of an exhaust fan, and there is no danger from lead-poisoning.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

32 (i) Welfare work in the textile mills includes the providing of recreation grounds, an annual fair in the case of one mill, free distribution of clothes and sweet meats and the provision of hot tea to the workers in the case of another mill during the rest interval at night for the purpose of keeping the labourers from sleeping. Whatever little is done for the welfare of workers is undoubtedly appreciated and the mill owners admit that they get a fair return from the workers in the shape of loyalty and increased production.

Factories other than textile mills take little interest in their labour so far as welfare work is concerned; except in the case of Delhi Iron Works, which is one of the largest and best of its kind in Delhi. In this factory the workmen are given many comforts, including a bonus in the profit at the end of the year. This factory is also outstanding as having in its shops many men who have been in the firm's continuous employ for twenty or thirty years.

43. Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of the workers. Apart from the every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing their to notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the Factory Law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention.

44. A reference to annual report on the working of the Indian Factories Act in the Delhi Province will show that accidents have increased in the recent years.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes:—(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners due to some extent to the strict administration of Factory Law. (b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the Factory Inspector's office. (c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting they might get compensation. (d) Another reason is that since the war up-to-date machinery of entirely new patterns has been introduced into the country whilst the workmen have not had the proper training to keep pace with the new type of machinery. It is noticeable that accidents increase with the introduction of new types of machines. (e) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers still take frightful and unnecessary risks. (f) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

49 (i) During the year 1928 112 inspections were made, resulting in 22 prosecutions to enforce factory regulations. The bigger and well-organized mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules, and make an effort to do so.

### IX.—Hours.

#### A.—Factories.

55. Factory law permits working 11 hours a day but not exceeding 60 hours a week; this is taken full advantage of.

56. Factories work for six days a week and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

57 (i) So far as workers are concerned they have welcomed the 60-hour week since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers in this province; few factories have yet adopted the clocking in and out system; as a result a considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to and from the actual job. It is improbable that in a 10 hours day the average worker is on his job more than 8½ hours.

60 (i) (a) The break after putting in six hours' work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue. (b) The break after six hours' work is utilized chiefly as a rest. The workers do not generally take their meals at this time, their meal hour being earlier in the morning (9 to 10) and again after their work in the evening.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

(iv) Ample holidays are given or taken by the workers, apart from the weekly holidays there are public holidays which are mostly given to workers either as extra holidays or substituted for the weekly holidays.

61 (i) The day of rest is usually Sunday except in the case of Muhammadan factories, which observe Friday as their day of rest. It is, however, possible to change the weekly rest day at any time by giving previous notice to the Inspector, and this is done whenever the necessity arises; public holidays are often substituted for Sundays.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

#### A.—Factories.

82. The admission of infants into factories is discouraged. It is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers.

83. The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men except that the former may not be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m.

84. The present law with regard to the employment of children appears to have worked satisfactorily.

**XII.—Wages.**

96 (i) The prevailing rates of wages for the past five years are given below :-

Classification of labour.	Average per Month.				
	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
<b>I.—Skilled Labour.</b>					
Engine driver .. ..	Rs. 47 0 0	Rs. 50 0 0	Rs. 52 0 0	Rs. 52 0 0	Rs. 52 0 0
Carpenter .. ..	56 0 0	56 0 0	54 0 0	53 0 0	54 0 0
Blacksmith .. ..	55 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0
Mochi .. ..	29 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	26 0 0	27 0 0
Moulder .. ..	35 0 0	35 0 0	36 0 0	35 0 0	36 0 0
Turner .. ..	31 0 0	31 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Oilman .. ..	35 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0
Fireman .. ..	33 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Weaver.. ..	70 0 0	65 0 0	62 0 0	60 0 0	62 0 0
Spinner.. ..	38 0 0	35 0 0	34 0 0	32 0 0	33 0 0
Dyer .. ..	30 0 0	30 0 0	31 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Reeler (woman) .. ..	22 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Press distributor .. ..	22 0 0	22 0 0	22 0 0	22 0 0	23 0 0
Press compositor .. ..	34 0 0	34 0 0	34 0 0	33 0 0	34 0 0
<b>2.—Unskilled Labour.</b>					
Coolie (man) .. ..	Rs. 0 10 0	Rs. 0 10 0	Rs. 0 10 0	Rs. 0 10 0	Rs. 0 10 0
Coolie (woman) .. ..	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 5 6

**XVII.—Administration.**

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation ; although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the Rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to know what the posters really mean.

139 (i) In this province, which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction, namely, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, the Factory Inspection Staff consists of :—

One full-time Inspector.

One Industrial Surveyor under the control of the Director of Industries, Punjab, stationed at Delhi, who is notified as additional Factory Inspector under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act for the province of Delhi.

The number of factories in this province under the operation of the Indian Factories Act at present is 61 and the staff is adequate. It may be noted here that the Local Government in the case of the Punjab have decided to appoint one full-time Inspector with effect from April 1, 1930, in the place of the five Industrial Surveyors of the Punjab under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act. Thus from April next there will be one Chief Inspector and one Inspector in the Punjab.

This advanced method of inspection has not yet been considered by the Delhi Government, but with the extension of modern machine methods in working factories the services of another Inspector qualified to be notified under all sections of the Act would be useful and is becoming necessary. The present method of inspection has worked fairly satisfactorily up to this time, but the duties of the Industrial Surveyor are fast increasing and the time he can devote to factory inspection is decreasing as a result.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of Factory Law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results.

(iv) During the year 1928, 22 cases under the Factory Law were instituted against the occupiers and managers of five factories. Of the total number of cases 18 resulted in conviction.

## THE INDUSTRIAL SURVEYOR, DELHI.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. The bulk of the industrial labour in this province was originally imported from Ahmedabad, Bombay, Rajputana and Northern and Central India. Generally speaking, the recruits for the industrial labour market were provided from the agricultural classes, who were either uprooted from the soil or were left, under the baneful influence of fragmentation, small holdings not enough to support them and their families. The labour employed in the building trades, since the transference of the capital to Delhi, whose strength is considerable, was mostly recruited from the agricultural working classes from Rajputana and some from Northern India.

The agricultural population in rural areas in this province constitutes not a significant source of labour supply for industrial undertakings. The agriculturist generally finds attraction for industrial employment for short periods to supplement his earnings. The workers in the seasonal occupations are, however, recruited from agriculture, and to some extent from the artizan classes in the neighbouring villages, and they are therefore mostly migratory.

There are no available statistics showing the extent of migration of the industrial labour in this province. The seasonal occupations in industries are limited mostly to iron foundry and ice production, and the extent of migration is consequently not considerable. The skilled labour is mostly permanent, but the unskilled workmen are migratory to some extent.

The continued industrial depression combined with the contraction in the activities in the Public Works Department, New Delhi, has caused a surplus of industrial labour, particularly unskilled workers, in this province. The recruitment of labour is consequently not a problem for the industrial undertakings generally at present.

2. (i) The extent and frequency of return to his village of the industrial operative is mainly determined by the nature of his employment. The workers living with their family members are roughly estimated to constitute about 40 per cent. of the total strength of the labour employed in industrial undertakings in this province. The family members, particularly of unskilled workers, are also generally employed in industrial undertakings, and add to the family income. Such working classes are the last to return to their villages. In fact, a fairly important section of the industrial labour in this province has now practically settled down, and has either no village home or little family ties to serve as attractions for frequent returns.

(ii) There are no reliable statistics, but roughly speaking about 60 per cent. of the total labour force in this province is permanent.

3. (i) The employer often sends his agent, who generally belongs to the labouring classes and wields a certain amount of influence amongst them for purposes of recruitment of industrial labour in the surrounding districts. The recruit is paid his expenses incurred in journey and food from his village to the place of his destination. There is a labour contractor also whose services form an important factor, particularly in the building trades. He collects and supplies workpeople to the employer. The type of worker he supplies is, however, generally not a superior one.

(iii) The desirability of the establishment of public employment agencies for the collection and periodical publication of statistics deserves consideration. This is believed to operate to the advantage of the employer and the employee equally.

4. The bulk of the industrial population is now settled down in Delhi, and there is therefore very little disturbance of family life. There does not appear to be any appreciable disturbance in the case of migratory labour, whose work is mostly of a seasonal character. A section of the labour who has got his home in the neighbouring districts returns to his family at every possible opportunity.

7. (i) The extent of unemployment is not known.

(ii) I am not aware of any appreciable degree of dismissals nor of any voluntary retirements. There has been retrenchment in some industries owing to several causes. In order to minimize the cost of production, there is a general tendency for the introduction of labour-saving appliances and high-speed machinery in the industrial undertakings generally. The iron foundry industry, which was once known for its principal product in sugar-cane crusher or *hokhs*, and enjoyed a considerable export trade as far as the North-West Frontier Province on the one side and Bihar and Orissa on the other is in a depressed condition owing mainly to the reported poverty of the yield of sugar-cane crop in the surrounding districts coupled with increased external competition in recent years. The manufacture of gold and silver threads and lametta, which is the premier cottage industry of the capital city, has suffered a set-back by the continued chaotic political conditions of the frontier territory—one of the important consuming markets for the varied products of the industry.

The oil-milling industry is in a moribund condition. The internal suicidal competition is too patent in the thread-ball industry. The continued diminished activity in the building trades has already adversely affected the employment of labour, particularly unskilled operatives. The flour milling industry is passing through a trying period. The leather-tanning and leather-working industries are in a depressed condition.

(iii) In spite of the adverse conditions prevailing, there is no marked distress noticeable amongst the industrial population in this province. Yet it appears that employment in cottage industries is perhaps the best solution to alleviate such economic stress.

The development of home industries is known to play an important role in the national welfare of a country. The population being mainly agricultural, cannot afford to overlook the economic value of the home industries in periods of forced idleness. The solution of the problem of economic salvation of the masses fundamentally lies in the organization and development of home industries. The village can hardly remain a sound economic unit in the absence of the provision of alternative occupations suited to the existing conditions. The rural population forms the backbone of the people of the province, and in order to ameliorate conditions, an endeavour has to be made to inaugurate and develop home industries as well as secondary seasonal occupations for the agriculturist.

(iv) There is no unemployment insurance known in this province.

8. (i) and (ii) The small extent of the shifting composition of the industrial population generally renders the average duration of employment fairly long in the organized industries. The recruitment of labouring classes locally as feed for industries in other parts of the country is practically not known. The extent of casual employment is roughly estimated at 5 to 10 per cent., though no reliable figures are available.

(iii) The chief causes of absenteeism are malarial sickness and ceremonial observances and fairs. The extent of absenteeism due to sickness is calculated at 10 per cent. for a period of about two months in a year, between August and October, when malaria breaks out in the province. The casual illness and observance of religious ceremonies and attendance at marriages and fairs are responsible for about 5 per cent. of absentees, throughout the year.

The average wage earned by an industrial worker in the industry in this province is calculated at ten annas a day, as will appear from the statement of wages of workers in industries in this province under XII.—Wages. Six thousand workers lose 60 working days, while 3,000 workers lose 320 working days, on an average, during the year. The aggregate loss of wages therefore approximates to eight lacs and twenty-five thousand rupees.

## II.—Staff Organization.

15. (i) The intermediary contractors are practically not known in the establishments under the Factories Act, but in the building trades they are not uncommon.

The piece-wage and contract systems of work are gaining popularity with the industrial undertakings generally, as they are regarded to lead to economy and efficiency. The employer is saved any strict supervision, and the worker puts in an increased effort to augment his earnings.

(ii) The system of sub-contract is looked upon with disfavour by the industrial undertakings generally, except in the building trades.

(iii) Generally speaking, there is little control exercised by the contractor over working conditions in an industrial undertaking in this province. In the building trades, however, the contractor exercises sufficient control over working conditions.

(iv) The effects of contract work appear to be generally satisfactory to the parties concerned.

## III.—Housing.

17. The industrial employer is given facilities for the grant of Government land on favourable terms for purposes of building workers' houses. The provision of facilities in the matter of acquisition of land by the employer for housing his labour appears desirable.

18. The quarters provided to house the superior staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., are generally satisfactory from the health point of view. There is provision for lighting, conservancy and water-supply.

The dwellings provided in the organized industries for the accommodation of the workers consist usually of the single-storey lines in single-room units, with either a small projecting verandah or in some cases a narrow enclosed courtyard. The provision made for lighting, conservancy and water supply is on a restricted scale. The new coolie quarters of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, are an improvement in the direction

of better housing from the point of view of sanitation. The Birla Mills, Delhi, are now engaged in making an extended provision of water-flushed latrines in their coolie lines. In a city like Delhi the problem of sanitation is an all-important one, and deserves special attention from the employers as well as the local authorities concerned. There is room for improvement in the arrangements for the supply of water, latrine accommodation, and provision of light and ventilation generally. The coolie camps housing the industrial operatives employed in the building trades in New Delhi present not a pleasant spectacle and suffer by comparison.

The huts constituting a coolie-camp in New Delhi are built of mud dug from the ground covering them, with thatched roofs. Each hut, which is partially underground and measures about 5 feet in height, houses one family consisting of about five members. The general sanitation of the coolie-camps is controlled by Government with an adequate provision of fairly suitable latrine accommodation and water-supply for drinking purposes.

There is no demand made on the part of the working classes in regard to the standard of accommodation provided by the industrial employer. The housing accommodation provided is generally satisfactory, and in some cases superior to that to which the average worker is accustomed in his own village. This refers to the permanent housing accommodation provided by the employer in the organized industries.

19. The workers have never failed to take advantage of the accommodation offered for the purposes of housing them, by the industrial undertakings in this province.

20. The quarters provided for the superior staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., are generally rent free. The accommodation to house the workers is provided at a rate from 30 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent.

#### IV.—Health.

23. The general health conditions of workers employed in industrial undertakings under the Indian Factories Act and Mines Act in this province are on the whole satisfactory. The conditions obtaining in the industrial establishments not covered by the provisions of Factories or Mines Acts under which working classes have to work for sufficiently long hours in a day as well as to live, can hardly be described as conducive to general health of the operatives. The working conditions in the well-organized factory establishments on the other hand are fairly satisfactory from the point of view of general health, though there is room for improvement in small-scale concerns, particularly those built in congested areas in the city of Delhi.

Broadly speaking, the food of an average worker is poor and mostly consists of inferior quality of flour, pulses, rice and oil or ghee. He often shows a poor physique, and appears contented with a low standard of comfort. His clothing is often dirty.

24. The city of Delhi and the suburbs are fairly well provided with hospitals and indigenous dispensaries where free medical aid is available. The institutions are maintained by Government and local bodies.

The provision of medical facilities by the employer generally is on a restricted scale. The importance of the creation and maintenance of a healthy and contented labour force is, however, recognized by the intelligent section of the employer. The Birla Mills, Delhi, employ a whole-time qualified physician and surgeon with four compounders, and maintain a hospital where free medical aid is made available to their employees. A maternity home is also recently started under the charge of a trained midwife employed by the mills. The Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, maintain a compounder to render first-aid, if necessary. The mills are served by the Municipal Bara Hindu Rao Dispensary situated in their close proximity. The secretary of the mills donated a sum of rupees, ten thousand, towards the building of the dispensary for the purpose. The Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbi College Hospital is also close to the coolie-quarters of the mills. The Lady Reading Health School serves the female workers employed in the mills. The Khalsa Mills and the Delhi Flour Mills have engaged one of the local sub-assistant surgeons to render periodical free medical attendance to their employees on a monthly allowance. The Delhi Electric Tramways and Traction Company, Limited, Delhi, have also engaged the part-time services of one of the local assistant surgeons, for the purpose. A provision also exists on a small scale for the free supply of more common medicines in well-organized industrial establishments.

30. *Sickness insurance.*—There does not appear to be any general dislike towards the acceptance of Western medicine. The difficulty, if any, might however possibly be met by, the provision of a substituted recognized indigenous system of medicine.



In so far as the distribution of industrial regions in this province is concerned, there appears to be no real difficulty in securing qualified medical men in sufficient numbers willing to undertake the work.

The migration of labour in this province does not appear to affect the problem of sickness insurance to any great extent. The grant of medical attendance or pecuniary accident or sick benefit, funeral benefit and confinement and maternity benefit in case of sickness, accident, death or child-birth is realized to dispel the uncertainty of livelihood from the mind of the insured worker, making him more contented and perhaps less migratory than at present.

The financial resources required for the establishment of the institution may be provided from contributions partly by the insured worker and partly by his employer, together with a contribution by the State.

31. Amongst the industrial undertakings in this province, the Birla Mills, Delhi, have recently made a provision for maternity benefits with an allowance of three months' wages to be given two months before and one month after child-birth.

The employers of this province who were consulted in the matter were generally sympathetic towards the provisions of Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefit Bill. The desirability of such a legislation is recognized, and the security which a woman-worker must feel if she knows beforehand what her fate is to be on such occasions must be a source of strength and a great consolation to her.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

33. The Birla Mills, Delhi, have employed a labour secretary, whose principal functions are to look after the general welfare of their labour, housed in their coolie lines. To increase his interest in life and consequent efficiency of the industrial operative, the desirability of the employment of welfare officers and workers in industrial areas deserves consideration.

34. The Birla Mills, Delhi, provide cinema displays periodically, and maintain a small library for the use of their staff. There is a provision for refreshments on payment. A *dai* is employed to take care of and feed babies with milk in a separate enclosure within the mill premises, when their mothers are at work in the departments. An *Akhara* (wrestling ground) is also provided for the physical exercise of the labourers. The organization of an annual labourers' *mela* (fair) is a special feature of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi. A variety of entertainments in the shape of dramatic representations, cinema shows, laughing galleries, distribution of sweets and prizes is provided on the occasion. There is a provision for refreshments, on payment. There is a certain amount of propagandist work carried by the mills on the evils of intemperance by means of lectures amongst the working classes. It seems desirable to make a provision for open spaces with facilities for recreation, including sports and athletics, libraries, reading-rooms and cinema displays as means of instruction and amusement, and liberal medical assistance for the industrial population, on an extended scale.

35. The welfare activities have resulted in the contentment of the labour force, to some extent. There are also some signs of decline in drunkenness amongst the industrial population.

36. Broadly speaking, little or no serious attempt seems to have been made by the employer generally to provide for the education of the labouring classes in industrial undertakings. The ignorance coupled with conservatism of the uneducated workman is felt to tend to delay the progress of industrial development. The advantages of education among the working classes are, however, recognized by the enlightened employers and schools are provided for the education of the employees and their children in the Birla Mills and the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi. The Birla Mills maintain their own schools, including a night school for adults at their expense, while the Delhi Cloth Mills contribute rent-free buildings towards the maintenance of the schools opened by the Delhi municipality in their premises. The schools are used by the workers and their children to a fair extent. There are about 30 adult workers, 50 half-time workers and 300 workers' children receiving education in the Birla Mills' schools. The Delhi Cloth Mills' schools provide education to about 150 workers' children.

A section of the working classes does not view with favour the education of children who are the earning members of the family.

37. There is no provision for old age and premature retirement except that of a provident fund established in the Delhi Cloth and General Mills, Delhi. The desirability of such a provision is, however, recognized.

38. There is no co-operative organization amongst the industrial population in this province. The provision of co-operative societies with a view primarily to reducing his indebtedness is expected to improve the economic condition of the industrial operative. The industrial worker is generally in debt to the money-lender, who charges interest at exorbitant rates.

#### VI.—Education.

40. The introduction of compulsory primary education within the municipal limits is hoped to gradually assist in the removal of illiteracy among the industrial population.

The introduction of some form of primary education supplemented with elementary technical training among the labouring population appears desirable from the point of view of the development of a practical industrial bias in the workers.

41. The Government Industrial Middle School is the only Government institution in existence in Delhi in which facilities are provided for industrial education. There is room for ready expansion in industrial education, which is regarded as an essential investment for the production of intelligent and efficient workmen from the point of view of industrial development of the province. The establishment of a properly equipped technical school appears desirable to ensure successful recruitment to industry of the province.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act.*—With the extension of the Workmen's Compensation Act to organized industries, the intelligent employer has insured his labour against accident and the measure has proved of great benefit to the working classes covered by the Act.

The introduction of a scheme of compulsory insurance will be rendered necessary consequent on the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries with a view to placing the employer in a position to be able to pay compensation due in the event of a serious accident. The compulsory insurance by the employer is regarded to restore to the workman the security against his inability for payment of compensation.

52. The desirability of the extension of the scope of the Act deserves consideration. In the intricate modern industrial system, it is realized that there is hardly any justification for the exclusion of persons employed in branches of industry other than organized and hazardous from the operations of the Act. The complex machinery and intensive production of the industrial world of to-day are claimed to lead to frequent accidents, and a sufferer in an unorganized industry may be equally affected in the absence of relief by way of compensation as one engaged in an organized industry. The mere hazardous character of an occupation is regarded hardly sufficient justification for depriving those who suffer from the hardships involved in the rare accidents from the benefits conferred by the Act. The scope of the Act might be widened to include all classes of permanent workmen employed in both organized and unorganized industries.

53. (i) The desirability of raising the minimum scales of compensation resulting from the application of Schedule IV of the Act deserves consideration. The existing practice of lump sum payments in the award of compensation appears both sound and safe.

(ii) The present waiting period is admitted to be too long, and to result in hardship, as no compensation is payable in respect of the first ten days of disablement. The reduction of the waiting period by three days is considered advisable to minimize the effect.

The proof of dependence by the claimant claiming compensation to the satisfaction of the Commissioner under the Act is considered essential, not only to afford protection to the employer from fraudulent claims, but to secure relief to the dependants of a workman incapacitated to earn a livelihood to fulfil the intention of the Act.

(iv) The undesirable effect of enabling a workman to decide in a particular case for the ultimate liability for compensation to lie on the principal or the sub-contractor directly employing him as provided under sub-section (2) of Section 12 of the Act is recognized beyond dispute. The amendment of the existing section in accord with its general principle is accordingly suggested in such a manner as to make the employer directly engaging a workman liable for compensation in the event of an accident.

In order to enable Government to determine the extent to which injured workmen succeed in securing compensation, it appears desirable that the provisions of section 16 of the Act be so amended as to make the employer to submit returns in respect of all accidents irrespective of the payment of compensation.

The desirability to amend the provisions of section 22 of the Act in such a manner as to relieve the dependant of a deceased workman claiming compensation of the necessity of approaching the employer for the settlement of the claim, and to enable him to apply to the Commissioner in the first instance is considered obvious.

### IX.—Hours.

#### A.—Factories.

59. There appears to be no possibility of reduction in maxima as was indicated in the recent speech delivered by the employers' delegate from this country at the last International Labour Conference, when Mr. N. M. Joshi, the Labour's delegate suggested such reduction.

60. In the existing practice, the interval relates to the worker's meal time and fatigue during the same hour. The working hours during which the factory is at work are suitable.

There are other holidays mostly of religious character, in addition to the prescribed factory holidays observed in the various industrial establishments. The number of such holidays varies from establishment to establishment.

61. In the existing practice, Sundays as well as week-days are observed as holidays.

#### B.—Mines.

63. The working hours of the operatives in mines averaged to 36 a week, as shown in the Annual Report on the working of mines, in this province, for the year 1928.

The total number of mines subject to the control of the Indian Mines Act in this province is six only, comprising kaolin mines. The mining operations were conducted for 61 days during the past year.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

80. (c) *Other industrial establishments.*—The desirability of regulating the working of industrial establishments, employing a large number of persons and working with or without motive power deserves consideration. In many of the non-regulated industrial undertakings, the lighting and ventilation arrangements are defective, no restrictions are observed as to the working hours, long hours being the rule and holidays are seldom given. A large number of women and children are indiscriminately employed, machinery is often badly fenced or left unguarded, and even elementary sanitary requirements such as latrine accommodation and proper drainage are not satisfactorily provided. The consequence is that not only the health of operatives under such working conditions is endangered by disregard of the fundamental and cardinal essentials, but the industries themselves suffer by the impairment of efficiency of the operatives consequent on the deterioration of their health.

### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

#### A.—Factories.

88. The night work of women and children is prohibited by the provisions of the Factories Act. The textile mills employing an appreciable number of women and children work by double shift and engage them during the day. The young adults are, however, employed at night, but there are no statistics to show the adverse effect of such employment on their health.

### XII.—Wages.

96. (i) There are no accurate statistics available with regard to industrial wages in Delhi Province in the absence of any authorized agency for the collection of such data. From the enquiries conducted within the short time at my disposal, however, the existing average wages earned by the workmen in industrial undertakings in the province are shown to the last column of Appendix C.

(ii) The payment of wages in the surrounding agricultural areas is generally in kind. The average wage earned by a worker is calculated to approximate 4 annas a day. The piece-wage system is the rule.

(iii) It is difficult to ascertain the extent of difference between money wages and money value of earnings. The money value of earnings is, however, much less than the money wages.

97. (i) There has been practically no movement in the average rates of wages in recent years.

A statement showing the fluctuations in the purchasing power of money in Delhi, since the basic period, i.e., the pre-war period of 1912-14, is attached as Appendix A. The general trend of prices will be seen from the index numbers expressed in the different years as percentages of the retail prices of the commodities in the basic period.

(iii) There are no accurate statistics available to show the extent of relation between the wages and the prices and cost of living. The rates of wages, however, has fluctuated to some extent with the oscillations in prices and cost of living as will appear from the Statement at Appendix C.

(iv) There is no relation between the rate of wages and the amount of profits of the industrial undertaking generally. The bonus earned by the worker is, however, mainly determined by the profit made by the employer during the year.

104. The enhancement of wages, even to a slight extent, generally acts as an attraction for the labour and a similar reduction repels it.

105. In order to arrive at some satisfactory conclusion with regard to the minimum living wage, a detailed examination of the family budgets appears necessary for the two classes of industrial workers. Taking a representative family consisting of five souls as a basis for the purpose, the family budgets are drawn below :—

I.—*Family Budget of the Skilled Worker.*

Item.	Existing monthly expenditure (average).			Modified monthly expenditure (possible).		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Food .. .. .	18	0	0	17	0	0
Clothing .. .. .	10	0	0	8	0	0
Shelter (rent) .. .. .	3	0	0	2	8	0
Thirst (water and other drinks) .. .. .	2	0	0	1	0	0
Medical aid (attendance and maternity) .. .. .	2	0	0	2	0	0
Education .. .. .	2	0	0	2	0	0
Luxuries (cinema, etc., and ornaments) .. .. .	3	0	0	2	0	0
Miscellaneous (ceremonies like marriage, kaj, etc.) .. .. .	4	0	0	3	8	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

Average daily existing expenditure, Re. 1-7-6 pies.

Modified daily expenditure, Re. 1-4-3 pies.

II.—*Family Budget of the Unskilled Worker.*

Average daily income—						Rs.	a.	p.
Man .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	0	10	6
Woman .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	0	7	0
Child .. .. .	..	..	..	..	..	0	4	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

Average daily expenditure—

Item.	Existing monthly expenditure (average).			Modified monthly expenditure (possible).		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Food .. .. .	17	0	0	16	8	0
Clothing .. .. .	9	0	0	8	0	0
Shelter (rent) .. .. .	2	0	0	2	0	0
Thirst (water and other drinks) .. .. .	2	0	0	1	0	0
Medical aid (attendance and maternity) .. .. .	1	8	0	1	0	0
Education .. .. .	0	8	0	0	8	0
Luxuries (cinema, etc., and ornaments) .. .. .	2	0	0	1	0	0
Miscellaneous (ceremonies like marriage, kaj, etc.) .. .. .	3	0	0	2	0	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

Average daily existing expenditure, Re. 1-9-9 pies.

Modified daily expenditure, Re. 1-1-0 pies.

The conditions affecting skilled and unskilled industrial labour are different from the economic point of view. The earnings of a skilled operative are generally limited to the wages of the man whereas the income of a family of the unskilled workman is frequently supplemented by wages earned by the woman and children. This important economic factor necessitates separate analytical treatment of the family budget of two groups of industrial workers.

*Family Budget of the Skilled Worker.*—The average daily expenditure of the family works out at Rs. 1-7-6 pies, which is higher than the average earnings of Rs. 1-2 annas. From a consideration of the various existing factors contributing towards the depression in the level of the actual wages earned by the industrial operative, it is no wonder that most of the families are hardly able to make both ends meet.

To ascertain the minimum living wage, an elimination or reduction in the items of the schedule of consumption in the budget may be possible but the degree of such a modification appears to be restricted in view of the present concise regulation of the expenditure of the family. The modified expenditure as against the existing budget will indicate that there is left practically little or no scope for further reduction below the figures of Rs. 1-4-3 a day. The possibility for the reduction is likely to be too narrow if the curtailment of efficiency is not desired. Any further reduction in the scale of wages may tell not only upon the inclination and capacity of the industrial operative but it may also operate unfairly on the industry generally.

*Family Budget of the Unskilled Worker.*—The figures lead to the conclusion that the average daily expenditure of a family of the unskilled labourer composed of the man, woman and a child as earning members, is slightly lower than the average income. But owing to the fact that such a sight is not very common and that the actual wages earned by the family are generally depressed by voluntary and involuntary unemployment, the unskilled workers do not present a picture of contentment and enthusiasm. The margin of curtailment of the average daily expenditure of Rs. 1-3-9 pies of the family appears to be meagre because of their proverbial hand-to-mouth mode of living. The extent of possibility for the reduction in the items of consumption in the family budget seems evidently small and the modified expenditure as against the existing schedule may be made to stand at Rs. 1-1 anna a day, involving the sacrifice of efficiency.

In the light of the above circumstances, the existing level of earnings of the workmen in industrial undertakings appears to approximate to the living wage. The presence of this economic factor above all others is believed to explain the existence of harmonious relations between the employer and the employed, and the absence of strikes of any significant character in the industrial undertakings in their present stage of development in this province.

106. (i) The imposition of fines is almost universal. The deductions in respect of fines for breaches of discipline and for bad or negligent work or injury to the materials or other property of the employer are prevalent in the industrial establishments in this province. The deductions based on absence from work are also not uncommon. The amount of fines inflicted varies generally from a day's wages to a week's deductions in extreme cases.

(iii) The sums collected as fines are suggested to be credited to funds devoted for the welfare of the labour.

(iv) The legislative measures to regulate fines and deductions do not seem to be inopportune or premature at the present stage.

107. (i) and (ii) The system of monthly payment of wages is common with the industrial undertakings in this province. The contractor's employees are, however, paid on a fortnightly basis. In the existing practice, the payment of wages earned in one month is made in or about the middle of the succeeding month.

(iii) The desirability of legislation to remedy the evil of deferred payment of wages deserves consideration. The provision of payment of wages within a week where the system of monthly payment or any longer basis is in vogue, within four days in the case of fortnightly payments, within two days in the case of weekly wages, and within a day in the case of daily wages is hoped to dispel the uncertainty from the mind of the industrial operative and to tend to diminish his economic difficulties.

108. The industrial operative is generally in monetary difficulty. In the absence of receipt of his wages at the close of the month, he begins borrowing money at exorbitant rates of interest. In some instances, workers do not succeed in clearing themselves of the burden of debt they incurred first in taking up work in an industrial establishment.

109. The bonuses are acquired by stipulation on the basis of either increased production or profit made by the employer in the organized industries on a limited scale.

110. The workmen generally are not allowed any leave during the year. They are generally not paid their wages for the period of absence. The supervising staff in some of the industries is, however, given leave for varying periods during the year with pay.

There is no adverse effect on back-lying wages owing to absence from work. The payment of such wages is made to workers on their resumption of work.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. *Employers and Employed.*—(i) The following are the more important combinations of employers, with their headquarters established in Delhi :—(1) Punjab Chamber of Commerce ; (2) Delhi Factory Owners' Federation ; (3) Delhi Piece-Goods Association ; (4) Delhi Hindustani Mercantile Association ; (5) Delhi Cloth Market Company ; (6) Kirana Association ; (7) Bankers' Association ; (8) Iron Merchants' Association.

(ii) So far as the organizations of the employees are concerned, the Delhi Provincial Postal and R.M.S. Association, Khadi Association and Postal Audit Office Union are the important combinations in the Delhi province.

The industrial labour in this province is generally speaking, unorganized, ignorant and unable to voice its own opinion. The endeavours of the local labour union, called Mazdoor Sabhha, formed in the year 1928, so far as I am aware, met with no success in the matter of organization of industrial classes generally.

119. The Delhi Provincial Postal and R.M.S. Association aims at amongst others in organizing the Post Office and R.M.S. workers with a view to securing a voice in the administration of the Post Office, promoting brotherhood amongst members, promoting and safeguarding the interests, rights and privileges of the Post Office and R.M.S. employees, and obtaining redress of such grievances as may be brought to its notice by all constitutional means. The Khadi Weavers' Association was formed during September, 1927, with the object of regulating the relations amongst the members and of popularizing the use of pure hand-spun, hand-woven cloths through various means, such as hawking, delivering magic lantern lectures, publishing pamphlets, writing articles in the press and holding exhibitions. The Postal Audit Office Union is the organ of the employees for securing redress of their grievances by constitutional methods.

The Delhi Mazdoor Sabha or Labour Union, Delhi, came into existence in the year 1928, with the main objects to organize industrial workmen for their economic, mental, social, moral and material welfare, to secure fair and equitable conditions of life and work, to provide for sickness, maternity, death, accident, old age and other benefits ; to secure compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act, to redress grievances, to provide for education, to work for the establishment of cordial relations between the employer and the employee ; to settle industrial disputes by mutual negotiations, if possible, and to relieve the distress of its members in cases of strikes or lock-outs.

121. The All-India Postal and R.M.S. Association, Delhi branch, is the only union recently registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, in this province.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. This province is free from industrial disputes of any significant magnitude. During the year 1928-29 there have been two strikes in this province. The aggregate time loss amounted to 1,302 working days.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. There is undue competition in industry from the Indian states not under the purview of the Indian Factories Act.

138. The working classes, being illiterate, are generally ignorant of the provisions of the factory legislation.

APPENDIX A.

Variation in the Cost of Living in Delhi.

Basic Period—1912 to July, 1914.

Year.	Rice.	Wheat.	Jowar.	Bajra.	Barley.	Gram.	Salt.	Sugar.	House rent.	Social functions.	Cotton piece-goods.	Average.
1912-14 ..	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
1915 .. ..	100·0	128·0	120·0	121·0	113·0	117·0	100·0	64·0	100·0	100·0	80·0	104·0
1916 .. ..	110·0	110·0	100·0	96·0	113·0	118·0	122·0	98·0	100·0	120·0	150·0	112·0
1917 .. ..	101·0	112·0	100·0	90·0	110·0	110·0	138·0	117·0	140·0	125·0	175·0	120·0
1918 .. ..	119·0	143·0	193·0	172·0	134·0	137·0	194·0	80·0	140·0	130·0	200·0	149·0
1919 .. ..	165·0	178·0	203·0	221·0	179·0	217·0	155·0	129·0	150·0	150·0	250·0	182·0
1920 .. ..	186·0	153·0	143·0	154·0	151·0	193·0	166·0	147·0	150·0	150·0	250·0	167·0
1921 .. ..	165·0	169·0	218·0	221·0	179·0	231·0	155·0	239·0	150·0	150·0	200·0	188·0
1922 .. ..	147·0	164·0	150·0	154·0	141·0	175·0	150·0	237·0	130·0	145·0	175·0	164·0
1923 .. ..	129·0	117·0	103·0	115·0	89·0	103·0	194·0	156·0	120·0	140·0	155·0	130·0
1924 .. ..	131·0	128·0	113·0	115·0	110·0	110·0	155·0	92·0	110·0	140·0	145·0	122·0
1925 .. ..	212·0	156·0	157·0	152·0	145·0	131·0	140·0	349·0	110·0	140·0	150·0	167·0
1926 .. ..	194·0	146·0	163·0	170·0	148·0	160·0	140·0	344·0	120·0	135·0	155·0	170·0
1927 .. ..	201·0	136·0	150·0	136·0	134·0	151·0	133·0	320·0	120·0	135·0	150·0	160·0
1928 .. ..	220·0	136·0	160·0	159·0	138·0	165·0	133·0	301·0	130·0	135·0	145·0	166·0

*Note.*—The sources of statistics of prices of commodities in the above statement are the official records of Government. As regards rentage, social functions and piece-goods statistics, it may be mentioned that although they give a fairly adequate indication of the variations covering the period, they cannot be taken as representing wholly the extent to which standard of living has been subject to those factors. Every attempt, has however, been made to cover as large a ground as possible to the best of the resources at my disposal.

**APPENDIX C.**  
*Variations in Industrial Wages.*

Classes of workers.	Pre-war period 1912-14.	Period 1919-21.	Period 1922-24	Period 1925-28.
Average per month.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Driver .. .. .	30 8 0	47 0 0	42 8 0	45 0 0
Mistri .. .. .	45 0 0	68 0 0	60 0 0	65 0 0
Oilman .. .. .	16 0 0	22 0 0	18 0 0	21 0 0
Fireman .. .. .	20 0 0	32 0 0	27 8 0	30 8 0
Carpenter .. .. .	30 0 0	58 0 0	48 0 0	54 0 0
Mason .. .. .	30 0 0	47 0 0	40 0 0	45 0 0
Blacksmith .. .. .	27 0 0	46 8 0	41 0 0	45 0 0
Turner .. .. .	20 0 0	34 0 0	30 8 0	32 0 0
Moulder .. .. .	21 8 0	37 8 0	33 0 0	35 8 0
Weaver .. .. .	—	63 0 0	56 8 0	60 0 0
Spinner .. .. .	—	34 0 0	29 8 0	32 0 0
Dyer .. .. .	—	—	25 0 0	27 0 0
Mochi .. .. .	—	25 8 0	22 0 0	24 8 0
Reeler .. .. .	—	22 0 0	18 0 0	19 8 0
Fitter .. .. .	35 0 0	52 0 0	46 8 0	50 0 0
Drawer .. .. .	—	26 8 0	20 8 0	22 0 0
Press distributor .. .. .	20 0 0	27 0 0	21 8 0	22 0 0
Press compositor .. .. .	25 0 0	35 0 0	26 8 0	30 0 0
Warper .. .. .	—	40 8 0	36 0 0	38 0 0
Sizer .. .. .	—	40 0 0	34 8 0	38 0 0
Bleacher .. .. .	—	—	19 8 0	22 0 0
Folder .. .. .	—	25 8 0	20 0 0	24 0 0
Potter .. .. .	—	—	33 8 0	36 0 0
Thread-baller .. .. .	—	—	19 0 0	22 0 0
Carver .. .. .	30 0 0	50 0 0	36 8 0	40 0 0
Embroiderer .. .. .	20 0 0	30 8 0	25 8 0	28 0 0
Painter .. .. .	16 8 0	25 0 0	21 8 0	24 0 0
Doffer .. .. .	—	15 0 0	12 8 0	14 0 0
Coolie (man) .. .. . per day	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 9 0	0 10 6
Coolie (woman) .. .. .	0 5 0	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 7 0
Coolie (minor) .. .. .	0 2 6	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 4 0

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This Note deals with The Imperial Capital (New Delhi).

*Brief History of Coolie Labour.*—At the maximum period of construction some 30,000 labourers were employed at New Delhi. This number has now been much reduced and to-day about 13,000 labourers reside in the area. At first a very large number of the labourers were housed in an area, known as the Brickfields South to South-west of the New City. To-day the labour is housed in four distinct camps while a few labourers live near the site of their activities. The labour is imported from Rajputana, Northern and Central India and there is much fluctuation amongst the coolies which depends very largely on their agricultural activities in their homes.

A small proportion of the labour is skilled; these are chiefly connected with stone work, masonry, carpentry, blacksmiths and painters while the larger proportion can be termed unskilled. In this latter class come a large section employed on the manufacture of bricks. In the earlier days the labour was entirely controlled by the P.W.D. (Government). A large proportion of the labour was housed in barrack-lines. The barracks were constructed with bricks in mud with thatched roofs. The coolies did not pay rent for this accommodation.

A minor proportion of the labour was housed on camps, in huts built by themselves, made in mud with thatched roofs. In several of the camps Government provided a piped-pure-water supply, water flush latrines and set aside a recurring cost for the maintenance of an adequate sanitary staff (see costs later), while in a few camps the



labourer had to depend on a well water supply and dry latrines. Otherwise sanitary arrangements were similar to those already quoted. The remains of some of these permanent camps can still be seen in the area. Government maintained dispensaries and S.A.S. doctors to attend to the minor ailments of labour, while a creche was started for the infants of women workers.

This creche did not meet with as great a measure of success as was hoped and was closed at a later date. A welfare centre was opened about that time, under the auspices of the Delhi Health and Baby Week Committee. The labour arriving at New Delhi, especially at the brickfield area, was medically inspected and segregated for two weeks from existing labour, to avoid epidemic outbreaks. Plague never occurred. Minor epidemics of cholera occurred, these were always promptly brought under control. Small-pox occurred in small proportion but due to the satisfactory system of vaccination introduced by Government this disease did not spread.

*Malaria* was a disease which affected the labour in the spring and the autumn months and greatly incapacitated them, especially in malarious years. (See further).

*Present Conditions.*—The P.W.D. (Government) to-day employ their labour through the agency of contractors.

A clause exists in the contract whereby contractors are held responsible for the proper housing of their labour. There are two types of labour camps:—(1) those which are still partly maintained at Government expense and which represent the old camping grounds already referred to above; and (2) those maintained entirely by contractors.

*No. 1 Type of Camps.*—There are three camps in which the larger proportion of present day labour is housed in these camps. This labour may be divided into two categories; (1) some directly employed by Government on horticultural work at New Delhi (931 souls); (2) the largest proportion of labour working on Government works for numerous contractors; (3) labour working for contractors on private works.

In this last mentioned category is some labour employed outside the imperial capital, for instance on work at Delhi City. The total number of labourers housed in these three camps is 12,000.

*Housing.*—The housing in these camps is (1) partly in the barrack lines which were originally built by Government and have in some cases been added to by the contractors and (2) in huts built by the labour themselves. In the former case, the labour does not have to spend any money on constructing their homes. In the latter case the home costs them anything between Rs. 8 and Rs. 30. to construct. The huts are made by the labourer, who digs a hole in the ground, the resulting mud forms the walls of the hut, while the roof is thatched. The roof is not weather-proof. In this case the contractors have not paid for these huts. The conditions have grown as a transitional stage between the period when Government controlled the labour and the present control by contractors.

*No. 2 Type of Camps.*—There is one such large camp at present situated at the brickfields. The contractors have supplied housing, dry latrines and maintain two sweepers for general sanitation. Rubbish is dumped away from the camp and night soil is trenched. There is one tap water supply but the labourers usually drink well water. The camp is generally vacated during the wet weather months when the labourers return to their homes for their agricultural work. Labourers at this camp receive first-aid care and maternity care from the welfare unit situated at a neighbouring camp. (See further). A few other minor collections of labourers are housed at the site of their works, but these are in small numbers. The total number of labourers housed in this camp is about 1,000.

The present housing presents a difficulty, because as the land where a camp is situated is sold for the extension of the capital, so the labour must be moved to another site.

*Wages.—Present day.*—(a) The labouring male coolies earn 9 annas per day; (b) the labouring female coolie earn 7 annas per day; (c) the child (of 12 to 15 years) earn 4 annas per day.

An average family will earn about Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month collectively.

A mate or supervisor is paid at a rate of Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 per mensem according to his class of work. The raj or bricklayer is paid Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 2 per day. The santraj or stone mason earns Re. 1-3 annas to Rs. 3 per day.

*Formerly, i.e., 1912-14.*—The male labouring coolie received a wage of 6 annas per day. The female 4 annas per day. The working child 2 annas per day. A mate or supervisor received Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 per mensem, bricklayers received 14 annas to

Re. 1-2 annas per day. Stonemasons received Re. 1 to Re. 1-4 annas per day. There has thus been a rise of 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. on the old wages as compared with present day.

*Receipt of Wages.*—The contractors pay their labour rather irregularly, generally once in two or three months.

*Diet*—This consists of:—*Vegetables*, i.e., onions, carrots, peas, radish, green gram tender shoots of the leaves of grain and peas; *grains*—palak, dal, wheat, bajra, hawar, maize, barley, rice.

*Meat.*—Some is eaten only in certain classes.

Taking into account the cost of cooking, the daily average cost of food for a family of five persons is 5 annas 3 pies. An adult eats on an average five chappaties per day and a child three chappaties. If to this is added other expenditure of living, such as clothing, simple luxuries, etc., the daily figure of expenditure for a family of five would be Re. 1-1 annas to Re. 1-4 annas.

A demonstration of the diet, in the said state, being cooked and being eaten can be given. At one time a general grain-grinding machine operated at one camp, this does not exist now. Each camp possesses its shopping centre which is carefully supervised. The average living cost for a family of five is therefore Rs. 31-14 annas to Rs. 37-8 annas. per mensem. This does not leave much in the nature of a saving when the income is considered (see above).

Since 1912-14.—Wages have risen by about 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. as shown above. Yet living has risen out of proportion. Whereas the chappatie cost 3 pies in 1912-14 to-day the same chappati costs 9 pies. The rise would be in the region of about 70 per cent.

*Clothing.*—A labourer lives in the clothes he has on his back. The outfit costs Rs. 10 per annum per man, Rs. 8 per annum per woman and Rs. 2 per annum per child. The extra winter clothing consists of a dohar or sheet costing Rs. 5.

*Savings.*—Generally speaking, the coolie labour is in the hands of the moneylender. From personal enquiries I find that on an average the labouring family is indebted to the moneylender (buniya) to the extent of about Rs. 80 per annum which includes the heavy interest of 37.5 per cent. per annum. Some fortunate labourer, who happens to save some money, spends it in buying jewellery or land and cattle in his own home. Much money is spent on ceremonies. The average coolie wedding costs Rs. 200 to Rs. 400. and about Rs. 200 for death.

*Hours of Work.*—From October to March the hours of labour are 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. with an interval of half an hour mid-day.

From April to September the labour hours are 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with an interval of one hour mid-day. Much care is exercised in getting the muster-roll taken in the early morning.

*General Sanitation of Camps.*—As already mentioned above, Government pay for sanitation in the majority of camps at New Delhi.

The initial cost for installing latrines and water in the three existing camps was, approximately, Rs. 15,000, while the annual recurring cost of refuse removal, staff and sanitation generally is Rs. 18,000 per annum. (Detailed figures can be given if necessary.)

*Diseases: Malaria.*—In past years the most noticeable disease was malaria. Malaria eradication is essentially a labour problem of the first importance.

In India, out of a population of 320 millions (one-fifth of the total world population), well over one million deaths occur annually from malaria. Carter says: "It is not in the death-rate, however, that the gravest injury of malaria lies, it is in its sick rate; in the loss of efficiency which it causes rather than in the loss of life."

An estimate based on Van Dine's figures show that there is a loss of over 300 million working days per annum in India apart from the loss due to the million deaths per annum.

Carter calculates that a death from pneumonia corresponds to 125 sick days or work days lost. Working on this basis, a death from malaria corresponds to 2,000 to 4,000 sick days. This estimate can be doubted, because the man infected with malaria is half sick all the time. On this estimate the number of days lost to India by malaria would average 3,000 million, if we take the deaths at one million. This corresponds to a loss to India of 1,500 million of rupees per annum, or over £100 million sterling. Whenever malaria prevails the population is generally subnormal physically, mentally and economically.

Delhi has always been regarded as very malarious. The reasons cannot be discussed here.

Christopher, in his report on malaria at Delhi, 1926-27, shows that epidemics recur with considerable regularity at some years interval, e.g., 1884, 1890, 1892, 1897, 1900, 1908, and minor epidemics in other years. Christopher, in his report, gives a tabular statement showing the mortality rates per mille per annum for the month at which malaria epidemics were at their highest, which figures are striking in relation to the appalling damage done by malaria at Delhi.

Christopher's report shows that in 1926 the imperial capital was heavily infected with malaria. He says cases of malaria treated were as follows :—

1924	..	..	..	..	..	1,047
1925	..	..	..	..	..	1,546
1926	..	..	..	..	..	2,270

Christopher, in his report, pays particular attention to the labour camps, then situated at New Delhi, and gives map and table showing the spleen rates then found in the area. These spleen indices ranged from 13 to 75 per cent. These figures are an indication of the serious damage to coolie labour, and its economic position at New Delhi.

Following on Christopher's investigation came an exhaustive investigation by Senior-White, which dealt with the many aspects of the case. Since 1928 weather conditions have not been favourable for malaria, while a considerable amount of work for the control of malaria has been carried out. The results obtained to-day are so far satisfactory. To quote an example : whereas in 1926 one of the largest camps at New Delhi gave a spleen index of 54 per cent., to-day the same camp shows a spleen index of 7.5 per cent. This year all possible mosquito breeding-places in the new capital were under control. Those who are interested might wish to see the practical application of mosquito and malaria control at New Delhi. We cannot claim that this malarial problem is by any means solved, and much major engineering and minor malarial control work remains to be done, and for which money is essential. So far the money still remains to be secured.

*Cholera.*—Unlike malaria, cholera on appearing in a community generally causes a panic. Cholera, small-pox and plague produces a dramatic element which generally assists towards securing money for necessary public health action. Cholera has occasionally appeared in our labour camps. This disease is imported into the camps. The brickfield area is generally the first to be infected. The last epidemic appeared in May, 1929, when three deaths occurred before the disease was brought under control with mass inoculation and other public health measures.

*Small-pox.*—Vaccination against the disease is most strictly observed amongst our labour, resulting in comparative complete control of the disease.

*Plague.*—Is fortunately a disease which has not so far affected the labour at New Delhi.

*Hookworm.*—This disease is not found.

*Veneral Diseases.*—The welfare workers state that this is by no means a common disease amongst our labour, while alcohol (country spirit) is not much indulged in.

*Leprosy.*—An investigation is now in progress.

*Other Diseases and Accidents.*—Trachoma of the eyes is fairly common. Minor ailments are dealt with at the camps, while severe diseases are attended to at the hospital at New Delhi. An infectious diseases hospital exists at New Delhi. It is well used by the labourers in times of need.

*Education of Labour.*—At one time a standard size cinema was employed at one of the camps. This is not now used. It was closed down with the reduction in labour. Miniature cinema displays and lantern lectures are given by the public health staff. No Government educational schools exist in the camps. In one camp a private school has been started through the agency of the labourers themselves. There is only a small attendance, while a fee of Rs. 2 per month is charged per child.

*Sickness Insurance.*—I do not believe that an insurance scheme against sickness could be successfully introduced at present. My reasons are as follows :—Such insurance schemes cannot successfully operate until we have reduced the incidence of disease to a reasonable figure. This is unfortunately not the case.

*Maternity Child Welfare and First-aid.*—As already mentioned, when Government controlled the labour at New Delhi, camp dispensaries and male doctors were employed. One creche was tried at the secretariat. The details relating to this

can be given verbally. At a later date one welfare centre was opened to serve the whole of New Delhi, under the auspices of the Delhi Health and Baby Week. In early 1928 a considerable expansion of maternity, child welfare and first-aid work for the labour was made. The existing work was taken over by the New Delhi Municipality and the costs were borne by that body.

Each camp now possesses its small maternity and child welfare centre and first-aid post in immediate charge of a trained and qualified nurse-dai. At the largest camp a lady sub-assistant doctor is also in attendance. Her duties are chiefly in association with this camp, but in addition she regularly visits the other camps in the area and deals with technical medical matters, particularly concerning the women workers and their children. This lady doctor also conducts school medical examination and treatment of girls attending the schools at New Delhi. In charge of the whole organization is a lady superintendent (Miss Weller), whose duty it is to supervise the six maternity and welfare centres which now exist and have come into operation since August, 1928, in the New Delhi area. The temporary buildings for two of the camp centres were provided by contractors. The total budget estimate for all maternity and child welfare and first-aid work at New Delhi was estimated to cost Rs. 50,000, spread over a period of five years. The initial cost for starting one camp centre amounted to about Rs. 400, while the recurring cost is Rs. 1,500 per annum for one centre.

A system of maternity fees for the better-paid employees of Government has been recently introduced, as it is our intention that free maternity benefits can only be given to the poorer classes. This system is an interesting one.

For those interested in this subject I attach a copy of the 1928 annual report.\* The work has progressed considerably during 1929. There is no possibility of introducing legal maternal enactments for midwives in our present state at Delhi. Maternity benefits for pregnant women might be considered.

*Clerical Labour : Housing and General Sanitation.*—This labour is housed in excellently constructed quarters. Public health sanitation is good, and all their needs have been provided for by Government. More and more quarters are being erected. There is some scarcity of quarters, which no doubt will right itself as the imperial capital grows to maturity.

*Education and Welfare.*—Schools exist for the education of children. At these schools a careful system of school medical examination and treatment exists. School medical inspection is a work which has been especially organized in the Delhi Province at a cost of Rs. 11,000 per annum. Its extension is desirable. Welfare institutions exist under our above-mentioned scheme for maternal and child benefits, while the medical care in this area is in charge of the civil surgeon and his medical staff.

*Foodstuffs.*—A shopping centre exists, which is under the charge of the New Delhi Municipality.

*Epidemics.*—A few cases of major epidemic diseases occur annually, but these have always been promptly eradicated. Malaria is the chief disease which attacked clerks in former years, just in the same way as I have related above in connection with coolie labour.

## SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT OF MAJOR J. R. D. WEBB.

### *Notified Area Civil Lines.*

1. *An Ordinary Coolie.*—(a) Daily income, 8 annas per diem. (b) Average family, four to five members. (c) One average meal for an adult.

Article.	Quantity. Ounces.	Cost. Ra. a. p.
(1) Wheat flour mixed with gram flour or barley flour or maize flour (sample) .. .. .	12	0 1 3
(2) Salt, onions, chillies, mint and tamarind (crushed together) or onion is taken separately .. .. .	—	0 0 6
(3) Cowdung cakes to serve as a fuel .. .. .	—	0 0 3
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>0 2 0</b>
Weekly, Re. 1-12 annas.		
Monthly, Ra. 7-8 annas.		Total, two annas.

\* Not printed.

1. *An Ordinary Coolie.*—contd.

Extras—	Article.	Quantity.	Cost.		
			Ounces.	Rs.	a. p.
(a) (1)	Cheapest kind of vegetable or pulse .. .. .	—	0	0	3
(2)	Gur (raw sugar) .. .. .	2	0	0	3
(3)	Parched grams .. . . .	2	0	0	3
(4)	Oil .. .. .	1	0	0	3
Total .. .. .			0	1	0
One anna only.					
Family of five per month .. .. .			26	4	0
Including extras .. .. .			13	2	0
			39 6 0		

i.e., say, Rs. 40 per family of five with extras.

2. *A Better-off Labour.*—(a) Daily income, Re. 1 to Re. 1-4 annas per diem.  
(b) Average family, four to five members. (c) One average meal for an adult :—

	Article.	Quantity.	Cost.		
			Ounces.	Rs.	a. p.
(1)	Rice .. .. .	4	0	0	6
(2)	Wheat flour .. .. .	8	0	1	0
(3)	Pulses .. .. .	2	0	0	3
(4)	Ghee .. .. .	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	6
(5)	Oil .. .. .	1	0	0	3
(6)	Onion, salt, chillies, spices, turmeric .. .. .	—	0	0	6
(7)	Fuel (cowdung cakes and firewood) .. .. .	—	0	0	6
Total .. .. .			0	3	6

Three annas and six pies only.

Weekly, Rs. 3-1 anna.

Monthly, Rs. 13-2 annas.

Extras—

(a) (1)	Potatoes or other vegetables .. .. .	4	0	0	6
(2)	Tea (sugar and milk included) .. .. .	—	0	0	9
(3)	Curd .. .. .	—	0	0	6
Total .. .. .			0	1	9

One anna and nine pies.

3. *Bathing and Washing.*—Providing common bathing and washing-places for the coolies and ventilators in their quarters is a dire necessity (on no account a luxury), and should be met by the employers at any rate.

The bathing and washing arrangements as prevalent at present with these people, especially their womenfolk, is extremely deplorable (demonstrated at the Chandrawal Exhibit, Old Delhi). A kind of clay (multani) takes the place of soap. The only reason is cheapness.

Similarly, there is no sense in building huts and providing no ventilator, even ; there is no extra cost involved.

4. *Clothing and Bedding* are usually very poor, as seen at to-day's exhibit.

The meagre wages are hardly enough to provide two square meals for the family, and there is no saving to buy dresses and bedding. Dirtiness of the clothes is due to (1) lack of sense of cleanliness, (2) poverty, (3) lack of facilities for bathing and washing, (4) want of leisure.

5. Unemployment is now becoming very acute. Idleness of women is due to (1) unemployment, (2) pre-occupation in looking after house and children, (3) nervousness among certain classes of women to work with male labourers, (4) hatred for manual labour and in some cases caste prejudices. The last-named cause is wearing out.

6. In cases where both male and female members of a family work, that family is far better off than a middle-class labourer whose female family members do not do any work to supplement the male breadwinners' income. At any rate, the middle-class man is hard hit.

## NEW DELHI.

Raw Food Grains showing Average Daily Cost of Food for a Family of Five Coolies.

Name of Foodstuffs.	Price per Seer.			Amount Required.			Approximate Weight.
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	
Onions .. .. .	0	1	0	0	0	3	4 chatks.
Carrots .. .. .	0	0	9	0	0	1	½ "
Raddish .. .. .	0	0	9	0	0	2	4 "
Green gram .. .. .	0	0	6	0	0	1	3 "
Carrot leaves .. .. .	0	6	9	0	0	2	4 "
Dal .. .. .	0	4	0	0	0	6	2 "
Wheat .. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ seers
Bajra .. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ "
Jawar (1912-14, 8 to 10 seers per rupee) .. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ "
	(at 8 srs. a Re.)						
Palak sag .. .. .	0	0	6	0	0	1	3 chatks.
Maize .. .. .	0	1	6	0	4	3	2 srs. 14 chs.
Barley .. .. .	0	1	6	0	4	3	2 srs. 14 chs.
Rice .. .. .	0	3	0	0	0	3	1½ chatks.
Meat .. .. .	0	2	0	0	0	6	4 "
Oil (sweet) .. .. .	0	10	0	0	0	6	½ "
Gur .. .. .	0	4	0	0	0	6	2 "
Ghee .. .. .	2	0	0	0	1	0	½ "
Wood .. .. .	0	0	6	0	1	0	2 seers.
Chillies .. .. .	0	8	0	0	0	3	½ chatks.
Salt .. .. .	0	1	0	0	0	2	2½ "
				0	15	3	
				Rs. a. p.			
Excluding extras costs.. .. .	28	9	6				
Including extras .. .. .	13	2	0				
				41	1	6	

i.e., say Rs. 40 per family of five.

## THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA PRESS, DELHI, PRESS UNION AFFILIATED TO THE CALCUTTA PRESS WORKERS UNIONS.

*General Health and Climate of Delhi.*—Our pay is hardly sufficient for our subsistence only. We are unable to incur the heavy expenses of proper medical treatment of our wife and children even in cases of urgent necessity. It is, perhaps, not an unknown fact that the health of Delhi is notoriously bad and that besides frequent cases of pneumonia, typhoid and other serious maladies, no family can escape the attacks of malaria of a serious type during the period of July to December each year.

2. That due to the extreme climate of Delhi we can ill afford to provide the necessary clothing to save ourselves and our family from the inclemencies of the weather, to which we are more or less exposed and we are thus unable to take any precaution against the maladies set forth in the previous paragraph. In this connection, we beg to point out, that there is no medical aid from the office.

3. That we having hailed from outside Delhi, have to maintain double establishments one at our native place and the other here in Delhi. Because due to our poor pay we do not dare bring our entire families out and live a miserable life altogether in a foreign and unhealthy place. We have to go to our native place not to enjoy a holiday but to attend urgent and unavoidable family calls whenever we are compelled to do so. This entails a deal of expenditure which we are unable to meet.

4. *Leave and Holidays.*—The privileges of leave, which are granted by the Fundamental Rule have been restricted to the industrial employees generally and thereby to the salaried hands when under the Fundamental Rules every 11 months of service caused one month of privilege leave and one month medical leave. But the new industrial leave rules give one month of privilege leave and any medical leave taken will be on half pay.

5. That the local holidays, which are enjoyed by the employees of other local offices are denied to us. As such, we do not get the much desired rest after periods of hard labour. We therefore, work continuously without occasional rest and thus run or are rather compelled to run the risk of contracting some disease due to overwork and insufficient nourishment and of becoming inefficient and being invalidated prematurely.

6. *Education of Children.*—The Government affords no facilities for the education of the children of the poor press employees generally the press workers have a number of children each, but the Government has not instituted any school for their free education. It is a pity to note that in these days of compulsory secondary education, the Government is so heedless about the education of the children of its hard and faithful labourers.

Since the introduction of piece system in Government presses no inconvenience was felt by Government as regards speedy out-turn of work and smooth working under single controller of printing, stationery and stamps with a small staff of his own. But by the instalment of various machineries and hereby creating a huge office of the present Controller with fat salaried hands has snatched away bread from our many poor countrymen out of the Press Grant in the Government of India Budget—it will be seen if all the old, and new records are examined.

In the end we beg to approach the Commission in very simple wordings for justice and sympathy. We are fallen victims to the venomous vexations and our hearts are wounded to see that a poor labourer under the benign Government is so badly pinched and squeezed among narrow circumstances that he cannot spare even a pie for the coffin of his dearest and nearest when unfortunately one pays the debt of nature in his family and which is only done through subscriptions.

We hope the Holy Commission will prove themselves to be an antidote for us for which we shall sincerely pray before His Almighty.

(Signed) LALA SHANKAR LALL,  
*Secretary.*

N. M. JOSHI,  
*Member, Legislative Assembly.*  
*President.*

[The general observations given above were accompanied by a number of specific requests submitted by the various classes of press employees. The following is printed as an example :—]

#### **Binders.**

1. That the best portion of our lives and energy have been spent in serving Government honestly and loyally, and in spite of whole-hearted devotion we were allowed a small fixed pay in 1927 as a result of the reorganisation. But to our utter misfortune we have been losers by this arrangement inasmuch as our present pay happens to be less than that we were getting under the piece-working system.

2. That while most of the employees of the office or of other Government offices enjoy a time-scale rate of pay, the same has been denied to us with the result that after doing faithful work throughout the year, there is no improvement in our wages, either in the shape of increment or in any other way.

3. That we have to work 8½ solid hours a day and have to be in an office for 9½ hours, besides our overtime which is not counted towards pension at all and have to do arduous work throughout the whole day long with the result that our tiffin period is excluded of our working period.

4. That we have been memorialising to the Government regularly for our confirmation on the posts while having served the Government loyally and faithfully for the considerable period of 15 and 16 years but to our utter disappointment our prayer was not acceded to, and being temporary hands for so long a period we have not been given any sort of privileges either temporary or permanent during the said existing period. Notwithstanding the fact that we have all been in service from 1 to 16 years, been confirmed together in 1922 with the result that both juniors and seniors have been brought on to the same platform of rights under the same rules without any regard for service.

5. That we have been allowed only 10 days casual leave up till June, 1929, but to our utter misfortune, the leave is disallowed on the adoption of the new leave rules under which only a month's leave on average pay and medical leave on half average pay in a year is all that we can get. There are persons who having long service of 24 years with 17 years permanent service, having been treated under the same new rules. A notification was circulated in September, 1929, that we are brought under ministerial service instead of industrial under the Fundamental Rule 9 (17) without any beneficial result.

6. That we have been provided with quarters the rent of which is deducted 5 per cent. of over pay. The quarters which we are living in bear some accommodation but the new quarters under construction for the press employees especially the daftries quarters are too small in which a bachelor will have to suffer many difficulties whereas we poor people having big families will be required to reside.

7. Under these circumstances mentioned above we earnestly pray :—(a) that our pay may kindly be revised to the time-scale of pay in order to enable us to enjoy a pension of the last grade at the time of our retirement ; (b) that the tiffin time may kindly be included within 8½ hours' duty ; (c) that casual leave may kindly be allowed to us along with other respective leave ; (d) that we may kindly be allowed the same concession of holidays as are given to other offices located at Delhi ; (e) that we may kindly be provided with quarters bearing sufficient accommodation so that we may not have to undergo any hardships and difficulty to reside with our families.

THE HONORARY SECRETARY, THE DELHI FACTORY OWNERS'  
FEDERATION, DELHI; AND RAI BAHADUR BSAISAKHA SINGH,  
CONTRACTOR, NEW DELHI.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. (i) Industrial workers are generally recruited from amongst the ranks of those uprooted from the soil whose ancestral land has under the baneful influence of fragmentation dwindled to point at which it will no longer support its owner and his family, and from those in debits to the village moneylender.

(ii) Migration has been accelerated to a great extent in modern times on account of an extraordinary increase of the means of communications and transport.

(ii) Clauses of particular streams of migrations are (a) wages and (b) investment of capital ; for an increase in the supply of capital, leads to the demand for labour. An increase in the supply of capital means in other words an increase in the supply of appliances for production and consequently cheaper goods, and hence their greater demand, which would lead to an increase in the demand of labour.

3. *Change of Fashion and Taste.*—The modern industrial system labour-saving machinery, which depends upon the growth of capital, signifies an increase in the productive power of the country, for if the demand for the commodity is elastic, displaced labour might be employed in the making of fashion and taste.

(iii) Changes in recent years are due to the increasing facilities of the means of communication and extended knowledge possessed by the working classes of life in parts outstanding their immediate localities.

2. (i) On account of the far more increasing facilities of communications, there is a greater frequency of return and still more so is expected in times yet to come.

(ii) Permanent labour force is in an insufficient proportion in India as compared to her enormous population of well over 300,000,000. The industrial development in India is still in its infancy and only a very small proportion of her people is found concentrated in specially industrial areas, working in textile mills, iron works, or any other of the typical units of modern industry.

3. (i) India is above all an agricultural country and it is only in cases of bad harvest, scarcity of cultivation, that recruits for the industrial labour market are generally available direct to the employers.

(ii) Improvements are possible, if labour exchanges, i.e., States bureau similar to those of Great Britain by the Act of 1909, are established, where unemployed persons can register their names and occupations and to which the employers in need of labour may apply. These may also be instrumental in transferring labours from districts when no labour is wanted to the districts, when there is a shortage of them.

(iii) Public employment agencies should be discouraged, as these would be harmful, considering the present labour condition in India.

4. Socialities, peculiarities of national character in respect of language, religion, political institutions and mode of life do in a fair measure affect the mobility of labour, but these are now for the most parts crossed over and the effect is not very unwholesome.

7. The question of unemployment is not very much pressing to the skilled as well as unskilled labouring classes.

(ii) (a and b) It is comparatively less due to the voluntary retirement than due to the retrenchments and dismissal.



(iii) Employment bureaux and workhouses should be established (although there is not much difficulty in the way of the labourers to get themselves employed), where a fair measure of trading should be given to the unskilled workmen and where they may get themselves registered for future employment.

(iv) Unemployment insurance should also be encouraged.

(v) The application of international conventions is not very much desirable to safeguard against any possibility of unemployment, in howsoever insignificant a degree it might be.

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. Selection of managing staff is generally not at all based on any sound principle whatsoever, for technical training, both in its theoretical and practical aspect, is not made the sole criterion in this respect.

12. (i) As to the recruitment and training of supervising staff in its superior and inferior grades, the methods in force are not at all very hopeful for there are not institutions solely designed to impart industrial training in any particular line out of its multifarious ramifications. Apprenticeship is the only way of acquiring some insight into the technique of any particular type of industry.

(ii) Apprenticeships, guild system and trade unions, are the only means for affording greater facilities in the way of training.

13. (i) Relations between the staff and the rank and file are not at all very encouraging.

14. (i) The manager is to keep time-keeping, piece-work contractor, and attendance registers, which are to be checked regularly by the factory inspectors.

(ii) The wages are paid to the workmen either by the manager or by the employer or through a responsible officer of the staff.

15. (i) Most of the work of ordinary type is given on contract.

(ii) Such sub-letting is also witnessed in certain cases.

(iii) Contractors and sub-contractors fully control the working conditions.

(iv) The general effect is fairly satisfactory.

## IV.—Health.

23. General health of the workers is not very good. Birth-rate is less and infant mortality is comparatively great. Working conditions at workplaces are good. At home they are absolutely bad and unsatisfactory. Directory is generally very poor. Physique is generally very weak. There is a general decrease of birth-rate amongst labour as the result of the disturbances of sex ratio in the industrial cities. The general increase in mortality is due to the bad system of housing and general ignorance prevailing amongst the workers.

24. Medical facilities are partly provided by the employers and partly by the Government. It is rarely done by other agencies, such as municipal bodies and corporations as well. Provisions for women doctors and trained midwives are very poor.

25. Medical facilities are generally not very much utilized. Women are as a whole too superstitious to avail themselves of the medical practitioners provided.

26. Sanitary arrangements with regard to latrines, drinking water, bathing and washing are fairly good at workplaces, but comparatively less at home.

27. Proper official supervision is generally lacking. Boards of health are too few and far between. Inspection is very irregular at mills and other industrial areas.

## XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. India is at the present moment suffering more severely from labour troubles than probably any other country in the world. For about a year and a half, strikes, particularly in the Bombay cotton mills, have been going on, as well as at Calcutta, which is the seat of the jute industry.

The causes of the troubles are (i) communist agitation and (ii) the growing feeling of unrest amongst the Indian labourers. The scope of the welfare activities is very limited and hence have accumulated the conditions of poverty, squalor and ignorance, which make the industrial population of India an easily worked field for the communist agitators and others. The shifting conditions of Indian labour are mainly responsible for the difficulty experienced; industrial conditions are fairly satisfactory, but in the smaller workshops and factories much more is yet to be desired. Of late

years much more is done by the provincial departments towards the fostering of the cottage and village industries in which the workpeople can have the advantage of living and this is a highly fruitful line of effort. The interest of India and her people would be better served by the development of village industries in their own homes, amidst the conditions best suited to them, side by side with being able to compete with goods brought from abroad or from other parts of their own country.

Mr. C. D. DIDWANI, MANAGER, Messrs. BIRLA BROTHERS, LTD., DELHI.

#### I.—Recruitment.

1 (i) In the beginning of the textile industry in this city, trained labour for spinning, weaving and other departments of the mill had to be imported from those centres where trained labour could be found, namely, Cawnpore, Ahmedabad, and Bombay. Later on, when local and provincial labour got trained and took to mill work, migration of labour was considerably stopped. Some of the immigrants settled here and they have been here for the last twenty years or more. At present the immigration of labour from other provinces is very nominal, but the immigration from neighbouring villages and districts still continues.

(ii) These villagers generally depend on agriculture, but there are naturally slack seasons and times of bad harvest, and at such times the villagers come out of their respective villages and seek employment in the mills and factories. Moreover, the surplus population of the province also migrates and seeks work in mills. Also the holdings of the villagers are very small and the land also has to remain uncultivated for long periods and consequently the villagers have to migrate.

(iii) There has been no appreciable change in the forms of migration during recent years.

2. About 75 per cent. of our mill workers have settled in Delhi, and they seldom visit their native place. The remaining 25 per cent. go home once a year and stay there for a month or two. Thus the extent of our permanent labour force is about 75 per cent.

3. (i) The existing method of recruitment is mostly through jobbers. Sometimes a little malpractice is seen in this system on the part of the recruiting officer, who makes some money out of the business.

(ii) It is hoped that if suitable public agencies are opened for the purpose the work may be done more economically and even conveniently. It may prove a practical proposition if organized on proper lines. Such an agency should keep itself in touch with all the industrial centres and should keep statistical data, showing the surplus labour which could be available at the required time. The mill owners should make known to them their requirements, which should be met by such agencies.

I might also mention here that such agencies should only act as intermediaries between the employers and the employees so far as the question of their employment is concerned. These agencies should not interfere with the work of the management, as thereby more harm than good will be done. Agencies of this nature have proved quite successful here as well as at other places, so far as the employment of clerks and officers is concerned, and there seems to be no reason why this will not prove successful in the case of labour.

7. (i) Factory employment being more attractive in these days, people are rushing in this direction, and every month the number of trained workers increases, which, as a result, brings unemployment. Unskilled villagers come out of their villages with a view to enter the mill service, but they do not get employment so conveniently. A skilled labourer who has worked on a particular job for a few years seldom remains unemployed. It is generally the unskilled and newly-trained labour which suffers from unemployment.

(ii) It is difficult to give the extent of unemployment due to the lack of statistical data in this respect. The main causes of unemployment are :—(a) More men are entering mill life every month than required ; (b) new labour-saving devices and machinery improvements displace a lot of mill labour, such as high speed warping, automatic loom, etc.

A few years back one weaver used to attend to only one loom, whereas now every weaver attends to at least two looms, and in some cases even more. The labour, therefore, being more skilled can manage to attend to more machines than what they could do before. This improvement on the part of the workers, although desirable for the healthy growth of the industry, automatically results in unemployment.

(iii) Out of the many possible methods of alleviating or even minimizing this increasing unemployment in this country, I may particularly lay stress on a few methods :—(a) About 80 per cent. of the Indian population depend on agriculture, but as the condition of agriculture has been deteriorating the agriculturists have to painfully give up this ancestral occupation and look for some other job. If the condition of the agriculturists is improved, which can only be done by the help of the Government, this increasing unemployment will certainly be minimized to a considerable extent as the unemployed might again revert to their respective villages; (b) new and necessary industries should be organized in the country; (c) cottage industry should be freely introduced among all classes of people. This is, in my opinion, the most important item, which should be thoroughly considered. The Indian agriculturists are idle for a few months every year, during which time they can add something to their income by the cottage industry. It is said that Japan has made remarkable progress in respect of its cottage industries, and it can safely be said that India needs it for improving its economic condition.

(iv) The Unemployment Insurance question does not seem to me to be a practical proposition at the present time.

8. (i) The average duration of employment of a worker in our mill is about five to six years. In some departments it is more, whereas in the weaving shed the duration period of employment is somewhat less.

(ii) The approximate figure of the casual employment of our workers may be 10 per cent.

(iii) The average percentage of absentees in our mill is about five to six. The workers generally absent themselves from work for a short period which varies from two to three days. They prefer taking their discharge notes to remaining absent for long periods. The reasons for their absence are various :—(a) Due to illness of themselves or their relatives; (b) due to marriage or other religious ceremonies; (c) for a day or two after their monthly pay is distributed, etc.

(b) The absenteeism is generally seasonal in character. During the monsoon, when malaria prevails, workers generally suffer from it, and this is the period when the number of absentees increases. In particular months of the year marriage ceremonies take place, and during this season also the number of absentees increases.

(c) In monthly wages as well as piece-work system the workers have to lose their pay. When the worker has no money and needs it he might take it in advance against his work, or, on the recommendation of the doctor, he receives from our mills some financial help for his food and other expenses during the period of illness.

## II.—Staff Organization.

12. (i) In our mill we generally keep some educated apprentices whom we train for some particular departments, and when vacancies occur we give them a chance.

(ii) So far as labourers' training is concerned, we allow the workers to train their relatives, and in some cases we also allow them a scholarship of Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per mensem. After they have learnt the work, their stipend is stopped and they are given work. The ordinary workers who show their competency of work are promoted to jobbers, etc.

13. (i) Except in some rare incidents, the relationship between the management and labour is smooth.

(ii) I do not find any defect in employing jobbers. It is rather necessary to employ them to control and look after the work of a small unit of labour.

(iii) There are no Work Committees here at present to look after the condition of the workers, give them technical training, improve their efficiency, and guide them. It does not seem desirable to start them now, unless the labourers understand their respective duties in this connection.

14. (i) Labourers in our mill are engaged in two ways :—(a) On monthly wages system; (b) piece-work system. The time-keeper takes attendance of the workers who are engaged on monthly wages system, and work is registered of those workers who work on the piece-work system. Checkers are kept to check the work of time-keepers.

## III.—Housing.

16. (i) About 60 to 70 per cent. of our workers have been provided with quarters by the mills. In these houses, about 50 per cent. are our own and 50 per cent. are rented by the mills. A nominal rent, i.e., 30 per cent. below the economic rent, is charged for the workers.

(ii) Nothing has been so far done for the housing of our labour by either the Government or any other public agency.

(iii) The remaining 30 per cent. of our workers take advantage of the houses made for the purpose by private landlords.

(iv) The workers do not have their own quarters.

17. The industrial surveyor sometimes recommends to the Government regarding the want of land required for the housing situation of some indigenous industrial concerns, and the Government generally allow "Nazul" land for this purpose on a lease.

18. (i) Our workers are quite satisfied with the quarters provided for them. They sometimes like a shaded verandah in front of their quarters, which, due to want of accommodation, could not be arranged in old quarters. In those quarters, which are under construction at present, verandah, kitchen, and bath have been added.

(ii) From the health point of view I can say that they are quite good. There are three windows and one door and one roof ventilator in each quarter. Thus the room is very airy and allows a good deal of daylight. There is pucca floor in front of the houses, which the workers utilize. The drainage system, in our opinion, is very sanitary, and there is scientific septic tank and flush system latrine.

(iii) Electric light is supplied in each quarter. Many hand pumps have been fitted in the lines for the supply of water. Great care is taken about the sanitation of the lines.

19. The workers utilize wholeheartedly the accommodation given to them.

20. Generally the scale of rents is based about 30 per cent. below the economic rent.

21. Sub-letting of quarters is not allowed. Also workers working in other factories are not allowed to put up in quarters provided for by our mills. About a fortnight's time is given to those workers who are asked to vacate their quarters. Labourers working in the mills are not asked to vacate their quarters unless they either leave their job or are dismissed.

22. In my opinion, the housing condition in industrial areas often affords a chance to men of a bad type to spread some vices.

The labourers often think that some liquor, after the day's work, helps them to remove fatigue, and therefore they get addicted to it. As their earning capacity is little and they spend a good deal on drinks, their family life becomes much worse. The children, too, try to copy their parents in this respect.

Due to their illiteracy, they cannot understand things well. We tried temperance measures and were remarkably successful in our efforts. The majority of our labourers have discarded this vice, as a result of which they now realize that their private life has considerably improved. So far as illiteracy is concerned, we are trying to educate them, and have opened day and night schools also for them.

#### IV.—Health.

24. (i) One assistant surgeon is kept in our mill, with four compounders and two dressers. We have got a dispensary as well as arrangements for the indoor patient. Medicine is distributed amongst the workers and their relatives free of charge. Our doctor visits the workers' quarters twice a day, and looks after the sanitation of the line and about the health of the workers. We have also engaged a trained midwife for our maternity ward.

(ii) The municipality has got some dispensaries in different parts of the town, as well as some hospitals, and the workers are to some extent benefited by these. In the case of an accident, we generally send the patient to the Civil Hospital.

(iii) So far as I am aware, there is no other public agency which gives medical facilities to the workers.

(iv) We have one trained midwife and a dai for the women workers as well as for the ladies of these workers who serve in the mills. The female workers get three months' leave, with pay, at the time of pregnancy. The period is 1½ or 2 months' before delivery and 1 or 1½ months' after that period. During their delivery time they are looked after by the midwife.

25. (i) About 95 per cent. of our workers take medicine from our dispensary and want to get themselves treated by our doctor at the time of their illness.

(ii) Special medical facilities for women have only been started recently, and they all welcome our newly-made arrangements.

28. The control of temperature is effected to some extent automatically by proper humidification, for which great pains are taken in our mill. Apart from humidification in other departments, we have in our spinning department the carrier system of cooling arrangement.

30. Some provision should be made for the sick workers, who have generally to lose their income for the days they remain ill. In this scheme I think the employers, the employees and the State all should participate. I think it is specially necessary for those workers whose income is not more than Rs. 25 a month.

31. We have got a small maternity ward where a midwife and a dai are kept to attend to the females at the time of their delivery. The midwife also looks after the sanitary condition in the labourers' quarters. The female workers are allowed three months' leave, with full pay, at the time of delivery.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. (i) We have established a Welfare Fund to which the workers contribute to the extent of 1 per cent. from their income every month, and the mill contributes an equal amount. The fund is managed by Birla Mills Labour Welfare Committee, on which labour finds greater representation than management. This Committee has been doing a good work and its expenses will steadily increase.

The main activities of the Welfare Committee have so far been as follows :—  
 (a) Day school for boys, in which about 300 boys are receiving education ;  
 (b) one girls' school, in which 35/40 girls are receiving training ; (c) a night school, in which about 50/60 adults receive education ; (d) arrangement has been made for small children to be kept at a particular spot where they are attended to by the dais ; (e) a cinema show is arranged on every holiday, and lectures are given for their uplift ; (f) a restaurant is maintained inside the mills where useful articles are kept and sold at very reasonable prices ; (g) a shop is opened at the workers' line, where all good provisions are available at reasonable prices ; (h) a Scoutmaster gives training to the boys. Thus all the welfare work is done by the employers and the employees jointly.

(ii) Nothing is done in this respect by other Agencies.

33. A secretary has been appointed to look after the work of the Welfare Committee. There are teachers under him.

34. (i) A refreshment hall has been organized in the mill premises where the workers can get good refreshments at very reasonable prices. A shop is opened in the lines where workers can have good stuff at very reasonable prices. Creches system in our mills is in its infancy, although we have a mind to make it very decent in the near future. The dais are kept to look after the babies, who are put there by their mothers. There are some Indian-fashioned "jhulas," where the boys get some milk, etc., during the day.

(ii) So far as the provision for physical culture and amusements are concerned, we have got one "Akhara" (wrestling place), parallel bars, etc., in our compound which are open for the workers. The workers are shown cinema on every holiday.

35. The effect of the welfare work has been very satisfactory. The workmen's social life has been uplifted. They have generally given up liquors and other bad habits. They have known the importance of sanitation, and now they live in a far better way than they used to do before. They get mutual sympathy among themselves, as well as from their masters and officers.

36. (i) For adult workers we have opened a night school, but at present the attendance is rather poor, i.e., it ranges between 50/75. It seems that the adult workers are not inclined to receive educational training.

(ii) For half timers we have arranged a school in the afternoon, but they are not inclined to attend it. They generally try to come in the night school in a smaller number. We are trying to increase the number shortly.

(iii) For workers' children we have got a day school wherein about 300 boys receive training. It has six classes and is running satisfactorily.

37. I would certainly wish to see some scheme adopted for the provision for old age of the factory workers, and I think a good way to do this is to open a Provident Fund Institution wherein the workers should be made to deposit a fixed percentage of their income and get a similar contribution from the employers deposited in that institution. Thus they will get a decent sum at the time of retiring after some years.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. I have nothing to say against the Workmen's Compensation Act. I would rather say that this Act removes, to some extent, the fear of factory life from the workmen's hearts. We have got all our workers insured on our behalf in accordance

with the Workmen's Compensation Rules, and whenever an accident occurs the injured person gets a decent sum from the insurance company. The scale of compensation, in my opinion, is low, and there is room for increasing this amount to a certain extent.

#### IX.—Hours.

It is necessary, or desirable, to reduce the daily hours of work. A ten hours working day is most essential in Indian textile mills, and at the same time reasonable. The period of interval during working days is one hour after five hours' work. This is also quite reasonable. The number of holidays in a month is four/five, and holidays are observed in accordance with the Indian Factories Act.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. The rates of wages in different departments vary. They range between Rs. 22 to Rs. 60 per month. It is generally said that the wages in factories are comparatively much better than what is earned in the surrounding agricultural areas.

97. There has been some movement during recent years in connection with wages of workers, and it resulted in the increase of their income to some extent. In my opinion, the scale of wages in the different departments of the textile mills is rather peculiar. A labourer working in the spinning department, where he has to work for the same period of 10 hours and has to stand in an atmosphere full of cotton fibres, cannot get more than Rs. 25 a month, whereas a weaver generally earns more than Rs. 50 a month. One, therefore, cannot get spinning workers so conveniently as he can get weavers. Some scale ought to be made wherein this volume of difference in the wages of the spinning and weaving departments may be eliminated. In countries like Japan the scale of wages in the spinning and weaving departments are nearly the same.

99. Payments of wages are made in cash.

102. The basis of payment for overtime work is 25 per cent. more than their ordinary wages.

106. (iii) In our mills, the amount of fines realized from the workers is credited to the Workers' Relief Fund Account, and this amount is only spent for the help of the workers when they need it.

107. The period of wage payment in our mills is monthly, but I would prefer a fortnightly system of payment. The workers would also like to have fortnightly payments. Although they get money in advance against their pay, still when they stand in need of money they have sometimes to wait for a month to receive their wages, but if they receive their wages every fifteenth day they would arrange matters more conveniently. The month's wages are given to the workers by the 15th of the next month. Their wages have no relation to the profit made by the factory in which they are employed.

109. Bonus is given to all the workers on production exceeding a certain quantity. This is very essential for better efficiency, because on account of temptation of bonus the labourer works wholeheartedly.

There is no hard and fast rule for bonus to the workers on profits earned by the mill, but when the mill shows a profit the workers generally get half their monthly wages in the form of annual bonus.

110. The ordinary workers are not allowed their wages for the days they remain absent from their work.

The efficiency of the Indian workers has, no doubt, increased to a considerable extent, due to their long experience in the line, but they cannot, however, compete as yet with the foreign workers.

114. This is perhaps due to there being all conditions more favourable in foreign countries than in India.

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### THE DELHI MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE.

#### Introductory.

The Delhi Municipal Committee is not an employer of industrial labour to any large extent. Its works, involving capital expenditure, are executed through contractors, and it keeps only a small supervising staff. It has a small workshop for

repairs of plants and tools, and a gang of beldars for the maintenance of roads. This memorandum therefore deals particularly with questions relating to housing, health, welfare and education of workers, and gives only general remarks on some of the other questions.

### I.—Recruitment.

Delhi is by no means an industrial city. Its population, according to the census of 1921, was below 3 lacs, and may be taken to be well over 4 lacs by now; the transfer of the capital of India to Delhi having attracted an appreciable number of persons to the city for various reasons.

In the absence of any reliable agency for the collection of labour statistics, it is difficult to give any accurate information as to the exact number of persons engaged in industrial undertakings, but the best opinions available take them to be in the neighbourhood of 60,000.

(1) The construction of the New City is responsible for a major portion of workers engaged in the building trade. The unskilled labour is drawn chiefly from Bikanir and other Rajputana States, with a sprinkling of the agricultural class residing in the surrounding villages. The skilled labour is provided by Northern India, to which the prominent contractors belong.

The textile labour came originally from Ahmedabad, Bombay and Central India, but it has already been replaced to a large extent by local labour reinforced by labour drawn from villages.

The other permanent industries find no difficulty to secure labour in the local market.

(i) and (ii) The extent of migration of industrial labour is not serious. It is more or less confined to textile labour in the lower grades. A worker of that class earns about Rs. 17 a month, and if he can earn that rate of wage, under less irksome conditions, there is no strong incentive for him to stick to the work that he has in hand. There are no particular streams of migration.

(iii) In recent years there has been a decided change for the better. Labour is getting more stable. A general awakening is discernible amongst them. It is not so simple and ignorant as it used to be. Its outlook is being broadened. It has begun to feel that it is not being treated fairly, and is trying to assert itself and make its presence felt.

(2) Out of the 60,000 labourers hardly 5,000 are drawn from villages, and as most of them have come here with their families they have little cause to pay any frequent visits to their village homes. Moreover, all the circumstances are tending towards the relaxation of family ties. The contact of the city with villages through industrial labour is not very strong.

4. As a major portion of industrial labour is permanently settled down in Delhi there is very little disturbance of family life. The section of labour which is drawn from outside has to a large extent moved to Delhi with its family members, and the remaining portion does create sufficient opportunities for itself to frequently visit their home.

7. No reliable information is available as to the extent of unemployment, but that it does exist at present to a considerable extent cannot be denied. The reasons which have led to this unfortunate position are :—

(a) The general slump in trade throughout India which has persisted for the last four or five years.

(b) The building of the New City is nearing completion, and a large number of workers of the building trade are being thrown out of work. These men have made Delhi their home permanently. The city is thus face to face with an acute problem as the wages of labour has already been affected and brought down.

(c) Some of the hand industries are fast dying out, as they are unable to withstand competition with machinery.

(d) No serious systematic effort has been made so far in Delhi to foster and protect small industries, and the cities which have better organized themselves in this respect are capturing Delhi market to the disadvantage of local labour. Attention is particularly drawn to Lameta embroidery, gold and silver thread works, which were once a very flourishing industry of the city, but Surat and Bangalore, where these works have been introduced as a cottage industry, have hit Delhi workers hard.

(e) In the absence of any demand due to general poverty, spread of materialism and westernization, persons who were engaged in fine arts, such as hand painting and handwriting, have lost their occupation.

8. Except in undertakings under the Factories Act the average duration of employment is from 9 to 10 hours, with no holidays. In a good number of trades a labourer is a piece worker, and has to work longer hours to earn sufficient bread for himself and his family members.

A worker absents himself from his work on account of sickness, to observe religious ceremonies, marriages in the family, and very often for no valid reason at all. For a certain section the payment of wages in a lump sum at the end of a month has a bad effect. A worker of that class has no care for the morrow, and wastes his time and his money for the first two or three days in drunkenness and gambling.

The average pay of an industrial worker may be taken at 12 annas a day, and he absents himself for five days in a month. As the estimated number of workers is 60,000, the loss to the city through absenteeism is estimated at Rs. 27,00,000 a year.

### III.—Housing.

16. An industrial labourer is expected as a rule to arrange for his accommodation. The textile mills, however, have built fairly decent quarters for 25 per cent. of their employees. The houses are built in single storied long lines, with some times a shed in front. One room is allotted to one family, consisting at an average of three or four persons. The room is generally of the size 10 ft. by 10 ft., but never more than 12 ft. by 10 ft. There are common latrines and common water taps. The rent recovered is below the rate prevailing in the locality for similar houses. With all their defects and shortcomings these quarters are decidedly more sanitary than the houses to which the workers living in them are accustomed.

The coolies working at the construction of New Delhi live in a specified area in huts made of mud with thatched roofs. These huts are unfit for human habitation, and it is a wonder that they were ever allowed. These huts belong to the various contractors, and the only saving grace about them is that they are situated in an open space with plenty of sunlight and air, and the conservancy arrangements which are under the Health Officer of that locality are satisfactory.

The industrial workers live in rented buildings, and only a few of them own their houses. In building these houses the landlord has looked to his own interest than to the convenience of his tenants.

A few years ago the houses of Rahgars in a certain locality of the city were compulsorily acquired, and they were given land in Western Extensions, where a number of houses built by them have sprung up. This quarter is known as Basti Rahgar. This Basti has not developed so rapidly as it was expected to do, for the reason that it is a little out of the way place, and is still lacking in certain amenities of life.

There is a big alum area in Saddar Bazar inhabited by Rahgars and Chamars. This place is known as Harphool Singh-ki-Basti. The land belongs to one Harphool Singh, a Jat, and the residents thereon are his tenants. This area has been a standing reproach to us, and is the plague spot of Delhi. Most of the epidemics are known to have originated from this place. The Committee has, at last, with the money generously provided by the Government of India, decided to acquire 55,000 sq. yds. of this land, pull down all the houses and make a proper lay-out. A fair-sized plot of land in the vicinity at Shidipura is being acquired on which model dwelling houses will be constructed for some of them. A portion of Harphool Singh-ki-Basti will be vacated, and the men thus dislodged will be brought to Shidipura. The improvement of the land thus vacated will be taken in hand at once, and as soon as it is ready for occupation it will be possible to have another portion of the acquired land thus treated. Both the bastis will be provided with proper drainage, electric lights and water supply. Provision is also being made for a school and a welfare centre.

This is the first serious effort made by the Municipal Committee for the clearance of slum areas from the city, and on the success of the experiment will depend the treatment of other small sized slum areas scattered all over the city, which are particularly inhabited by industrial labour belonging to the depressed classes.

Harphool Singh-ki-Basti gives a fair idea of the conditions under which industrial labour lives, and it is hoped that the Commission will find time to see things for themselves.

17. No special facilities have been provided for the acquisition of land by the workers. Land inside the city is fairly expensive, and is beyond the means of an ordinary person. The city proper has been unfortunately placed, and is hemmed in by all sides. To the north is the Notified Area Committee, Civil Lines, which under no circumstances would allow houses of Indian type to spring up, to the east is the river and the Fort zone, and to the south is the New Delhi with its high ideas and ambitions. The west is the only outlet to which we can cast our eyes. Here most of the available lands belong to Government, which has its own scheme known as the Western Extensions Scheme. The lands are given out on long lease to anyone who cares to have them. The rate varies between 8 annas and Rs. 5 per month per 100 sq. yards, according to its locality. All have an equal chance. There is a certain class which is shy to invest money on a land which is leased. We think that these extensions will have a better chance of development if a clause is added in the lease that the occupier may purchase the land outright by paying a specified sum.



## IV.—Health.

23. (i) Though separate figures of mortality amongst workers are not available, yet there is no reason to believe that they have a higher mortality rate as compared to other classes in the city. As explained under the head Education, there are only a few small areas inhabited by the persons engaged in leather trade which may be called industrial areas. The workers are as a rule mixed up with the general population, and live wherever they can find accommodation according to their means. To find out the health conditions of workers therefore, one has to look to the general mortality rate of the city.

(ii) The population of the city proper was 2,47,935 according to the census of 1921, and calculated on the bases of births over deaths since then it should be 267,193 in 1928.

There were 13,457 births, excluding still-births, during 1928, and of those 6,998 were males and 6,459 females. The number of still births was 280.

The total number of deaths, excluding still-births, during the same period was 8,535. The number of deaths excluding still-births of children under one year of age was 210.45 per 1,000 of infants born.

A study of the figures of infant mortality excluding still-births, shows that in ten years ending 1922, the rate gradually fell from 346.40 to 187.46 per 1,000. In 1923 it rose to 226.42 and fell again the next year to 174.02. In 1925 it was 182.56, and jumped to 237.51 in 1926. In 1927 it dropped again to 200.51, and has gone up to 210.45 in 1928.

The general death rate has been as follows during the last few years :—1924, 30.54; 1925, 29.37; 1926, 43.58; 1927, 32.78; 1928, 34.54.

Out of 8,535 deaths recorded, only 5,952 were verified for want of sufficient staff.

The statement below gives the percentages attributed to the various diseases :

1. Pneumonia and broncho-pneumonia .. .. .	1,857 deaths	30.1 per cent.
2. Phthisis .. .. .	759 "	12.8 "
3. Small pox .. .. .	395 "	6.6 "
4. Infantile diarrhoea .. .. .	390 "	6.6 "
5. Typhoid fever .. .. .	366 "	6.5 "
6. Premature births .. .. .	265 "	4.5 "
7. Malarial fever .. .. .	233 "	4.1 "
8. Asthma .. .. .	227 "	3.9 "
9. Senile debility .. .. .	207 "	3.6 "
10. Infantile debility .. .. .	199 "	3.6 "
11. Other diseases combined .. .. .	1,054 "	17.7 "
	5,952	100 per cent.

The method of registration of births and deaths is simple, and is working fairly satisfactorily. Under the municipal bye-laws the head of a family is held responsible to notify to the Municipal Health Department the birth or death of any member of his family within 24 hours of its occurrence. This report is checked by the daily information supplied under the rules by sweepers of the various localities. As houses in the city are not provided with water-flushed system, a sweeper has to visit each house twice a day. As the sweeper has a customary right to serve that house, he is more or less a permanent feature, and is well acquainted with all important happenings in that house. In the case of a death a sub-assistant surgeon employed by the Municipal Committee visits the house to verify the cause of death.

(iii) The working conditions of persons employed in undertakings under the Indian Factories Act are satisfactory on the whole, but the conditions under which certain classes of labour are obliged to work and live is really deplorable.

We do feel strongly that there should be some legal provision, municipal or provincial, by which all buildings used as working places should be required to be licensed as to their suitability in respect of light and air, conservancy arrangements and the maximum number of persons to be allowed to work therein should be specified.

The real difficult problem for us to solve, however, is the working condition at home of certain trades, particularly the shoe making. The workers engaged in this trade belong to the depressed classes. They live in small wretched houses which are overcrowded, ill ventilated and ill lighted, and hardly 8 ft. high. Seven or eight persons live in one or two-room tenements. The size of each room is hardly 12 ft. by 10 ft. The same rooms serve as kitchen, sleeping and sitting rooms and work house. Their earnings are so low that they cannot afford to move into better lodgings, and in many cases, even if they had the means, it is doubtful if with their stum minds they would prefer any change.

(iv) Their food is simple and far from nourishing. Milk and ghee, which once formed the chief portion of their diet, are no longer used, as their price has been doubled during the last 25 years, and these articles are being adulterated to an extent which is unbelievable.

24. (i) The city is well provided with medical facilities. The Birla Mills have a full time qualified medical practitioner, who lives on the premises. A dispensary is located within the mill compound.

The Delhi Cloth and General Mills have a compounder to render first aid. The services of a better qualified man was not considered to be necessary as a municipal dispensary is situated within a stone's throw of the mill.

The Khalsa Mills has a part-time qualified person in its employ, who comes to the mill on an emergency and makes a weekly round.

(ii) The Municipal Committee maintains a large up-to-date hospital with nine branch dispensaries. It has also four indigenous dispensaries, in which Unani and Ayurvedic treatment is given. It contributed over a lac of rupees towards the construction of Dr. Shroff's Charitable Eye Hospital, and gives it a grant-in-aid of Rs. 6,000 a year. The Committee also supports a Homeopathic dispensary, and contributes Rs. 5,000 a year to the Tibbia and Unani College, which is doing a yeoman's service towards popularizing the Indian system of medicine. Lord Hardings performed the opening ceremony of this college in 1912. The cost of medical department of the municipality during 1928 was Rs. 2,81,297.

(iii) In addition to these the city is full of private practitioners, Hakims and Vails, who treat the poor free.

(iv) The city is equipped with three up-to-date hospitals (1) Victoria Zenana Hospital, which has practically been taken over by the Municipality; (2) St. Stephen's Hospital, which receives a grant in aid from Municipal funds; (3) Lady Hardinge College and Hospital. These hospitals have won so much confidence, that they are always full to its utmost capacity, and admissions have to be refused. They are so admirably situated that there is no chance of their overlapping the activities of each other. Schemes for the establishment of a separate maternity hospital and a large infectious diseases hospital are under consideration.

25. The industrial class takes full advantage of the medical facilities provided for them. The following figures for 1928 show the popularity of the various Municipal medical institutions :—

	Indoor patients.	Outdoor patients.
Civil hospital and its dispensaries ..	9,000	3,11,796
Unani dispensaries .. .. .	—	1,44,477
Vedic .. .. .	—	1,51,919

To our welfare centres are attached classes for the training of midwives. They prepare for the examination of Punjab Central Midwives Board. The indigenous dais are paid a fixed fee per case from municipal funds, whenever they requisition the services of a trained midwife in municipal employ. It is admitted that there is yet a great need for the training of an increasing number of midwives.

26. Adequate arrangements do exist for water supply and latrines in the larger concerns, though some of the mills will be well advised to give their workers a filtered supply of water instead of making them use well water. In smaller concerns there is room for a good deal of improvement in both these directions. In the case of undertakings under the Indian Factories Act at least, we would recommend that the employers be required to provide bathing places for their men.

The labourers at present use the same clothes at work and at home. We recommend that the textile mills be made to give their men sets of clothes to be used while at work. A man when leaving the mill should have a wash and get into his private clothes while going out. A privately scavenged latrine which is often cleaned once a day in a small house is neither pleasant nor conducive to health. In poorer quarters therefore the provision of latrines are being discouraged, and are being generally replaced by public water borne latrines centrally situated.

A number of public bathing places were provided in the city, but they were closed on account of scarcity of water. The city mains are being re-modelled and enlarged at a cost of Rupees twenty lacs, and it will be possible in the near future to re-open these bathing places.

27. No special arrangement has been made for the supervision of industrial areas where they exist. The *chamars* as a rule live in Bastis, owned by private landlords, who are responsible for their sanitary condition. We are afraid that these landlords are negligent in their duties.

In the mill areas the local Inspector of Factories is the only supervising authority and he is overworked with other branches of work. We suggest that as in jails a number of non-official visitors be appointed. It also seems advisable to make some arrangements for the periodical inspection of small concerns which are not under the Factories Act, and in which more than 10 persons are employed.

31. The women workers are on daily wages, and have to forego their pay for absence during child-birth. We are of opinion that a woman who has been in the service of a concern under the Factories Act for six months or over should be granted 20 days maternity leave with full allowances, and that this concession be allowed by legislation. The textile mills should also be made to provide maternity beds in co-operation of the Municipal Committee.

#### V.—Welfare.

32 Till recent years no serious interest was taken by employers in welfare work. A beginning has, however, been made by two textile mills, but it falls far short of actual requirements. The Delhi Cloth and General Mills were first in the field, but they have simply confined themselves to the provision of occasional cinema shows and the organization of an annual workers' day, which is much appreciated and has proved a success. The Birla Mills have started on the right lines, but have still far to go. Like the Delhi Cloth Mills, they have their cinema shows. They have provided a wrestling ground, and have made a special enclosure within the mill premises, where women workers can leave their babies to be looked after by a Dai. In our opinion the latter idea should be further developed in all concerns where women are employed in large numbers, and they should be encouraged to bring their children below the age of 6 years with them; special arrangements should be made, and a qualified staff kept to amuse these children and teach them the habits of cleanliness, service and discipline. In all other concerns an employer leaves its workers to their fate after working hours.

The Municipal Committee and the Baby Week Committee are the only other agencies which are trying to do something for the workers. The child welfare scheme was first introduced into the city as an experimental measure in 1918, and has now been placed on a permanent footing. It was intended for all classes, but experience has shown that predominantly Chamar women have taken advantage of it. There are now seven welfare centres in working order under the charge of a fully qualified lady doctor. The cost of the scheme is 27,000 rupees a year, and half of it comes from general revenues.

33. It is only the Birla Mill which has employed a labour secretary, who gives his whole time to look after the welfare of the workers living in its coolie lines. What is required is a systematic effort for the physical and moral development of the workers. Playgrounds should be attached to the mill area, and the workers should be taught the value of spending their spare time more profitably.

34. Both the Delhi Cloth and Birla Mills have arranged for sweetmeat and provision shops in the mill premises. A worker is enabled to take things on credit up to a certain amount, and his bill is adjusted at the close of the month when he receives his wages. In our opinion these shops should be on a co-operative basis.

We also suggest that the provision of a provident fund in concerns which keep 20 persons or more should be made compulsory. One anna in the rupee should be deducted from the pay of every worker, and a similar amount be paid by the management.

The fines inflicted, the undisbursed pay and the amount of provident fund withheld be formed into a fund for the help of the families of workers who die in straitened circumstances. The administration of this fund should be in the hands of a joint committee of workers and the employers themselves.

We also advocate the payment of weekly instead of monthly wages.

#### VI.—Education.

40. As industrial labour, with few exceptions, is scattered all over the city, the children of the labouring class share the same facilities for general education as are open to the other members of the public. The Delhi city is well provided with schools which are situated at convenient places within an easy reach of a boy's home. In no case has a boy to walk more than half a mile at the outside to get to a public school.

The Municipal Committee, aided by a liberal grant in aid from Government, maintains 51 primary schools for boys and 20 schools for girls. In addition to this it gives a generous financial help to recognized boys and girls' schools.

The interest of the children of the labour classes who are to be found in large numbers in any particular industrial area, has received special consideration. Schools have been opened in their midst. The number of such schools in non-mills areas is six.

id of the Delhi Cloth Mills is a municipal school, and also a their coolie lines; the Khalsa Spinning and Weaving Mills has in two furlongs.

its own school.

been opened by the Municipal Committee for the education factories and of adults.

diture on education quoted below will show the rapid strides luring the last few years :—

	Boys' education.	Female education.	Total.
.. ..	1,49,441	38,245	1,87,686
.. ..	1,83,673	47,898	2,31,571
.. ..	2,29,423	60,583	2,90,006
.. ..	2,52,636	91,244	3,43,880
.. ..	2,87,200	1,20,600	4,07,800

id that the total income of the Delhi Municipal Committee t grants, is about 22 lacs, it will be admitted that this city is a its due share towards the removal of illiteracy from the land.

there is only one industrial middle school throughout the t is not up to the standard that one would like it to be. It lhi Municipal Committee and was handed over to Government te cost to a large extent is still being met from municipal funds as of transfer the municipal contribution is to be reduced by and it will completely be provincialized after five years. A are the committee to open at once as an experimental measure o serve as feeders to the Government Industrial School. Four d in industrial areas.

Non.—Over 90 per cent. of the workers are still illiterate, and mes universal it is difficult to form an opinion.

## NT OF INDIA—DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR.

brandum is based mainly on the official records of the Govern- Department of Industries and Labour; but the Government of India should not be understood as accepting responsibility for every particular statement of fact or expression of opinion in it.

S. LALL.

### Chapter I.—Development of Indian Industries and the Emergence of the Labour Problem.

India is, and has always been, pre-eminently an agricultural country. The most striking characteristic of the economic structure of the country is the overwhelming importance of agriculture over all other occupations. More than 70 per cent. of the adult male population derive their livelihood from land and most of the workers in other industries also have agriculture as a subsidiary occupation. The preponderance of agriculture did not, however, mean that other industries did not exist till recently or were of no importance. Before the advent of British rule in India, Indian workmanship reached a high water-mark of excellence and the products of Indian industry enjoyed a world-wide reputation. The Indian section of the Great Exhibition of 1851 drew forth the compliment from a Frenchman, M. Blanqui, "Les Indiens sont les Français de l'Orient pour le génie industriel."<sup>2</sup>

Before 1880 the industries in India were essentially cottage industries as opposed to the large-scale industries of the modern age. The vast majority of the industrial population of India lived in villages and each individual craftsman worked independently on his own account. The capitalist and the *entrepreneur* of modern times had not then come into existence. Under such an organization there was no room

\* Gadgil, Industrial Evolution of India, page 36.

for specialization, or division of labour, and the essential feature of the modern industrial system, viz., the concentration of workers in factories, was absent. The latter half of the 19th century, however, saw the rapid decline of the indigenous handicraft industry. It is not necessary here to examine the causes which produced this result, but the point which it is important to bear in mind is that this decay had set in before modern industrialism had been established to any appreciable extent, with the result that the population of the country was to an increasing extent thrown back on the land. In spite of its inherent weakness the older type of industrial organization has not, however, disappeared from India, and there are, even at the present time a certain number of cottage industries, e.g., hand-weaving, which are able to compete successfully with modern industry. The cottage industry is more suited to the habits and customs of the people, and secures a happier existence for the craftsman who works under comparatively healthy conditions in his own home in the midst of his family.

The factory industry, which has been steadily displacing the older handicrafts of India, was not established without considerable difficulty. The earlier pioneering attempts of the East India Company were almost all failures. The cotton and the jute industries, the two foremost among modern Indian industries, were started by about the middle of the 19th century. Their progress in the beginning was slow and uncertain, but since 1879 a steady progress has been maintained. In 1880 the total number of cotton mills was 58, employing about 40,000 persons, but in 1914 the number of mills was 264 and the total number of persons employed in them about 260,000. Similarly, the number of jute mills rose from 22 in 1880 to 64 in 1914, and the number of persons employed in them from 27,000 to 216,000. Similar progress was maintained in other industries, e.g., coal mining and the petroleum industry. The result of this steady progress of large-scale production was the growth of factory towns like Bombay, Calcutta, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Nagpur, Madras, Jamshedpur, etc., where modern labour problems, as understood in the west, are slowly but surely coming into prominence. Owing to the fact that the industrialization of the country has proceeded very slowly, there was not the rapid growth of a landless proletariat class in factory towns solely dependent upon industrial employment, as in England, where the industrial revolution was responsible for the creation of a large class of factory workmen permanently divorced from the land. The industrial development of the country was, however, greatly accelerated during the war and immediately after, during which period imports from abroad had of necessity to be restricted. This gave Indian manufacturers a degree of protection from foreign competition which in normal times would only have been secured by a high tariff. In 1922 India obtained recognition by the League of Nations as one of the Eight States of Chief Industrial importance. The grounds on which this claim was based are stated in the memorandum prepared by the India Office, which gave the following salient figures to illustrate the industrial importance of the country:—"28,000,000 agricultural workers (excluding peasant proprietors), 141,000 maritime workers, lascars, etc., a figure second only to that for the United Kingdom; over 20,000,000 workers in industries, including cottage industries, mines and transport; railway mileage in excess of that in every country except the United States."

But in spite of this impressive progress it is still true to say that the greater part of the labour force in industrial employment retains its agricultural connection, and, except perhaps in Ahmedabad, Jamshedpur and Sholapur, where a settled factory population is gradually springing up, the Indian industrial labour army consists of very few regulars.

#### Chapter II.—Industrial Labour—its Origin, Extent of Migration and Methods of Recruitment.

*Scarcity of Industrial Labour.*—From the brief account of the development of Indian industries it will be apparent that industrial labour must of necessity be drawn from the villages which are to be found dotted all over the face of the country. The vast majority of the industrial labourers belong to the poorer classes of peasants who have been driven by adverse circumstances from the fields in their native villages to seek employment in a factory. In the preceding chapter reference has been made to the increasing pressure of the population on the land owing to the decay of the Indian handicraft industry. In 1880 the Famine Commission observed that "the numbers who have no other employment than agriculture are greatly in excess of what is really required for the thorough cultivation of the land." The Agricultural Commission, after a study of the figures of the increase since that date of the urban and rural population of India, came to the conclusion that "the observations of the Famine Commission were even more pertinent to-day than when they were made in 1880."\* Owing to this increasing pressure of the population on the

\* Para. 506 of the Report.

land there should be a plentiful supply of cheap labour for industrial undertakings. But the Indian industrialist is quick to deny that labour in India is either plentiful or cheap. The Industrial Commission in 1918 referred to the "growing scarcity of labour in most parts of the country" \* and in the United Provinces Census Report of 1921 it is stated that the success of the factory organized on modern lines "is limited in one and that a vital respect—by the difficulty of obtaining and retaining labour" † The scarcity of labour in India is due not to any deficiency in numbers but to the various factors which prevent potential labourers from being drawn into industrial areas. The true explanation of the scarcity of labour is to be found chiefly in the unattractive conditions of employment and also partly in the conservatism of the labourer, who is always reluctant to wrench himself away from his fixtures. There is greater difficulty in finding skilled than ordinary labour, and this is due to the fact that facilities for training labour for modern industry are inadequate.

*Migration of Labour.*—The industrial centres in India are able to supply only a very small proportion of the labour force required, and there is consequently a considerable migration from other parts of India to these centres. The extent and nature of this migration is given in detail in Chapter III of Volume I of the Census of India, 1921, and the position is briefly stated in the following extract from the report:—"The labour reserves are found chiefly among the lower classes of the centre and south of the country. The centre supplies the tea plantations and mining industries of the eastern provinces, the south meets the southern industrial demand and the bulk of the Burma and overseas demand, while the more technical industries in the cities of the Western Provinces are supplied chiefly from the neighbouring agricultural tracts."

The table on page 167, which is taken from the Census Report of 1921, shows the principal provinces which gain and which lose on the balance of migration and compares the statistics with those of 1911 in each respect.

It will be observed that the provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of migrants are Bihar and Orissa (about 1½ million), the United Provinces (about one million), and Madras (about three-fourths of a million). On the other hand, Assam contains the highest percentage of foreigners. Inter-provincial migration is mostly either periodic, i.e., due to seasonal demands for labour, or semi-permanent, i.e., when the inhabitants of one place earn their livelihood in another but maintain connection with their own homes and ultimately settle there. The only province to which migration is largely of a permanent character is Assam, where the tea gardens and the cultivable waste land in the Brahmaputra Valley are the two main attractions for the poorer classes of villagers in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, the Central Provinces, the United Provinces, and Madras. It would be difficult to analyse within the brief space of this memorandum the causes of particular streams of migration, but, generally speaking, it may be stated that the men who migrate belong to the lowest stratum of village society. They are either landless labourers, generally of the lowest castes, or petty cultivating ryots who, owing to the smallness of the family holding or the weight of the debt incurred on account of illness, bad monsoon or the performance of a costly religious ceremony which is necessary on the occasion of a birth, marriage or death in the family, are driven to the industrial areas in search of a supplementary source of income. The lot of the former class in their villages is not a happy one, and, as the isolation of the Indian village is steadily breaking down, the landless agricultural labourers and the village menials are now able to better their position by migrating to the towns. The latter class, which is by far the more numerous, consists of agriculturists, pure and simple, whose hearts are in their villages to which they return at intervals more or less frequent.

*Changes in Recent Years.*—A comparison of the census figures of 1921 with those of 1911 shows that there have been no important changes in the main streams of migration during the course of the ten years. Assam and Burma have gained both in immigration and in emigration, while the United Provinces have lost in both. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Madras and the Central Provinces the number of immigrants has decreased, whilst the number of emigrants has increased. On the other hand, in the Bombay Presidency and the Punjab the number of immigrants has increased while the number of emigrants has decreased. Amongst the most notable changes may be mentioned an increase of nearly 400,000 immigrants into Assam, and an increase of 132,000 emigrants from Bengal and of nearly 100,000 emigrants from Madras.

*The Sources of Labour Supply.*—A brief analysis may now be made of the supply of labour on which some of the more important industries depend:—

(i) *Bombay City.*—The cotton mill industry is by far the most important industry in this centre. The other industries are connected with railway workshops and

\* Para. 7 of the Report.

† Census Report, Volume XVI, Part I, page 164.

engineering shops, dockyards, oil and flour mills, tanneries, iron and brass foundries, chemical factories, electric works, printing presses, etc. Bombay is very largely dependent on imported labour, and in the 1921 census no less than 84 per cent. of its inhabitants were returned as having been born outside the city. The Deccan and the Konkan, especially Ratnagiri district, are the chief sources from which labour is obtained. But there is also a steadily increasing stream of migration from the Punjab, the United Provinces, Madras and the French and Portuguese Settlements. Most of the migration, particularly from the distant parts, is of a semi-permanent nature as will be apparent from the sex ratio which is 525 females to 1,000 males.\*

(ii) *Ahmedabad and Sholapur*.—The other centres of the cotton mill industry have a more permanent labour force than Bombay. In Ahmedabad 60 per cent. of the population are born in the city itself. Sholapur is even less heterogeneous. Nearly 64 per cent. of the population are actually born there and only 27 per cent. come from outside the province, mostly from the neighbouring State of Hyderabad.

(iii) *Calcutta*, the home of the jute industry, is the other most important industrial centre of India. Like Bombay, it relies on imported labour, but, in addition, depends much more than almost any other centre on labour from other provinces. This is attributed to the fertility of the land and the dislike of the Bengali for factory work. The largest number of immigrants come from Bihar and Orissa, which supplies nearly a fifth of the Calcutta population. Most of them are employed in some form of manual labour, and the ratio† of women to men is less than one in five. The United Provinces supply nearly a tenth of the Calcutta population. The men from this province have the advantage over Biharis and Oriyas, in that more of them are able to find regular employment in mills and factories, and the number of casual labourers is comparatively small. Madras and the Central Provinces also send a stream of emigrants to Calcutta.

(iv) *Bihar and Orissa*.—While Bihar and Orissa pours out its labouring population eastwards, its iron and coal industries in the Singhbhum and Manbhum districts are attracting a considerable number of skilled and unskilled workers from outside. In Singhbhum the number of immigrants from non-contiguous parts of other provinces is 34,000, whilst in Manbhum it is 32,000. Skilled workers come chiefly from the United Provinces, Bombay and Bengal, and unskilled workers from the Central Provinces and Madras.

(v) *Cawnpore* is the principal industrial town of the United Provinces. The textile industry is the chief industry of the place, but there are also tanneries, leather factories, engineering works, oil, flour and rice mills, chemical works, sugar factories, etc. Labour is freely drawn from the densely populated districts, which surround Cawnpore. But the case of Cawnpore‡ itself is curious: though having to import labour it also exports it.

(vi) *Madras*.—Owing to the deficiency of coal, Madras has not gained the same degree of industrial importance as Calcutta or Bombay. It has a few large cotton mills and tanneries and leather factories. There is a plentiful supply of labour in the locality, and in fact the presidency exports labour in large numbers to other industrial centres and to Burma and Ceylon. No less than 95 per cent. of the inhabitants of Madras City were born in the province itself, and of these two-thirds were born in Madras city. The proportion of the sexes is also fairly equal. The labour force in Madras is, therefore, considerably more stable than in Bombay or Calcutta.

*Methods of Recruitment*.—The methods of recruitment in India have received general condemnation, even from the employers. But the excuse for the continuance of these methods is the difficulty of obtaining an adequate supply of labour. Apart from the casual employment of itinerant labour, which is governed by the laws of supply and demand, the usual methods of recruitment for industrial undertakings are:—(i) recruitment through contractors; (ii) recruitment through sardars; (iii) recruitment at the mill gates.

Before considering each of these methods, it is necessary to bear in mind that a stable labour force does not generally exist in Indian towns. When the first factory was started there was a sufficient supply of labour in the neighbourhood. But as industries developed and became concentrated at convenient centres, where raw material was at hand and transport facilities were available, the necessity arose of obtaining labour from some distance. Owing to the illiteracy of the workers and the variety of languages spoken by them, employers in India find it almost

\* Pages 18–21, Census of India, 1921, Volume IX, Part I.

† Census Report, 1921, Volume VI, Part I, pages 20 *et seq.*

‡ Census of India, 1921, Vol. XVI, Part I, page 45.

impossible to maintain any direct touch with their workpeople. This accounts for the presence of intermediaries, who are largely responsible for the abuses which have sprung up in connection with recruitment.

(i) *Recruitment through Contractors.*—This is the earliest method of recruitment and is still commonly used for obtaining labour for construction works and for industries and mines situated at some distance from the source of supply of labour. This system is also to be found in certain seasonal factories, particularly in cotton-ginning and pressing factories, although there is generally a plentiful supply of labour for such factories owing to the fact that work commences after the harvesting season.

The contractor is sent out to overcome the innate conservatism of the Indian peasant. He is helped in his work by the poverty and indebtedness of the peasant and also by occasional bad harvests, but in addition he not infrequently indulges in fraud and misrepresentation by painting a rosy picture of the future that awaits the peasant in a town with its crowded bazaars and other amusements, which are conspicuously absent in the village. The essence of the system is the payment of an advance to the prospective labourer in order to enable him to free himself from his pecuniary difficulties. The contractor retains some form of control over his recruits and takes good care to recover the amount of the advance together with the interest, which is generally calculated at an exorbitant rate. Generally, the employers do not deal directly with the labourers recruited by a contractor. The latter is paid a lump sum, from which he pays his men and retains a portion for himself. In the Central Provinces, however, it is reported that labour is actually purchased\* from private contractors at so much per head. The system of recruitment by contractors is most in use in Burma† owing to the scarcity of labour in that province and the necessity of recruitment from distant places. Practically all the unskilled labourers in most of the mills in Burma are *maistry coolies*, i.e., coolies who are recruited and paid by the employers' labour contractors or maistries. The general practice is for the employer to enter into a contract with a maistry for the supply of unskilled labour for the various operations carried on in the mills. In most contracts no mention is made of the number of workmen required; the maistry agrees to supply labour as and when required at the piece-rates laid down in the contract. Sometimes the contractor sublets his contract to another person, who may even be unknown to the employer. The person who arranges for the supply of labour at the mills is known as the head maistry, and the work is executed through sub-maistries, who pay premia to the head maistry for the privilege of getting the work. It is the sub-maistries who either themselves come to India or send their agents to negotiate with prospective recruits. They make the necessary advances and on arrival in Burma their recruits are made to sign promissory notes for sums never less than the total amount spent on them.

The payment of advances has become somewhat risky since the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act and the system of recruitment through contractors is, therefore, gradually losing its importance. An increasing number of Indians come to Burma on their own and seek employment independently of maistries. Generally, they form themselves into gangs, each of which nominates a leader from among its members. The gang moves about in search of work and its leader usually arrives at an arrangement with a head maistry by which the latter secures work for the gang and pays what is known as *bucksheesh*, which is first given as a loan but is eventually treated as a gift if the gang remains in service under the head maistry until the close of the busy season. These *bucksheesh* coolies are paid at the same rates as the coolies recruited from India.

(ii) *Recruitment through Sardars.*—This method of recruitment is also dependent on the payment of advances, which, however, are made at the cost of the employer. The Sardar is an operative already on work in the mill or plantation and is sent out to recruit labour from among his relations, acquaintances or neighbours. He is drawn, therefore, from the same class as the recruits themselves and can therefore be relied on to deal more fairly with them. Another advantage of this system of recruitment is that the men recruited are insured against unemployment and find work waiting for them at their destination. It is, however, only in plantations that this form of recruitment has been used to any appreciable extent.

(iii) *Recruitment at the mill-gate.*—The recruitment of labour at the mill-gate or at the surface of mines is the form of recruitment which is gradually gaining in importance over the other two methods. The news of the very much higher rates of wages paid in towns (which to the villager sounds fabulous as he has no idea of the higher cost of living) spreads throughout the countryside and draws large crowds

\* Census Report, Vol. XI, Part I, pages 173–174.

† Report of an enquiry into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, by J. J. Bennison, B.A., I.C.S., pages 74 *et seq.*



of would-be workers. They are to be found at convenient gathering places on the thoroughfares waiting to be picked up for employment. The older hands also return from their village with groups of friends, relations and neighbours, who come in the hope of finding employment in the mills. But the ignorance, simplicity and poverty of the Indian peasant renders his exploitation an easy matter. The employer does not recruit himself the men required for his establishment but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear, therefore, that education and organization are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who, like harpies, are ever ready to prey on them.

*Absenteeism and Labour Turnover.*—A complaint which has been made against Indian workers ever since the rise of the factory system is their frequent absence from work and their high turnover rate. The migratory character of Indian labour is no doubt largely responsible for this, but sickness and the unhealthy conditions in which the workers live also play an important part. The Factory Labour Commission of 1907 made an enquiry into the number of absent workers and came to the conclusion that the average worker took two days off every month and a further holiday of from three to seven weeks every year. In addition, he receives the weekly holiday and from four to ten Indian holidays during the year. The only recent figures of absence from work are those given in the Bombay Labour Gazette for the textile mills in Bombay Presidency, in Bombay City, Ahmedabad and Sholapur. These figures are shown in the statement on page 168, and it will be observed that there are no signs of improvement in the regularity of attendance of the mill hands. The percentage of absenteeism shows a seasonal variation and is, generally speaking, highest in the monsoon months and the festival and marriage seasons. The very much smaller percentage of absenteeism in Ahmedabad is due to the fact that the mill operatives are mostly drawn from an industrial population which has been settled in the city for generations. The high percentage of absenteeism in Bombay necessitates the employment of an inefficient substitute who is known as a "badli." The Textile Tariff Board dealt with the question of absenteeism in Bombay and suggested the employment of spare hands in each department except the weaving department.\*

No statistical or other data are available regarding the extent of the labour turnover in Indian industries, but there can be no doubt that the rate of labour turnover in India is considerably higher than in other industrial countries. In his evidence before the Factory Labour Commission of 1907 the Manager of an Ahmedabad Mill stated—

"Hands are continually changing. Out of 450 one year only 50 remained in the mill during the second year."

The remedy would appear to lie not only in the proper selection of employees and their proper placement, but also in the improvement of the conditions of employment, as unhealthy surroundings combined with low wages and a low standard of living undoubtedly levy a heavy toll from the Indian industrial population.

*The Main Characteristics of Indian Labour.*—It may be convenient here to summarise the main characteristics of the average Indian worker. He is an agriculturist who is compelled by circumstances to forsake agriculture and to take to industrial employment. He is unwilling to sever his agricultural connection and is therefore migratory in his habits. When he enters industrial employment the Indian workman is the proverbial square peg in a round hole and finds it difficult to adapt himself to his new surroundings. He is illiterate and badly organized and, living from hand to mouth, has an extremely low power of resistance. As he is recruited from the lower castes he is also generally meek and submissive, but an important change has come over him in this respect since the Great War. The increasing contact between villages and towns and the return of the soldiers from the battlefields of the West has disturbed the placid contentment of the Indian peasant. The Indian worker has not escaped from the economic and the political influences which have come into play since the War, and he has now learnt to realize the importance of the weapon of the strike. His wages and his standard of living are still very low, at least according to Western standards, and it is generally believed that, owing to his inefficiency, his labour is not in the long run cheap. But as against this view is the recent statement made by the Manager of General Motors, Limited, Bombay, that "the average Indian workman's ability and intelligence is as good as in other countries and that he can adapt himself to any new methods and conditions of work."

\* Para. 60 of the Report.

**Note on the Apprentices Act, 1850.**

As early as 1850 an Act was passed "for better enabling children, and especially orphans and poor children brought up by public charity, to learn trades, crafts and employments, by which, when they come to full age, they may gain a livelihood." This Act was originally intended to apply to European orphans from military orphanages and the like. Some of its provisions are hardly applicable to modern conditions and in 1922, when the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (XXI of 1923) was under consideration, an enquiry was made from local governments as to whether any useful purpose was being served by this Act. Excluding the Government of Bombay, all local governments were in favour of its repeal on the ground that the Act had become an obsolete measure. The Government of Bombay, however, objected to its repeal as it was being used for the apprenticeship of seamen and for the purposes of reformatory institutions and was likely to be availed of for child welfare work. The Government of the Punjab, whilst agreeing to the repeal of the Act, pointed out that with the development of Indian industries it may be necessary in the near future to enact some similar law. In view of the opposition of the Government of Bombay, the Act was not repealed, but the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (XXI of 1923) repealed the provisions relating to the apprenticing of boys for sea service.

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TABLE I.—*Inter-Provincial Migration, 1911 and 1921.*

Province or state.	1921.			1911.			Variation, 1911-1921.	
	Net gain or loss.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Net gain or loss.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.
<i>Provinces or states which gain—</i>								
Assam .. .. .	+ 1,140,752	1,216,661	75,909	+ 757,379	831,118	73,739	+ 385,543	+ 2,170
Bengal .. .. .	+ 1,132,194	1,817,775	685,581	+ 1,286,429	1,839,016	552,587	- 21,241	+ 132,994
Burma .. .. .	+ 553,471	572,530	19,059	+ 481,046	493,699	12,653	+ 78,831	+ 6,406
Bombay .. .. .	+ 472,023	1,039,622	567,599	+ 349,586	952,552	602,966	+ 87,070	- 35,367
Mysore .. .. .	+ 210,064	309,850	99,786	+ 176,945	308,202	131,257	+ 1,648	- 31,471
Central Provinces and Berar ..	+ 197,323	603,924	406,601	+ 428,552	743,067	314,515	- 139,143	+ 92,086
Punjab and Delhi .. .. .	+ 174,101	674,395	500,294	+ 101,779	605,952	504,173	+ 68,443	- 3,879
Ajmer-Merwara .. .. .	+ 66,033	108,452	42,419	+ 11,002	95,112	84,110	+ 13,340	- 41,691
Central India and Gwalior ..	+ 58,688	521,679	462,991	- 65,456	470,391	535,847	+ 51,288	- 72,856
North-West Frontier Province	+ 50,835	118,395	67,560	+ 15,422	82,139	66,717	+ 36,256	+ 843
Travancore .. .. .	+ 49,732	71,973	22,241	+ 34,343	60,613	26,270	+ 11,360	- 4,029
Coorg .. .. .	+ 30,988	33,838	2,850	+ 41,569	45,427	3,858	- 11,589	- 1,008
Cochin .. .. .	+ 15,792	39,689	23,897	+ 26,809	47,190	20,381	- 7,501	+ 3,516
Andamans and Nicobars ..	+ 14,080	14,396	316	+ 13,152	14,119	967	+ 277	- 651
Baroda .. .. .	+ 10,674	231,880	221,206	- 13,096	222,427	235,523	+ 9,453	- 14,317
Baluchistan .. .. .	+ 5,924	66,166	60,242	- 33,722	42,309	76,031	+ 23,857	- 15,789
<i>Provinces or states which lose—</i>								
Bihar and Orissa .. .. .	- 1,567,968	387,068	1,955,036	- 1,491,125	409,908	1,901,033	- 22,840	+ 54,003
United Provinces .. .. .	- 974,642	425,152	1,399,794	- 818,242	590,414	1,408,656	- 165,262	- 8,862
Madras .. .. .	- 718,183	196,609	914,792	- 585,993	238,730	824,723	- 42,121	+ 90,069
Rajputana .. .. .	- 625,650	242,243	867,893	- 553,136	302,489	855,625	- 60,246	+ 12,268
Hyderabad .. .. .	- 166,326	197,127	363,453	- 53,155	253,117	306,272	- 55,990	+ 57,181
Kashmir .. .. .	- 22,685	61,561	84,246	- 7,534	74,397	81,931	- 12,836	+ 2,315
Sikkim .. .. .	- 2,297	1,836	4,133	+ 363	3,808	3,445	- 1,972	+ 688

*Notes.*—The figures for provinces include those for the states attached to them, except in the case of Madras, where they exclude Cochin and Travancore. The figures in columns 3 and 6 include immigrants from French and Portuguese possessions and those Indians whose birthplace was not specified.

TABLE II.—Showing average Absenteeism (i.e., the percentage of the number of working days not worked to the number of working days in the month) in the Textile Mills in (1) Bombay Presidency, (2) Bombay City, (3) Ahmedabad and (4) Sholapur, during the years 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928 and 1929.

Month.	Bombay Presidency.				Bombay City.					Ahmedabad.					Sholapur.				
	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
January .. .. .	—	7.28	8.14	7.06	11.8	9.8	8.11	8.53	6.67	2.5	2.5	1.85	3.72	3.65	7.5	13.8	11.72	13.84	15.79
February .. .. .	—	7.84	8.76	11.05	12.1	9.62	7.72	9.28	*13.71	2.7	1.9	1.68	3.86	3.45	13.8	14.1	13.23	14.66	14.80
March .. .. .	—	8.11	8.70	—	12.2	9.9	9.05	8.92	—	2.9	2.5	1.83	4.58	—	16.3	16.2	12.91	14.83	—
April .. .. .	—	8.58	8.27	—	10.7	11.1	8.91	9.31	—	2.6	2.0	2.47	4.63	—	14.1	16.4	14.73	12.67	—
May .. .. .	—	8.31	—	—	11.7	14.1	8.84	—	—	2.3	2.3	2.18	4.62	—	13.4	17.1	15.53	13.53	—
June .. .. .	9.28	7.48	General Strike.	—	11.7	11.13	7.85	—	—	2.7	2.54	2.23	3.81	—	5.8	15.5	13.74	10.44	—
July .. .. .	9.79	7.90		—	12.8	10.38	8.36	—	—	3.3	2.85	2.89	3.49	—	9.0	14.11	12.58	†	—
August .. .. .	9.75	7.35		—	14.8	11.08	7.68	—	—	3.2	2.87	2.56	3.66	—	11.1	11.89	12.39	14.37	—
September .. .. .	10.09	8.90		—	16.7	12.66	9.40	—	—	3.1	3.14	4.20	3.68	—	10.7	12.77	12.07	15.88	—
October .. .. .	11.24	9.01		—	§	12.25	9.40	—	—	4.1	2.74	5.00	3.86	—	11.4	14.48	12.39	15.80	—
November .. .. .	9.22	8.74	8.84	—	‡	9.77	9.19	9.37	—	2.7	3.34	5.13	3.88	—	12.6	15.06	12.59	14.63	—
December .. .. .	8.36	7.77	7.25	—	23.3	9.14	7.91	6.88	—	3.6	2.15	4.30	3.84	—	12.1	13.66	12.97	15.44	—
Total .. .. .	—	96.91	49.76	18.11	137.8	130.91	102.42	52.29	20.38	35.7	29.83	36.42	47.58	7.1	137.8	175.07	156.85	156.19	30.59
Average per month ..	—	8.08	8.29	9.06	13.78	10.91	8.54	8.71	10.19	2.96	2.44	3.04	3.97	3.55	11.48	14.59	13.07	14.2	15.30

\* This high figure was due to the riots.

† Owing to an industrial dispute no figures are available.

‡ Owing to the general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay no figures are available for these months.

### Chapter III. Recruitment for Assam.

It has been shown in the preceding chapter that there is a considerable flow of labour from distant parts of the country to the industrial centres and plantations. The mobility of labour is of considerable advantage to the agricultural population, as it helps to relieve the increasing pressure on the land. In India the movement of labour between province and province is entirely unrestricted by Government with the solitary exception of the movement of labour from certain provinces to eight districts in Assam, viz., Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong, Darrang, Kamrup, Goalpara, Cachar and Sylhet. These districts are known as labour districts and under the Assam Labour and Emigration Act No. VI of 1901, as amended by Act. VI. of 1908 and Act VIII of 1915, the provinces of Madras, Bengal, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam can, by notification in the local official Gazette, "prohibit all persons from recruiting, engaging, inducing or assisting any native of India, or any specified class of natives of India, to emigrate from the whole or any specified part of the province to any labour-district or any specified portion of any labour-district, either absolutely or otherwise than in accordance with such of the provisions of the Act as may be specified."\* Other local Governments can also, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, extend the provisions of the Act to the whole or any specified portion of their territories. Any person who knowingly recruits, engages, induces, or assists, or attempts to recruit, engage, induce or assist any person to emigrate in contravention of any of the provisions of this Act or of any notification for the time being in force thereunder, is punishable with imprisonment or fine or with both. There are two points in connection with this Act which it is necessary to bear in mind. In the first place, the restrictions imposed by the Act apply to *all* labour migrating to the labour-districts and not only to labour migrating to the tea gardens in the labour districts. It is true that most of the immigration into Assam is to the tea gardens, but it would be a mistake to suppose that other industries are not affected. In 1924 a protest was received from a sugar factory in Kamrap against the "strangling" of the industry by the Act. In the second place, the Act does not impose any restriction on the movement of labour to the labour-districts without outside assistance or inducement: it deals with "assisted" emigration and also with inducement to emigrate otherwise than in accordance with the provisions of the Act or any notification for the time being in force thereunder.

*Extent to which restrictions have been imposed in the Provinces.*—The chief provinces from which labourers are recruited for the Assam gardens are Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, the United Provinces and Madras. In Bengal and the Central Provinces no areas have been closed to recruitment. In Bihar and Orissa recruitment has been prohibited only in the Khondmals sub-division of the Angul District, but in the rest of the province recruitment is permissible only in accordance with the provisions of the Act. In the United Provinces, recruitment under the Act is permitted only in five divisions, viz., Gorakhpur, Benares, Fyzabad, Jhansi and Allahabad (excluding the districts of Etawah and Farrukhabad). The remainder of the province is entirely closed to recruitment for Assam. The Royal Commission on Agriculture† was unable to find any justification for this prohibition and recommended its immediate withdrawal, but no action has yet been taken by the local Government. In Madras the agency tracts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godavari were closed to recruitment up to the year 1915 and recruitment in accordance with the provisions of the Act was allowed in six districts, viz., Kistna, Guntur, Nellore and the non-agency tracts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godavari. The Act did not apply to the rest of the presidency. Early in 1916 the local Government extended the Act to the other districts and prohibited absolutely the recruitment for Assam from those districts. In 1923, however, the local Government changed its policy altogether and removed all restrictions as regards castes and areas. The result is that since that date the whole province has been thrown open to recruitment in accordance with the provisions of the Act. A part of the labour force for the labour-districts in Assam is also recruited from the Feudatory States in Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, but in some cases (e.g., Bastar in the Central Provinces) recruitment is totally prohibited by the Chief. In this connection, it may be mentioned that the restrictions imposed by the Act are applicable to emigrants who proceed from an Indian State into a territory in British India to which the Act has been applied and depart therefrom for Assam. Recently efforts have also been made by the tea industry to obtain recruits from the Bombay Presidency. As the Act has not been extended to this province, there are no restrictions on recruitment, but the efforts of the tea industry have so far met with little success.

\* Section 3 of the Act.

† Para. 508 of the Report.

*The Changes made in Act VI of 1901.*—The policy underlying Act VI of 1901 was to prevent fraud and misrepresentation in recruitment, to provide for adequate facilities during transport, and also to secure satisfactory conditions of employment in the labour-districts. But the enforcement of this policy, without compensatory advantages, would have been resented by the tea industry as it would undoubtedly have raised the cost of importing labour to Assam. Government therefore decided that, in return for the protection afforded to the labourer, legislation should also protect the employer against loss caused by the desertion of the labourer. Thus the law, whilst providing for a minimum wage for the labourer and securing him other facilities, e.g., medical attendance, housing, water-supply, sanitary arrangements and the supply of rice at cheap rates, also provided for criminal penalties for desertion and gave the employer the right to arrest an absconder without warrant. Service in Assam, was, however, becoming increasingly unpopular and it was soon apparent that the main cause of this unpopularity was the penal contract and the right of private arrest which was enjoyed by the employers. An important feature of Act VI of 1901 was that it contained within itself the seeds of its own decay. Under Section 221 of the Act the Government of Assam, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, can, by notification, declare that any labour-district or local area shall cease to be subject to all the provisions or any specified provision of the Act, whilst under Section 91 any local Government can, by notification, dispense with or relax, on such conditions as it may prescribe, any of the requirements of the Act relating to recruitment. In accordance with the recommendation of a Committee of Enquiry which submitted its report in 1906, the Government of Assam in January, 1908, issued a notification the main effect of which was the withdrawal of the right of private arrest. In the same year the penal provisions for breach of contract were also withdrawn by notification from four out of the eight labour-districts, viz., Goalpara, Kamrup, Cachar and Sylhet. In 1915 the penal provisions were withdrawn from the remaining four labour-districts, and an Amending Act was passed under which the system of recruitment by contractors and uncertified garden sardars was abolished, and a Labour Board for the supervision of local agents and of the recruitment, engagement and emigration to labour-districts of natives of India under the Act was constituted. It will thus be seen that, in addition to the radical changes made by the amending Act of 1915, important provisions of Act VI of 1901 have become inoperative by means of notification. The Act now contains much "dead wood" and its provisions are so disjointed as to be almost impossible of comprehension or interpretation.

*The existing System of Recruitment.*—Since 1915 the only recognized method of recruitment is through the agency of garden sardars, who must be persons employed on an estate and deputed by their employer to engage recruits. A dual control is exercised over their activities. In the first place, the control is local and is exercised by the district authorities of the recruiting districts. The garden sardar has to obtain a certificate from his employer which must be officially countersigned in the district of employment. The Act also requires the countersignature of this certificate by the district magistrate in the recruiting districts, but all the local governments concerned have, by notification, dispensed with this requirement of the law. The local governments have, however, made it a condition that in the recruiting district garden sardars must work under the control of local agents, who are the representatives of the employers but licensed under the Act. There are detailed provisions in the Act governing the procedure to be adopted in recruiting and forwarding labourers but most of these provisions, e.g., the production of labourers before a registering officer, have been dispensed with by local governments in exercise of their powers under Section 91 of the Act. The local governments concerned have also framed rules under this section relating generally to the supervision of recruitment, provision of accommodation and maintenance of registers by local agents, production by them on demand of emigrants before magistrates or police officers, reporting of cases in which objections have been raised to the emigration of a recruit by the husband or wife, parent or lawful guardian of the recruit. The penalty for failure to comply with the effective provisions of the Act or the rules framed thereunder and for inadequate supervision is the cancellation of the licence of the local agent. A garden sardar can also be prosecuted and imprisoned if he recruits emigrants without a proper certificate or independently of a local agent. Further, any person taking part in recruiting in contravention of the Act is liable to imprisonment. The local control over recruitment cannot, however, be regarded as an absolute safeguard against abuses. Every recruit is not required to be produced before the official authority in the recruiting district, and for the discovery of cases of illegal recruitment reliance has to be placed on local agents, who are not officials but representatives of the employers. The local agent has, in fact, to serve two masters; he is required to look after the interests of his employer, but he is also responsible for his actions to the district magistrate who can cancel his licence. The amending Act of 1915

supplemented this local control by a central control which was exercised by the newly constituted Assam Labour Board. The composition and working of this Board are dealt with in the following paragraph.

*Composition and Working of the Assam Labour Board.*—The Assam Labour Board consists of an official chairman and 15 representatives of the tea industry, who are elected as follows:—(a) Eight by the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, as representatives of that Association, and of the Indian Tea Association, London; (b) four by the Assam Branch, Indian Tea Association; and (c) three by the Surma Valley Branch, Indian Tea Association.

The Board has an executive committee, consisting of the chairman and four members representing the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, the Indian Tea Association, London, the Assam Branch of the Indian Tea Association and the Surma Valley Branch of the Indian Tea Association, respectively. Under the Board there are supervisors, whose powers and duties are laid down in the Assam Labour Board Rules, framed under Section 116F (2) (e) of the Act. At present, there are three supervisors who are stationed at Ranchi, Raipur, and Waltair. The expenses of the Board and its supervisors are met out of a cess payable on garden sardars and emigrants. The main feature of the Board is that it is predominantly an employers' organization maintained almost entirely by a cess levied from employers. Although the Act covers various industries in the labour districts, representation on the Board is confined to the tea industry. The main function of the Board is to supervise the whole system of recruitment with a view to the prevention of irregularities. It is also responsible for the supervision of local agents. The function of the Board is merely to bring the irregularities to the notice of the local authority for necessary action, and neither the Board nor its supervisors can undertake the prosecution of an offender. All the members of the Board, excluding the chairman, are directly interested in seeing that the industry does not suffer from lack of labour, and the chairman must be under considerable pressure to adopt the same point of view. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that there exists in the minds of some people the mistaken impression that the Board is a recruiting agency. The Board is also not directly concerned with the conditions of labour in Assam. The provisions of the Act dealing with a minimum wage, housing and hospital accommodation, etc., though still unrepealed, are now inoperative owing to the withdrawal by notification of the provisions relating to labour contracts.

*Defects of the Existing System.*—Doubts have been expressed as to the validity of the provisions of the existing Act, and in 1926 it was necessary to undertake the amendment of Section 116E in order to validate the imposition of the cess. The main difficulty with the Act arises out of the fact that most of its provisions refer to "labourers," i.e., persons bound by a labour contract, although such contracts are no longer in existence. Nevertheless, it may be stated that the Act has on the whole been successful in holding in check the grave abuses which were formerly associated with the recruitment of labour for the tea gardens in Assam. The *arkhatti* of old (i.e., the professional recruiter), though he frequently raises his head, is promptly suppressed. The credit for this is undoubtedly due to the tea industry, which is genuinely endeavouring to set its house in order. The successful working of the Act depends on co-operation between the central and local control, i.e., between the Assam Labour Board and the District Magistrates of the recruiting districts. The link between the two forms of control is the local agent who is, as has been stated previously, the representative of the employer and not an official. It is the co-operation of the industry which has strengthened this link and made it an efficient factor in the suppression of the abuses connected with recruitment.

So long as no difficulty was experienced in securing recruits for Assam no complaint was raised by the industry, but the recruiting areas are gradually becoming dry owing to the competition for labour by other industries, e.g., the coal and steel industry in Bihar and Orissa, the jute and other industries in Bengal, and the textile industry in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The wages paid in the tea gardens are not attractive enough when compared with the wages paid by other industries, and it is very difficult to convince intending emigrants of the value of the concessions which are allowed in the Assam gardens. Another difficulty in connection with the recruitment for Assam is the uncertainty whether a labourer will ever be able to return to his home. The difficulties which have arisen in connection with recruitment have led the tea industry to protest against the restrictions imposed by the Act which have no parallel in other parts of India. It has been pointed out that the sardari system of recruitment, which is the only system of recruitment recognized by the Act, is not suitable for newly opened areas. This was a real difficulty when the whole of Madras was opened to recruitment under the Act. There were then very few Madrasis in employment in the tea estates, and it was, therefore, exceedingly



difficult to find suitable garden sardars who could be sent to this province for recruitment. In order to promote recruitment, managers of tea gardens have sometimes visited the recruiting areas and carried on an extensive propaganda in the villages. But one local government has drawn the attention of the industry to the fact that such propaganda would come within the mischief of Section 164 of the Act. The complaint of the industry against the restrictions imposed by the Act would have been very much louder but for the fear that if a revision of the Act comes before the Legislature it is more probable that additional restrictions would be imposed than greater facilities given. Recruitment for Assam has always been regarded with disfavour by Indian public opinion and the attitude of the Legislature has been anything but friendly towards the industry.\* This is partly due to the mystery which generally surrounds the tea gardens in Assam which are difficult of access and also partly to the low wages paid.

*Need for the Retention of Control.*—"Free emigration" from one province to another has always been the ideal which the Government of India have kept in view and the whole position in connection with the recruitment for Assam was reviewed in 1928. Assam was no longer the inaccessible country which it used to be and it was difficult to justify its being treated differently to the Dooars, where no restrictions are imposed. Further, there is a large volume of "assisted" emigration from India to Burma which is entirely uncontrolled by Government. In a circular letter which was addressed to local governments, the question was put to them whether it was still necessary to maintain any form of control over recruitment for Assam. It was pointed out that, with the abolition of penal contracts, the growth of public opinion, the greater sophistication of the labourers themselves and the improvement of communications resulting in the reduction in duration of the journey to Assam, the restrictions imposed by the Act might now be withdrawn without the risk of the recrudescence of the abuses which had made legislation necessary. All the local governments concerned, including the Government of Assam, were, however, unanimously of opinion that the time had not yet come for the withdrawal of control. This view was shared by the chairman of the Assam Labour Board, and was also acquiesced in by the Indian Tea Association, which, however, pleaded for the relaxation of control. The replies of the local governments indicated that the persons who were recruited were still unsophisticated, that in spite of the improvement of the communications to Assam they were still liable to be left stranded in a strange country, unless measures were taken to prevent fraud and misrepresentation, and that in spite of the abolition of penal contracts, labour in Assam was weak and helpless. The chairman of the Assam Labour Board recently, in order to support the view that the retention of central as well as local control was necessary, cited a case in which a boy had disappeared suddenly from his home in Gaya district (Bihar) and was discovered in a tea garden in Sylhet.† An investigation into this case led to the revelation that illegal recruitment was being carried on by *arkatis*, whose policy, as was apparent from papers in their possession, was to take young unmarried girls to Assam and to pair them with single male labourers in order that the latter may settle down permanently in the tea gardens.

*The Provisional Proposals of the Government of India.*—In view of this unanimity of opinion, the Government of India came to the conclusion that it would not be wise to remove all control over recruitment for Assam. But they were satisfied that the existing restrictions by which recruitment was limited to only one method, viz., through the agency of garden sardars, placed an unduly heavy burden on the industry. They, therefore, considered that it would be necessary to repeal the existing Act and to replace it by a comparatively simpler measure. Their proposals were embodied in a draft bill‡ which was circulated to local governments with letter No. L.1266, dated the 3rd December, 1928. The main principles underlying these proposals are briefly as follows:—

- (i) Recruitment may be made either through garden sardars (as at present) or through licensed recruiters.
- (ii) Both garden sardars and recruiters to be subject to local control, i.e., the control exercised by the district authorities in the recruiting districts.
- (iii) The extent of local control to be left to the discretion of the local governments concerned.
- (iv) Local governments are not to be empowered to prohibit recruitment absolutely.

\* Legislative Assembly Debates, Vol. I—No. 26, dated 11th March, 1929, pages 1672-1677; No. 32, dated 19th March, 1929, pages 2140-2144; No. 33, dated 20th March, 1929, page 2216; No. 33, dated 20th March, 1929, pages 2224-2228; No. 34, dated 21st March, 1929, page 2305.

† The case is at present *sub judice*.

‡ Appendix I.

(v) Where necessary and subject to the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, a local government may, by notification in respect of the whole province or of particular areas, prohibit recruitment through recruiters. In such cases the only recognized method of recruitment would be through the agency of garden sardars.

(vi) No control to be exercised over the transport of emigrants.

(vii) The restrictions to apply only to the tea plantations in Assam, but the Governor-General in Council may extend these restrictions to other industries.

(viii) No penalty to be imposed for mere inducement to emigrate, if no tangible assistance has been given.

(ix) Central control to be exercised by the Assam Labour Board as at present, but the constitution of the Board to be revised so as to give the employers and labourers equal representation. The Board would consist of an official chairman, four representatives of the tea industry, and four persons nominated by the Governments of Madras, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and the Central Provinces, to represent the interests of the labourers.

The measure proposed by the Government was a recruiting measure pure and simple. It did not attempt to regulate the conditions of employment in Assam. The proposals of the Government of India, except with regard to the revision of the constitution of the Assam Labour Board, were generally accepted both by the tea industry and by the local governments concerned. The proposal for the revision of the constitution of the Assam Labour Board was, however, regarded "with feelings of dismay" by the Indian Tea Association, and the Government of Bihar and Orissa (which is the province most concerned with the recruitment for Assam) was also strongly of opinion that the representation of labour would "quite probably paralyse the united working of the Board." The Government of the Central Provinces was the only local government which accepted the proposed revision of the constitution of the Board without demur. The possible courses open to Government were:—(1) To continue the Board as at present (this was desired by the tea industry); (2) to include official representatives of the local governments mainly concerned (this was suggested by the Government of Bihar and Orissa and not objected to by the industry); (3) to include representatives of labour on the Board, as suggested by the Government of India; (4) to abolish the Board altogether and to retain no central control (this is what the industry would desire if (1) or (2) is unacceptable); (5) to abolish the Board and to establish a purely official authority in its place, which would preserve central control over recruitment and insure co-ordination between the different local authorities.

It is very doubtful if the first or the second course would commend itself to the Legislature, and it would be difficult to find valid reasons to justify the exclusion of the representatives of labourers from the Board. On the other hand, as the successful working of the Board depends on the whole-hearted co-operation of the industry, it is hardly feasible to adopt the third alternative in the teeth of the opposition from the industry. In the opinion of the chairman of the Assam Labour Board, the adoption of the fourth alternative would be dangerous as local control is not by itself adequate to prevent abuses. In view of the attitude taken by the tea industry, it appears that the only feasible course would be to abolish the Board and to set up a purely official executive agency in its place. This, however, is not regarded with favour by the Government of Bihar and Orissa, which considers that it would be a definitely retrograde step, as it would not admit of progressive delegation of control to the industry, and would thus postpone indefinitely the ultimate removal of all restrictions, which has all along been the ideal aimed at by the Government of India.

In view of the fact that the conditions of labour in the tea gardens, including problems connected with the recruitment, will come within the purview of the Royal Commission on Labour, the Government of India have decided not to proceed with their proposals for the revision of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, until the matter has been investigated by the Commission. Act VI of 1901 has thus received a slightly longer lease of life.

#### Chapter IV.—Unemployment.

*The Nature of the Problem in India.*—The problem of unemployment in India is in its main features quite different from the problem which has arisen in western countries since the post-war depression in industry. Seventy per cent. of the population of this country is entirely dependent on agriculture, and, as has been shown in a previous chapter, the majority of industrial workers regard work in a factory or mine as a supplementary occupation, which is taken up during the slack agricultural season. In India the number of landless labourers, who rely solely on industrial employment for their means of livelihood, is comparatively small and, in view of the scarcity of labour to which reference has already been made, it may be stated as a general proposition that unemployment, as it is understood in the west, does not exist.

It would, however, be a mistake to suppose that there is no unemployment in India. Owing to the increasing pressure of the population on the land and also to the nature of agricultural operations, there are periods during which the bulk of the population in most parts of the country have no employment, either agricultural or industrial. The average cultivator does not work on his land throughout the year, and it has been estimated that the total number of his working days in the year is seldom more than 190. The problem in India is, therefore, to find suitable spare-time occupation for the bulk of the population. As stated by Mr. Darling, "the only way in which a small farmer can keep himself out of debt is by being frugal and industrious and by having a second string to his bow."\* Depression in trade and industry does, therefore, deprive the agriculturist of an opportunity of finding a spare-time occupation and thus increases the pressure on the land, which is already unable to support the growing population of the country. Fortunately for India the demand for labour in industries and plantations is still considerably in excess of the supply and industrial depression has not, therefore, the same terrors for the Indian worker as it has for the worker in the west.

By far the most serious form of unemployment to which India is liable is that which arises out of a partial or total failure of the monsoon. The scarcity or famine which is caused thereby deprives the population of wide areas of their principal source of living. Formerly a famine meant an absolute lack of food, but, with the improvement of the means of communication and transport, a famine is now more a temporary dislocation of employment due to the failure of the crops than a food famine. The solution of the famine problem is, therefore, to provide employment for those against whom nature has declared a temporary lock-out. The seriousness of famines was fully recognized by Government, and no less than three Commissions were appointed to consider the action which should be taken. It is not necessary here to refer to the nature of the organization which has been set up by Government for famine relief, but it may be stated that these visitations of nature have now been brought more effectively under human control than ever before in the history of India. The efficacy of this organization was proved by the comparative ease with which the people were able to stand the strain of the severe famine conditions of 1918.

*India and the Washington Convention.*—The consideration of the question of industrial unemployment was thrust upon the Government of India by the Washington Convention, which was adopted by the First International Labour Conference in 1919. Each member ratifying this Convention was required (i) to communicate to the International Labour Office all information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment; (ii) to establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of the central authority, and to appoint committees, including representatives of employers and workers, to advise on matters concerning the operation of these agencies; (iii) where systems of insurance against unemployment have been established, to make arrangements, upon terms to be agreed upon between the members concerned, whereby workers belonging to one member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those of the latter.

In addition to this Convention the First International Labour Conference also adopted a recommendation, which advocated (a) the abolition of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit; (b) the establishment of an effective system of unemployment insurance; and (c) the execution of public works as far as practicable during periods of unemployment and in districts most affected by it.

The Draft Convention was ratified by India but, in communicating this ratification, the Secretary of State for India found it necessary "in order to avoid subsequent misunderstanding" to explain at some length the peculiar position of India in this matter as given in the following extract from the despatch† which was received from the Government of India:—

"The provisions included in the Draft Convention concerning unemployment require the regular furnishing of all available information regarding unemployment and the creation of free public employment agencies with representatives of employers and of workers to advise regarding their operation. In the present unorganized state of Indian labour it would be impossible to furnish returns of the kind expected in western countries, where labour is fully organized; though information of a general nature could doubtless be given regarding wages and demand for labour, and regarding famine measures. The creation of free public employment agencies

\* "The Punjab Peasant in Prosperity and Debt," by M. L. Darling, page 280.

† Despatch to H.M.'s Secretary of State for India, No. 16—Industries, dated the 25th November, 1920.

in India has hitherto been thought unnecessary, since the demand for industrial labour has for long exceeded the supply, and the unemployment of agricultural labour is unknown in ordinary seasons, although in a few congested areas wages remain relatively low owing to the outside demand for industrial labour failing to reach these areas effectively. Here we think that the institution of unemployment agencies might facilitate migration to areas where the demand for industrial labour is never fully met. But when serious injury is caused to agriculture by seasonal calamities, we find it necessary to go much further than merely giving applicants information of existing openings for employment; we provide actual employment or other suitable relief for those who need it and provide an agency for searching them out. Our famine organization, as is well known, is devised to deal with unemployment on a most extensive scale. Although this organization is only called into active operation when the need arises, and works for the most part through the agency of Government officials who are entrusted also with other duties, yet every province of India has an elaborate famine code, which has been progressively improved in the light of past experience; the officers who have to work under it, should need arise, are familiar with its provisions, and the experience of many years past has shown that this organization is capable of dealing economically with unemployment on a scale for which few western countries could show a parallel. It is true that unemployment in the strict sense in India under any conditions that can be foreseen must arise only from one cause, that of serious and widespread injury to agriculture; and when this occurs, ordinary unemployment agencies would not meet the emergency. But our famine organization deals not only with the agriculturist and the agricultural labourer, but with the village artisan whose livelihood depends on the custom of the agriculturists. We not only provide employment for labourers thrown out of work, but for the small cultivator who has been deprived of the crops of the season; and so far as possible, we place him in a position by an extensive system of loans on specially easy terms and, if necessary, by other measures, to cultivate his fields when the famine season closes. The organization is thus in effect a famine prevention system designed to prevent shortage in the year following actual failure of the crops. In view of the fact that our industrial labour is almost entirely recruited from rural tracts, the only circumstance that is likely to overstock the industrial labour market at any time is the agricultural unemployment due to famine, and our machinery for the relief of famine thus largely helps to maintain the relatively favourable position in which industrial labour stands at present, and so far is in accordance with the policy indicated in the Convention. As we have indicated above, however, it is desirable to encourage the migration of agricultural labour from certain congested areas; and we have under consideration the desirability of creating regular public employment agencies in such cases. We have, moreover, no objection to associating these agencies, when created, with advisory bodies representative of employers and workers; and we are undertaking an examination of the possibility of collecting further information regarding unemployment. In the belief that the measures which, as explained above, we are either taking or propose to take, will constitute an effective compliance with the provisions of the Convention, we propose to recommend it to the Legislature for permission to ratify it."

The Government of India addressed local Governments and asked for their views on the following points arising out of the Draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the First International Labour Conference:—(i) Advisability of creating public employment agencies in congested areas to facilitate the migration of surplus labour to industrial areas where there is a shortage of labour. (ii) Advisability of utilizing public employment agencies in connection with recruitment for Assam. (iii) Advisability of establishing public employment agencies for the dissemination of information regarding employment during times of famine and scarcity to those in search of employment. (iv) Advisability of appointing committees representing employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of public employment agencies. (v) Advisability of abolishing or controlling employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit.

The replies of the local Governments indicated that in most provinces the demand for labour exceeded the supply, that, even in provinces from which there was a large migration of labour, no difficulty had been experienced in obtaining information with regard to the areas where labour was in demand, that the establishment of public employment agencies would serve no useful purpose, and (that such agencies might excite suspicion and be liable to be misunderstood by the people. With regard to the recruitment of labour for Assam, the local Governments concerned were agreed that any experiment on the lines suggested would be risky. On the question of the abolition of control of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit, the replies of the local Governments indicated that employment agencies of this character were practically unknown in India. In the circumstances, the Government of India decided to take no further action on the draft exist.

Recommendation concerning unemployment.

*The Growth of Middle-class Unemployment.*—In recent years unemployment among the educated middle classes has been assuming alarming proportions and has attracted widespread public attention. In January, 1926, a Resolution was passed by the Legislative Assembly in the following terms :—

" This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general, and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means ; and that the said committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible."

Similar Resolutions were also passed in some of the local Legislative Councils. The Government of India did not consider that the appointment of a Central Committee would serve any useful purpose, but in their circular letter No. L.1373, dated 26th May, 1926,\* they drew the attention of the local Governments to the gravity of the problem of middle-class unemployment in India. As a result of the Resolutions passed by the local Councils, committees were appointed by some of the local governments. The reports of most of these committees refer almost exclusively to middle-class unemployment, but the Punjab and the Bengal committees also dealt with general unemployment. The Punjab Committee came to the conclusion that " there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes " ; whilst the Bengal Committee observed as follows :—

" The labourer, if we may use the term, has not yet been divorced completely from the land, and he frequently possesses or has an interest in a small plot of land in his native place on the cultivation of which he can fall back in times of depression. Added to this, is the fact that industrial labour is still comparatively scarce in Bengal and in fact has to be imported from other provinces. The effect, therefore, of trade depressions on the industrial labourer in Bengal is so far very small."

*Further Consideration of the Question of the Establishment of Public Employment Agencies.*—In 1926, the International Labour Office, at the instance of the Committee of Experts appointed to examine the reports furnished by the States under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, made an enquiry from the Government of India as to whether " the recent industrial developments of India had not been such as to modify to some extent the situation which had led the Government of India in 1921 to decide in the negative the question of the establishment of employment exchanges." The local Governments were again addressed by the Government of India and they were specifically asked to furnish information as to the extent to which unemployment occurs sporadically among particular classes of workers or is a permanent feature of any of the industries of the province. The local Governments were unanimous in the view that there had been no change in the situation since 1921, and that the necessity for the establishment of public employment agencies had not yet arisen. The Governments of Burma and Assam pointed out that the problem with them was not one of unemployment but the shortage of labour. The Government of the United Provinces pointed out that " industry merely provides an outlet for the surplus agricultural population. It absorbs as much as it needs from the land, and in periods of trade depression returns to the land those whom it no longer requires." The Government of Bengal referred to the reduction in the total number of employees in the jute mills due to the change from the multiple to the single-shift system, and to the depression in the coal industry. In the former case it was reported that the workers were absorbed in other industries or returned to agriculture, whilst in the coal industry the absence of unemployment was explained by the fact that only a very small percentage of miners depend solely on mining for their livelihood. In Bombay, too, the continued depression in the textile industry had resulted in the return to the land of the surplus labour population. The seasonal factories in Bombay and the Central Provinces do not give rise to any unemployment, as the workers returned to their agricultural occupations during the slack season. The importance of the agricultural connection will be apparent from the fact that, even in an important and specialized industry like the steel industry in Jamshedpur the bulk of the workers returned to the land during the prolonged strike in 1928. In Madras the retrenchment in the railways led to a certain amount of unemployment, but the local Government did not consider that the volume of this unemployment was large enough to justify the establishment of public employment agencies. Recently the Commissioner of Labour for Madras tried the experiment of maintaining

a register of persons desiring industrial employment and another of employers looking for skilled labour. Applications were invited by advertisement in the leading papers but very few were received, and these were mostly from persons possessing few, if any, industrial qualifications.

#### Chapter V.—Housing.

*The problem of Industrial Housing.*—The conditions of housing and sanitation are largely responsible for the instability of Indian labour and its low efficiency. The housing conditions in an ordinary Indian village are far from satisfactory, but there is generally no overcrowding, and there are vast open spaces around. The strong sunshine in the daytime is nature's disinfectant, which saves the agricultural population to a large extent from the ravages of sickness and disease which, owing to the lack of proper sanitation, even now levy a heavy toll of human life in India. In the larger towns there is neither space nor sunshine between the buildings, and in the absence of adequate arrangements for sanitation, the home of the worker is apt to become a veritable death-trap from which it is only natural that he should endeavour to escape by returning whenever possible to his village. Overcrowding combined with the complete ignorance on the part of the workers of all ideas of sanitation makes the housing problem in India far more complicated than it is in the West. The conditions which prevail in various parts of the country are widely different. Where factories have been established at a distance from towns the workers are housed in surrounding villages in much the same way as agricultural labour. Here conditions approximate to those of ordinary village life, except that as a rule the small garden plot owned by villagers in many parts of India is absent. If necessary, the employer can acquire land without much difficulty, and erect dwellings which take the form of single-story lines, consisting of single-room units, with either a verandah or, in some cases, a small enclosed courtyard. The second stage of development, and consequently of congestion, is seen in cities such as Madras, Cawnpore, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, and in a very large proportion of the industrial areas round Calcutta. Here land is far cheaper than in Bombay or Calcutta, and accommodation usually consists of single-storey huts in groups known as *bustis*, erected by persons other than the owners of mills and rented by millhands on fairly reasonable terms. Housing conditions here are no longer as easy as in the villages, and require close supervision either by the millowners or by the local authority. In some cases, as at Ahmedabad and Cawnpore, the more enlightened factory owners have found it advisable to supply proper housing accommodation to the employees in the hope of commanding the "pick of the labour market."\* The accommodation provided is usually of the single-storey type, and is almost invariably in single-room units. Employers have been encouraged to provide accommodation for two reasons, first the relative cheapness of land as compared with Calcutta or Bombay, and secondly the fairly long distances between the mills, which prevents workmen accommodated in buildings belonging to one mill from working in another mill. The worst examples of congestion are to be found in parts of Calcutta and particularly in Bombay, where the evils of overcrowding and insanitary housing are to be seen in their extreme form.

*The evil effects of bad Housing in Bombay.*—Bombay affords a significant example of the evils which must inevitably arise if the problem of housing is not taken in hand during the earlier stages of industrial development. The extent of overcrowding in the mill area will be apparent from the fact that 97 per cent. of the working class families live in single rooms, and the average number of persons living in a single room is 4.03. These figures are in striking contrast with the figures for London, where only 6 per cent. of the total population live in one room tenements with an average of 1.92 persons per room.† Overcrowding in Bombay is greatly aggravated by the practice of sub-letting which is common among the industrial workers. According to the census of 1921 there were 3,125 one-room tenements in Bombay containing two families and more. Of these 1,955 contained two families, 658 three, 242 four, 136 five, 42 six, 34 seven and 58 eight families and over.

The importance of decent housing cannot be too strongly emphasized. "Good houses mean the possibility of home life, happiness and health; bad houses spell squalor, drink, disease, immorality and crime, and in the end demand hospitals, prisons and asylums in which we seek to hide away the human derelicts of society that are largely the results of society's own neglect."‡ The appalling conditions of life in the chawls make family life impossible, and have a very unsettling effect on the labour force in Bombay. Bad housing is undoubtedly one of the factors responsible

\* Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, paragraph 238.

† Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay, by G. Findlay Shirras, page 24.

‡ Quoted from "The Great Opportunity" in the Working Class Budgets, Bombay, page 25.

for industrial unrest. But the gravest and most striking evil is the heavy infant mortality in the slum areas of Bombay City. This is greatest in one-room tenements where, according to the census of 1921, it was as high as 828.5 per 1,000 registered births as against the average rate of 666.7 for Bombay and 178 for the whole Presidency. The heavy infant mortality is due to a great variety of causes such as early marriage, maternal ignorance, lack of medical care and nursing, habit of drugging the child with opium, prevalence of venereal disease, etc., but these causes operate throughout India and the exceptionally heavy death roll among infants in Bombay must be directly attributed to overcrowding and effective sanitation.\*

*Attempts to improve Housing conditions in Bombay.*—The first attempt to improve the housing conditions of the city was made after the great plague of 1896, when the heavy mortality and the great exodus which followed, paralysed the trade and industry of Bombay. The Bombay Improvement Trust was established in 1898 "for the work of making new streets, opening out crowded localities, reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the police."† Owing to its limited powers and funds, the want of co-operation with the Corporation and its inevitable unpopularity on account of the compulsory acquisition of property and demolition of buildings, the Improvement Trust had to content itself with "slum-patching," the development of a few building sites, the construction of a few *chawls* and the development of main thoroughfares. Still, it was able to do some useful work and provided 21,387 new tenements as against 24,428 tenements demolished. It constructed a number of broad thoroughfares which serve incidentally the purpose of main air channels for congested areas. The Municipality and the Port Trust also relieved, to some extent the congestion of the city by constructing a large number of quarters for their employees. But the population of Bombay was increasing so rapidly that the combined efforts of these bodies were unable to cope with the situation, particularly as very little was being done by the millowners for the housing of their employees. The Industrial Commission reviewed the position in 1918 and urged that, in addition to the scheme followed by the Improvement Trust, other measures should be adopted such as the refusal of permission, with a few exceptions, to fresh industrial concerns to be established, the setting up of a special area for industrial development, the removal of the existing railway workshops from the city, supply of housing accommodation to their employees by railways, Government departments and public bodies, improved communications with a view to creating industrial suburbs, and a definite programme of construction to be taken up by local authorities.‡ It was not, however, till the end of the war that a bold and comprehensive scheme was drawn up by the Government of Bombay under the personal inspiration of His Excellency Sir George Lloyd, for dealing with the problem. The Development Directorate was formed in November, 1920, to co-ordinate the activities of the various bodies. The programme of the Directorate was an ambitious one, and contemplated the construction of 625 *chawls* or 50,000 tenements for the working classes between 1921 and 1929. The cost was then estimated at 5.5 crores, and under the City of Bombay Municipal and Improvement Act, XX of 1920, a "town duty" of one rupee per bale of cotton was imposed on all cotton entering Bombay. This scheme was conceived during the boom period when labour conditions in Bombay were abnormal. By the end of December, 1927, the Directorate had constructed 207 *chawls* with 16,524 tenements, but only 123 *chawls* with 8,234 rooms were occupied.§ The failure of these newly constructed tenements to attract workers is attributed to the distance of the *chawls* from the mills, the absence of bazaar facilities, the cement construction, which makes the rooms warm in the hot weather and cold in the cold weather, and the high level of rents. The average economic rent works out to Rs. 16 per month per tenement, but the rents have now been reduced considerably, and vary from Rs. 5 per month at Worli to Rs. 7 at De Lisle Road.\*\* The Government of Bombay have also declared their willingness to lower the rents still further if whole *chawls* are taken up by large employers of labour. By 1927 only the B., B. and C.I. Railway had availed themselves of this offer and had rented five *chawls* at Worli for housing the employees of the loco-shops, at Parel. The Indian Postal and Telegraph Department have made several attempts to provide better housing for their postmen and other subordinate employees by hiring some of these *chawls*, but their efforts have been frustrated by the extreme reluctance of the staff to avail themselves of the accommodation offered. The annual loss incurred by the Directorate is estimated at Rs. 20 lakhs,

\* For further details regarding the housing conditions in Bombay, see Labour and Housing in Bombay, by Burnett-Hurst.

† Burnett-Hurst; Labour and Housing in Bombay, page 31.

‡ Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, paragraphs 240-251.

§ Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, for 1927, page 21.

\*\* Bombay Administration Report for 1926-27, page 227.

and the Government of Bombay have decided that, until the tenements now provided are fully occupied, no additional land is to be taken up for industrial housing. The Municipality, Improvement Trust and Port Trust are, however, still carrying on their programme of development.

*Housing facilities provided by Employers in Bombay.*—So far very little has been done by the millowners to provide housing accommodation for their employees. This is due to the difficulty of procuring land on moderate terms in the vicinity of the mills and the difficulty of ensuring that the tenements provided by a mill will continue to be occupied by its own employees. Further, the operatives themselves prefer to be housed in a building which is not owned by their employer; they want what has been described as a "strike-free" house, that is to say a house from which they are not likely to be ejected in the event of a strike. It is not therefore surprising that the millowners have not availed themselves of the offer of the Improvement Trust which would enable them to acquire chawls constructed by the Trust for their employees by annual payments in 50 years. In 1926 an enquiry was made by the Government of India through local governments as to the extent of the housing accommodation provided by employers. Out of the 76 textile mills in Bombay, which furnished information for the purposes of this enquiry, only 28 mills reported that housing accommodation had been provided for their workers. Seven out of the 28 mills provided residential accommodation only for their gatekeepers and night watchmen. No rent was charged, but the total number accommodated was only 147. Twenty-two mills provided partial housing for their operatives. The total number of employees working in these mills was 64,720, but the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided by the mills was only 12,149. Full economic rent was charged in two cases, and one mill let their rooms partly at a favourable and partly at the full economic rent. Fifteen mills charged favourable rent and four mills gave some tenements free and let the remainder at rents which were less than the economic rent. Sixteen mills supplied information with regard to the percentages of the rents charged to economic rents. In three cases 30 to 40 per cent. was charged, in 9 cases 40 to 50 per cent., in 3 cases 50 to 75 per cent., and in one case above 75 per cent.

*Housing in other industrial centres in Bombay Presidency.*—Ahmedabad and Sholapur are the other two important centres of the cotton mill industry in the Bombay Presidency. In the matter of industrial housing both these centres are a distinct improvement on Bombay, although cases of overcrowding are by no means rare. In Ahmedabad the total number of cotton mills is 77, employing about 60,000 workmen, but only 37 mills provide housing accommodation for their employees. Out of these, two mills give free accommodation to their gatekeepers and night watchmen. The number of persons taking advantage of the housing provided is about 16 per cent. of the total number employed by these mills. The majority of the workers live in tenements owned or taken on lease by private landlords, and some of them live in dwellings built by themselves on sites for which they pay rents. Nearly 73 per cent. of the working class families live in one-room tenements. This percentage compares favourably with that of Bombay City (97), but very unfavourably with the percentage for Sholapur, where it is only 33. The monthly rent paid by the majority of employees varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6.\* The continued depression in the cotton mill industry has hindered the activities of the employers in the direction of providing improved housing for their employees, but it was reported in 1928 that two mills had undertaken the construction of 450 additional tenements of a suitable type † for their workpeople.

The housing conditions of workers in Sholapur are in many ways superior to those of workers in Bombay and Ahmedabad. There is less congestion and the rents charged are also very much lower. The majority of the operatives live in two and three-room tenements. All the five textile mills in Sholapur city provide housing for their employees, but only about 12 per cent. of the employees are housed in the buildings provided by the mills.‡

*Housing in Bengal (excluding coal mines).*—The industries of Bengal centre round Calcutta in the adjacent districts of Hooghly, Howrah and the 24-Parganas. The factories in this area employ about 483,000 persons, or about 86 per cent. of the total factory population of Bengal. Jute is the most important industry of Bengal, employing 326,000 persons, or nearly 58 per cent. of the total factory population of the province. The jute mills near Calcutta depend almost entirely on imported labour,

\* Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1928, pages 17-19..

† Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, for 1927, page 20.

‡ For further details regarding the housing conditions in Sholapur, see pages 9-24 of the Report of an Enquiry into family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Sholapur City, 1928.



and the management have for some time realized the importance of proper housing for the stability of their labour force. The mills are situated in a semi-rural area round Calcutta, and unless housing is provided by the management, the employees have to fall back upon the very unsatisfactory accommodation available in the hastily constructed *bustis* round the mills. In some of the quarters which were built in the early days of the industry, the ventilation is unsatisfactory, but the newer dwellings are built on comparatively modern lines. In the congested areas the activities of the jute mills in the matter of housing have been considerably hampered by the difficulty of acquiring land.\*

In 1926 an enquiry was made through the local Government as to the extent of the housing accommodation provided by employers in the jute and other industries. The information which was then obtained from the employers is summarized in the following table.†

It will be observed that more than a third of the employees in jute mills and presses live in quarters provided by the employer. The majority of the concerns charge a concessional rent, but in many cases no charge is made for the accommodation provided. In very few cases are the workers charged the full economic rent. The cotton mills also provide houses for over 45 per cent. of their employees either rent free or on nominal rent. Shipbuilding and general engineering works are mostly situated in or close to Calcutta, and find it difficult to provide houses for their employees owing to the high cost of acquiring land.

*Jamshedpur.*—Jamshedpur represents one of the finest attempts made by an industrial concern for the housing of its employees. The town is the creation of the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Limited, the company owning the land on which it is built. The entire area has been laid out as a model city with up-to-date sanitary, lighting and water arrangements. In 1926 the town had 275 bungalows and 3,988 *pucca* quarters to house the European and Indian employees. Approximately 10,000 out of a total of 30,000 employees of the Company live in these quarters. In some cases free quarters are provided, but generally a concessional rent is charged, which is 30 to 60 per cent. below the full economic rent. The company encourages the building by its employees of their own houses and advances money to them up to a maximum of two-thirds of the cost of building the house. Interest at the rate of 3 per cent. is charged on the loan which is repayable in easy instalments. At the close of the year 1926, the total number of houses built by the employees in the company's area was about 3,000, out of which 800 houses were built on the loan system; the total amount advanced by the Company by the end of that period exceeded a lakh and a quarter rupees.

*Cawnpore.*—At the close of the year 1927 there were 65 factories in Cawnpore employing over 32,500 persons. Of these, 10 were cotton mills employing nearly 19,000 persons. The British India Corporation, which controls five large mills in Cawnpore employing about 9,000 persons, has set a fine example to other employers of labour in the matter of housing, and other welfare work. It has provided suitable housing accommodation for about 5,800 of its employees and their families. The rent charged is only nominal, being approximately 6 per cent. of the economic rent. The Corporation controls two important settlements, one of which is known as Allanganj, and the other as McRobertganj. The layout and the arrangements for living in both these settlements, particularly the latter, are excellent. The houses are all grouped round central courtyards; each house has in addition a little courtyard of its own at the back. The lanes between the houses are rendered shady and attractive by trees and a large playground has been provided for the workers. The main feature of these settlements is that life in them approximates as nearly as possible to the life in a village to which the workers are accustomed. Proper attention is also paid to sanitation and the Corporation maintains at its own expense an adequate conservancy staff and also a few gardeners. Both the settlements are under the management of a welfare superintendent who has done much to bring about a sense of corporate life. A Panchayat has been set up to discuss all matters connected with the settlement.‡

Apart from the activities of the British India Corporation no housing accommodation is provided by employers except on a very small scale. The extent of the congestion in Cawnpore will be apparent from the fact that 64 per cent. of the population live in one-room tenements and the average number of persons per room in these tenements is 3.2. It is not, therefore, surprising that the infant

\* In this connection, see the recommendation of the Indian Industrial Commission in paragraph 239 of its Report with regard to the compulsory acquisition of land for housing purposes.

† Not reproduced. An abstract of the information supplied in respect of Bengal will be found in the Memorandum of the Government of Bengal.

‡ Labour in Indian Industries, by Miss Broughton, page 139.

mortality of Cawnpore is almost as high as that of Bombay. A scheme for the provision of housing accommodation for 20,000 employees at Cawnpore was recently under consideration of the representatives of the mills, the Improvement Trust, the Municipal Board, and the Upper India Chamber of Commerce. Under this scheme the Improvement Trust is to build a suitable number of quarters on land to be provided by the trust as cheaply as possible; the Municipal Board is to undertake the layout of roads and to provide water, lighting and drainage, while the millowners are to purchase the houses by a series of equated annual payments extending over a number of years.\* The scheme, if carried out, would not only improve the existing congestion in Cawnpore city, but would also ensure a more contented and healthy factory population.

*Nagpur.*—There were 66 factories in Nagpur at the close of the year 1927, employing over 15,500 persons. Of these 41 are seasonal factories (cotton ginning and baling presses) employing about 3,000 persons. Nagpur is an important centre of the textile industry in India and there are five cotton mills employing over 10,000 persons. Most of the larger perennial factories provide suitable houses for their operatives, but the seasonal factories confine their attention to the mechanical staff and leave the rest of their operatives to shift for themselves. The activities of the Model Mills and the Empress Mills, Nagpur, deserve special mention. The former has constructed 13 chawls containing 600 rooms built on up-to-date sanitary principles. In these buildings about 800, or a little over 25 per cent., of the employees of the mill are housed at a nominal rent of Re. 1 per room. The Empress Mills have recently acquired a large piece of land measuring about 209 acres on a twenty-seven years' lease for the establishment of a settlement for their workpeople. Model houses and quarters for the welfare staff have been built, and the management propose to continue their building programme according to the demand.

*Madras.*—The total number of factories in Madras at the close of the year 1927 was 118, employing about 25,500 persons. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, employing over 9,000 persons, are the only mills which provide housing accommodation for their employees on any large scale. Houses are provided in three mill villages for the workers in this mill earning less than Rs. 30 a month. The total number of workmen residing in these two villages is about 460, and the rent charged is about 25 per cent. of the full economic rent. Recently the management have obtained sites for two more settlements.

*Rangoon.*—In 1927 there were 167 factories in Rangoon employing over 34,000 persons. Of these 48 were rice mills employing over 11,000 persons, and 33 sawmills, employing nearly 7,000 persons. In the large mills and factories some sort of housing is provided for the majority of workers. The accommodation provided is usually in the form of barracks, which are suitable only for single men. In most of the rice mills married workers are employed, but in practically all of them married quarters are not provided. These families usually obtain quarters in buildings registered in the municipal books as lodging-houses. More than one family is often housed in a single room and improvised gunny, plank, or mat partitions are erected to secure a certain amount of privacy. The officer-in-charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Burma, states in his report† that "it is not unusual to find a tenement room 12½ ft. by 40 ft. occupied by as many as forty or fifty people."

*Housing arrangements in the Coalfields (Bengal and Bihar and Orissa).*—There are three classes of workers employed in the coalfields. The first class consists of agriculturists who belong to the neighbouring villages within a radius of five to eight miles of the mine in which they work; they live in their own home in the village and come daily to the mine when they have no field work to do. The second class consists of workers who come from greater distances. They work in the coal mines only for a portion of the year, and return to their villages during the cultivating and harvesting seasons. The third class consists of the permanently settled labourers who remain on a particular colliery all their lives. There is no necessity to provide housing accommodation for the workers belonging to the first class, and the third class, consisting of permanently settled labourers, have, in most cases, been assisted to build their own houses on the collieries. The problem of housing arises only in connection with the second class of labourers, and is particularly acute during the busy season (November to May).

Most of the workers in the Jharia coalfield belong to the second of the three categories mentioned above, and it is for this reason that the housing problem soon attracted the attention of the local government. In 1917, as the result of a resolution passed by the Legislative Council, the Government of Bihar and Orissa appointed

\* Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, United Provinces, for 1927, pages 10-11.

† of an Enquiry into the Standard and Cost of Living of Working classes.

... I. T. Bennison. B.A., I.C.S., pages 89-90.

a committee to enquire into the housing conditions of labour in the coalfields of that province. The committee\* found that there was a real scarcity of accommodation throughout the Jharia coalfield in the busy season, and that on certain collieries there was overcrowding all the year round. In some cases the companies had not acquired surface rights, and it was not easy to find a suitable site for constructing houses on or near the colliery as the surface was congested and broken up by goafing. The sites chosen for the houses (known as dhauras) were in many cases unsatisfactory from the sanitary point of view; the layout and the drainage was bad; in some cases the floors of the rooms were not more than 5 ft. square, and the walls only 3 ft. or 4 ft. high; no doors were provided; the houses were inadequately ventilated, and there were no arrangements for the disposal of night soil or kitchen refuse. The committee recommended that Section 50 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act should be amended so as to enable mineowners to acquire surface rights for colliery purposes on payment of a reasonable sum, and that provision should be made in the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act (then under preparation) conferring power on the Mines Board of Health to frame bye-laws prescribing the measures to be taken for the provision of decent, comfortable and sanitary housing for the workers on the coalfields. A Bill to give effect to the first recommendation was introduced in the local Council but has not yet been passed. The second recommendation has been given effect to and the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act (IV of 1920) requires every owner of a mine within a mining settlement to provide for labourers employed in the mine such house accommodation, water supply and sanitary arrangements as the Mines Board of Health may, by bye-law, require.† The bye-laws framed by the Jharia Mines Board of Health, which came into force in March, 1922, provide for the licensing of all houses in the Jharia coalfield and prescribe the minimum standards for houses constructed after the coming into force of the bye-laws. In the event of the refusal of the Board to grant a licence a house must either be demolished or reconstructed so as to conform to the prescribed standard. To prevent overcrowding the bye-laws also provide that no more persons shall be accommodated in any room than will allow to each adult the minimum air and floor spaces laid down in the bye-laws. The colliery labourer is also liable to a fine if he "causes any room provided for his habitation to cease to meet the requirements laid down in the bye-laws by blocking the ventilation holes or by closing in the verandah or by any other means whatsoever."‡ He is also prevented from building a cattleshed or a pigsty within 50 ft. of a room provided for the habitation of colliery labourers or within 50 ft. of a well or tank used for domestic purposes. Further, the Board is empowered to proceed against any person who causes overcrowding by occupying a room which has not been assigned to him by the owner, agent, or manager of a mine. The Board is thus vested with adequate control over the housing conditions in the Jharia coalfield.

The question of housing in the Raniganj coalfield in Bengal does not present the same difficulty as in the Jharia coalfield. Here the labourers in most cases come from the neighbouring villages and prefer to return to their homes for the night. A number of labourers are also permanently settled in the coalfield, but they have either been provided with accommodation or have been assisted to construct their own houses on the coalfield. The Raniganj area is not so congested as Jharia, and the provision of houses for the permanently settled labour force does not, therefore, give rise to any great difficulty. In 1926, 104 out of a total of 189 coal mines in Bengal reported that housing accommodation was being provided free of rent for over 55 per cent. of their miners. Some of the houses are reported to be badly ventilated, but the houses constructed by the workers themselves and particularly by the Santals are much more satisfactory. The Bengal Mining Settlements Act (II of 1912) does not contain any provision with regard to the housing of miners corresponding to Section 16 of the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act. In 1927 a Bill was introduced in the local Council to amend and consolidate the law relating to the control and sanitation of mining settlements in Bengal, which contained a similar provision, but this Bill has not yet passed into law.

*Housing in the Plantations.*—In the Assam tea gardens houses are provided for imported labourers on all the estates. There is considerable diversity in the systems of housing on tea estates, but, broadly speaking, there are two systems, the system of barrack lines and that of the busti, or small village.§ Barrack lines are to be found where the location of a large labour force in a small area is more or less obligatory, but when more space is available the labourers live in bustis, or groups of houses constituting a scattered hamlet or village. Barrack lines, especially in the

\* Report on the Housing of Colliery Labourers in Bihar and Orissa, 1917.

† Section 16 of the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act, 1920.

‡ Bye-law 33 made by the Jharia Mines Board of Health.

§ Report of the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22, paragraph 56.

Assam Valley, are usually substantial structures, often having iron roofs and brick walls. Most labourers, particularly those belonging to aboriginal races, prefer to live in detached houses built by themselves and like to live with people of their own race or community.

In the tea gardens of the Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling districts of Bengal houses are also provided free of rent by practically every estate. In the tea and coffee plantations of Southern India housing accommodation is provided for the labourer except those belonging to the jungle tribes, in brick, stone or laterite building roofed with tiles or iron. In the rubber plantations in Malabar very few labourers live on the estate. As they are recruited locally, they prefer to return each day to their own villages.

### Chapter VI.—Health.

*The Health Problem and its difficulties.*—The change from a rural to an industrial environment has undoubtedly an adverse effect on the health of the Indian worker and renders him an easier victim to sickness and disease. This was pointed out forcibly by Major F. Norman White, the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, in the following extract from a note\* written by him for the Indian Industrial Commission in 1918 :—

" Living an outdoor life, engaged in agricultural pursuits, the ryot is able to put up with the considerable degree of parasitic infestation so commonly seen ; malaria and hookworm infection, for example, is not incompatible with a fair output of agricultural work in such circumstances. Transference to large industrial centres however, involves a change of environment which, apart from other considerations connotes increased liability to disease. A more confined atmosphere, crowded insanitary dwellings, lack of outdoor recreation are certain to exercise a baneful influence and render the factory employee more liable to fresh infections and to upset the compromise that his body has been able to effect with the parasites that it harbours. Had the large employer of labour a plentiful supply of really healthy material to start with he would still be under an obligation to secure for his operatives an environment above reproach ; how much greater is the present need for hygienic environment, when in most cases cure has to precede the conservation of health ? "

The Indian Industrial Commission emphasised the importance of the problem of the health of workers in Indian industries and remarked that " no industrial edifice can be permanent which is built on such unsound foundations as those afforded by Indian labour under its present conditions."† The problem does not, however admit of any easy solution. In the first place, the Indian worker clings to his habits of the village, and it is exceedingly difficult to teach him to observe the elementary principles of sanitation which are so necessary in a congested area. The incentive for the provision of up-to-date sanitary arrangements does not also exist, because the employer is by no means certain that the expenditure on them will result in his premises being kept clean by his employees. In the second place the migratory character of Indian labour makes it very difficult to keep any satisfactory record of the health of the worker. When illness or disease makes further labour impossible the Indian operative creeps back to his village and is lost to observation. Statistics dealing with the health of industrial workers are not, therefore, available, and the problem of the health of the worker in Indian industries is merged in the larger problem of public health.

*Sanitation and Health in Factories.*—The provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to sanitation and health are contained in Sections 9-14 and 19-A, which are supplemented by the rules framed by local governments and administration under Section 37 of the Act. The provisions contained in these rules are, briefly, as follows :—

In every factory all the inside walls of the rooms (except such rooms as are used only for the storage of articles or for the manufacture of gas, chemicals, cement, or for pressing forage ; engineering workshops or foundries in which the prescribed air space is provided for each person employed ; walls and roofs made of galvanised iron tiles or glazed bricks ; walls in oil mills below a height of 5 ft. from the ground ; factories or parts thereof exempted by the local government from the requirements of Section 9 (a) of the Act) and all the ceilings and tops of such rooms and all the passages and staircases shall be limewashed at stated intervals. Beams, doors, rafters and other woodwork shall either be limewashed once a year or painted or varnished once in every seven years. No rubbish or filth shall be allowed to accumulate or remain in such a position that effluvia therefrom can arise within a factory.

\* Appendix L. to the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, page 460.

† Paragraph 236 of the Report.

All drains shall be properly constructed and regularly flushed. The compound surrounding a factory shall be kept in a clean condition. There shall be provided a floor area of at least 36 square feet and a breathing space of at least 500 cubic feet (700 cubic feet in rooms where mechanical or electrical power is used) for each person employed. Every part of a factory where persons are employed shall be adequately ventilated, and all practical measures shall be taken to protect the workers against the inhalation of any noxious gas, dust or other impurity. Except factories which are provided with septic tanks or with water-flushed latrines and except such factories as are specially exempted by the inspector, every factory shall be provided with latrine accommodation according to a prescribed scale in a place detached from other buildings, and the latrines and urinals shall be kept in a clean and sanitary condition. Separate latrines shall be provided for female workers. In every factory an adequate supply of water fit for drinking shall be provided daily free of cost. Proper arrangements shall be made for draining and maintaining in a clean condition the area round the place where the drinking water is distributed. In Bengal, where the installation of septic tank latrines has made much progress, elaborate rules have been framed regarding their construction and maintenance.

From the annual provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act it appears that the inspectors of factories are insisting on as high a standard of sanitation as is possible in the varying circumstances. The rules framed by local governments are being generally observed and the improvements suggested by the inspectors are also being given effect to by the factory owners. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal,\* has, however, pointed out that progress in this direction must of necessity be slow as the efficacy of the improvements is, to a large extent, dependent on the efficiency of the municipality. Latrines sanctioned by municipalities as meeting their requirements and rules do not always comply with the standard design of the Bengal Factory Inspection Department, and in some cases the principles in the latrine design of the two authorities are diametrically opposed to each other. Hand service latrines are generally not of much utility in congested areas, and satisfactory progress has been made in the industrial areas around Calcutta in the provision of septic tank latrines. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, considers that in such areas the installation of septic tank latrines should in the absence of a sewerage system be made compulsory for all factories having a large number of employees. In Bombay, the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories also refers to the lack of the necessary municipal facilities and to the ignorance and indifference on the part of the operatives, which makes it difficult to maintain decent sanitary conditions in factories. In the Punjab report it is stated that, although the latrine accommodation provided by the factories was adequate, they were seldom utilized by the operatives, particularly when the factories are situated near open fields. As regards the health of the operatives the information contained in the provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act is very scanty, and in the absence of reliable statistics any generalisation would be risky.

*Ventilation and Humidification in Cotton Mills.*—The question of ventilation and humidification presents special difficulties in cotton mills in which a humid atmosphere is required for the spinning and weaving of cotton. To avoid breakage of thread and loss of material, artificial humidification of factories is necessary, particularly in the hot season. Such humidification, especially when effected by the letting in of steam when the temperature of the factory is high, produces very trying conditions of work which affect the efficiency and probably also the health of the operatives. The question of humidification is one which has for many years engaged the attention of Government, and its importance was emphasised both by the Textile Factories Labour Committee in 1907 and the Factory Labour Commission in 1908. In 1911 a Factory Ventilation Committee was appointed by the Government of Bombay, but its terms of reference referred chiefly to the chemical purity of the atmosphere, whereas the report of a similar enquiry in England stressed the importance of humidity and discountenanced the importance of chemical purity of the atmosphere in factories. Progress was thus rendered impossible owing to the lack of scientific data relating to health and the effects of work in hot and moist atmospheres. Soon after the war the Government of India instituted a special technical enquiry on the subject, which was entrusted to Mr. T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., an expert who was brought out from England in June, 1921. The objects of this enquiry were—

- (1) To obtain accurate observations regarding the methods of humidification and ventilation employed in cotton mills and their effect on working conditions; and
- (2) to evolve recommendations designed to effect a marked amelioration in conditions without serious detriment to the industry."

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\* Annual Report for the year 1927, pages 6-7.

The enquiry continued till December, 1922, and extended to all important centres in which cotton manufacture was being carried on. In the same year, but before the enquiry was completed, an amendment was made in the Indian Factories Act which provided that in any factory "the atmosphere shall not be rendered so humid by artificial means as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein," and local governments were empowered to prescribe by rules the standards of artificial humidification and the methods to be adopted to secure their observance. Mr. Maloney's report gave for the first time a detailed and accurate survey of the conditions in all the important centres and the Government of India in their letter\* No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924, addressed the local governments and administrations concerned and invited their views on recommendations made in this report. The replies received indicated complete unanimity in regard to the suggestion that the use of steam should be prohibited when the temperature in a department of a factory exceeded 85° F. The importance of effecting improvements in the conditions of work was also generally recognized, but there was in many quarters some reluctance to adopt any definite standards of humidification as suggested by Mr. Maloney without further investigation. In addressing the local governments again on the subject in December, 1925,\* the Government of India suggested that a rule should be framed by local Governments under the Factories Act prohibiting the use of live steam at temperatures beyond 85° F. Such a rule has now been issued in Bengal, Madras, the United Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and in Ajmer-Merwara. In Delhi it is expected that the rule will be issued shortly, but the Government of Bombay, which is the only other province concerned with the question of humidification in cotton factories, has not issued any such rule, as it considers that it would be *ultra vires* of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act. Section 9 (d) of the Act prohibits artificial humidification only when it is injurious to the health of the operatives, and the local government holds the view that it has not yet been established beyond doubt that the use of steam at high temperatures is injurious to the health of the operatives. The local government is, however, in favour of such a rule, and has accordingly suggested an amendment of the Act to get over this technical difficulty. It appears, however, from the reports of the inspectors of factories that the millowners in the Presidency are themselves discontinuing the practice of using steam for the purpose of humidification when the temperature is above 85° F.

As regards the fixing of definite standards of ventilation and humidification, the Government of India agreed to the suggestion that further enquiries and experiments should be made before this is attempted. But they pointed out to local governments that in their opinion the maintenance of humidity registers in the more important mills would be essential for the purposes of this enquiry, and that in most cases it would be necessary to introduce intermediate standards, as recommended by Mr. Maloney, before final standards can suitably be prescribed. The local governments concerned were asked to report the results of their investigations and their final conclusions. Rules were accordingly framed by local governments requiring the millowners to maintain hygrometers of a pattern to be approved by the inspector in all departments of cotton mills where artificial humidification is used. The latter were also required to record the wet and dry bulb temperatures thrice daily and to take daily readings of the kata-thermometer. Owing to the difficulty experienced by the mills in securing kata-thermometers and hygrometers the investigation was delayed, but with the exception of Bengal† the reports have now been received and the conclusions of the local governments are summarized below :—

(i) *Punjab, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara.*—The experiments were conducted from November, 1927, till March, 1928, in the Punjab and from November, 1927, till July, 1928, in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. The observations in the Punjab were confined to two mills only, one of which worked intermittently while the other stopped work in March. In Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara observations were recorded in eleven mills. The conclusions reached by the local government and the two administrations are as follows :—

(a) The proposal that the cooling power as measured by the kata-thermometer should be adopted as the most satisfactory basis for the ultimate control of the humidification and ventilation of cotton mills does not seem to be open to question.

(b) The standard suggested by Mr. Maloney in respect of the maintenance of the kata cooling power of eleven millicalories per square centimetre per second is suitable and is just sufficient to prevent visible perspiration of the workers employed on heavy manual labour in the textile mills, particularly throughout the summer and monsoon months. This standard can be achieved by an acceleration of the air circulation in the department.

\* Appendix III.

† The Bengal Report is being printed and it is hoped will be received shortly.

(c) The provisional rules in regard to the enforcement of the above standard may be tried as an experiment for a period of one year before they are finally adopted.

(d) The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney in draft rules 1 and 2 on pages 87 and 88 of his Report may be adopted. Rules under the Factory Act prescribing the standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have been issued in the Punjab and Ajmer-Merwara and are about to issue in Delhi.

(ii) *Central Provinces and Berar*.—The observations in this province were made from July, 1927, till June, 1928. The conclusions reached by the local government are as follows :—

(a) The standard determined by the kata-thermometer is not satisfactory in this province, as the basis for the ultimate control of humidification and ventilation in cotton mills. In the first place, the instrument requires greater care and delicacy in handling than is likely to be met with in many mills if accurate readings are to be obtained. Secondly, in the Central Provinces and Berar the climatic conditions are so variable that it would be impossible to fix a standard based on this method. In June the records show a figure as low as 6.1 and the highest did not exceed 9.8 as against the minimum of 11 suggested by Mr. Maloney, in spite of every endeavour being made to effect frequent changes of air. The climate of the province is dry; the shade temperature is often 116° F., and the natural humidity 25 per cent. Humidification by artificial means is accordingly necessary in all departments of cotton mills except during the rains. The standard suggested by Mr. Maloney, although a low one can never be maintained continuously during the months from April to July.

(b) If any standard is to be adopted it should only be made applicable to new buildings.

(c) The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney in draft rules 1 and 2 on pages 87-88 of his report may be tried tentatively for a period of two years.

(iii) *United Provinces*.—Here, too, owing to the very high shade temperature during summer the minimum standard of 11 millicalories suggested by Mr. Maloney has not been attained in most of the mills, particularly in the weaving sheds. The Chief Inspector of Factories considers that the only way in which this standard can be attained is by the installation of a central cooling and humidifying system capable of renewing the air in the various departments eight to ten times in an hour. The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have, however, already been enforced in this province.

(iv) *Madras*.—There are six cotton mills in the Presidency, three of which are situated in Madras city. The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have been brought into force by the local government and it is reported that five out of the six mills have complied with these standards. In the case of the sixth mill, the Chief Inspector of Factories is of opinion that the contravention can be rectified by slightly increasing the ventilation.

(v) *Bombay*.—An interesting report on temperature, ventilation and humidification with special reference to wet kata-thermometer cooling powers was published by the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, in 1928. The local government have issued rules prescribing the intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney. The results of their investigations showed that, apart from Ahmedabad, the mills generally did not exceed the permitted humidity to any great extent. The mills in Ahmedabad exceeded the permitted humidity on a large number of occasions in 1927, but further enquiry in 1928 showed that considerable progress had been made in complying with the schedule, particularly in the carding and spinning departments. Progress was also made in the weaving departments, but it was clear that the schedule could not easily be complied with and that some relaxation would be necessary in Ahmedabad. The climatic conditions of Sholapur are about the same as in Ahmedabad, but humidity is forced to a much greater extent in Ahmedabad than Sholapur, owing to the fact that many mills in the former centre heavily size the yarn and thus require more humidity for weaving processes. Wet kata readings in a large number of mills in Ahmedabad are very much lower in the hot weather than the minimum of 11 suggested by Mr. Maloney. Fortunately, a large number of weaving mills in Ahmedabad have either installed a special ventilating, cooling and humidifying plant or else have improved the "gutter" system of humidification which is installed in several of them. It is reported, however, that a number of mills are reluctant to effect improvements unless they are compelled to do so by legislation.

The Government of Bombay have made the suggestion that the Indian Factories Act should be amended so as to enable the local government to prescribe a standard of humidity, and the methods to be adopted to secure its observance, while inspectors

should be authorized to grant exemption from the standard in any department if ventilation is adopted so that a reasonable cooling power is maintained. The local government further suggests that in cotton weaving factories of the ordinary shed or the saw-tooth type, in which reasonable cooling powers are not maintained, inspectors should be granted powers, subject to appeal, to order measures for the reduction of temperature by means other than the provision of cooling combined with ventilation when the outside shade temperature exceeds a temperature to be prescribed by the local government. The problem of humidification affects the Bombay Presidency more than any other province in India, but it is also in this Presidency that the progress has been most marked. The extent of this progress and the good results achieved will be apparent from the following extract from the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for 1927 :—

“ During the year a greater advance in the provision of comfortable working conditions in textile factories has been made than in any previous year in the history of the department. Particularly has this been the case in Ahmedabad, where, in the weaving department of mills, working conditions have been very trying. It is hoped that by the end of the present year nine mills there will have installed special humidifying, cooling and ventilating plants in their weaving sheds and three in their spinning departments. In addition, 14 other weaving sheds will have improved their gutter systems with increased ventilation. The new mills being erected in Ahmedabad will be satisfactorily ventilated, cooled and humidified on modern lines. By the end of this year, 33 mills will have either more efficient plant than formerly, or have experimental plant under test. At last, Ahmedabad has generally recognized the need of efficient ventilating and cooling arrangements to neutralize the trying climatic conditions of that centre which result in unduly high temperatures and low cooling powers in the departments. It is thought that the agents in Ahmedabad now realize that improvements are necessary to secure a more contented labour force and it seems to have been abundantly demonstrated that an outlay on efficient ventilation, combined with cooling, is reflected in increased production. In this connection it is worth recording that in one weaving shed an increased production of 4.6 per cent. was solely attributed to the improvement in working conditions consequent on the improvement in the ventilating arrangements. The agent reported that whereas in one of his sheds the production was constantly lower than in the other, it has, since the installation of the ventilating and cooling plant, been consistently higher. A second mill reported an increase of practically 9 per cent. in the weaving production after a similar installation. A third agent has been so impressed with the results obtained in his weaving shed by increased production which benefits him and his employees alike, that he is contemplating ventilating and cooling his spinning departments on modern lines. The writer was considerably impressed with the change in a number of Ahmedabad mills effected by the adoption of decent ventilating and cooling systems. The usual practice of slacking for several hours of the day has been almost stopped. Operatives pay much closer attention to work, earn more, and are certainly more contented.

“ The mills in Sholapur have installed several special ventilating, cooling and humidifying plants that have almost revolutionized the working conditions from the point of view of comfort. Plants suitable for the hot and dry climates of Ahmedabad and Sholapur will not be so effective in Bombay. Two mills have, however, recently adopted somewhat similar systems. It is hoped to effect material improvements in weaving sheds in Bombay by means of air movement created by fans attached to looms, and several managers are experimenting with these.”

*Control of Temperature in Factories.*—Connected with the question of ventilation and humidification is the question of the control of excessive temperatures in factories. Mr. Maloney, in his report on Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills, suggested\* certain inexpensive methods (e.g., whitewashing and roof spraying, etc.) for the reduction of excessive temperatures in factories, and in 1924 the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, speaking on behalf of the Government of Bengal at a conference convened by the Government of India to review the working of the Indian Factories Act, as amended in 1922, made the suggestion that a clause should be inserted in the Act on the lines of Section 6 of the British Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, giving the inspector the power to control temperature in factories. This proposal, which was similar to the one made by Mr. Maloney in his report, was accepted by the Government of India, and in the Bill further to amend the Indian Factories Act, which was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in September, 1925, a clause was inserted for the addition of the following section after Section 9 of the Act :—

“ 9A. (1) In every factory a reasonable temperature shall be maintained ; (2) in the case of any factory in which, in the opinion of the inspector, a reasonable temperature is not maintained, the inspector may serve on the manager of the factory

\* Section 27 of the Report.



an order in writing specifying the measures which he considers necessary to maintain a reasonable temperature, and requiring him to carry them out before a specified date."

The Bill was circulated for opinion and, though local governments were all agreed as to the desirability of the control of temperature in factories, there was considerable difference of opinion as to the most suitable method of exercising this control. It was pointed out that the reduction of excessive temperatures in the hot weather would not be an easy matter and that there are obvious dangers in leaving it to inspectors to decide what constitutes a reasonable temperature. The Select Committee to which the Bill was referred, decided by a majority to eliminate this clause as it was of opinion that "a provision of this kind or even a provision which would enable the local government by rules to lay down standards of temperatures suitable for various localities and various classes of factories would, until technical investigation and research in regard to this very difficult problem has been completed on a far more thorough scale than heretofore, impose a real burden upon employers with only a problematical advantage to the employee." When the Bill as amended by the Select Committee came up for consideration in the Legislative Assembly, Mr. Joshi moved an amendment for the restoration of the clause excised by the majority of the Select Committee. This amendment was defeated, but it was clear from the discussion that a number of members considered that the Factories Act should contain some provision enabling control to be exercised over temperatures in factories. The Government of India were unable to support Mr. Joshi's amendment because they recognized the force of the criticisms directed against the original clause which was deleted by the Select Committee, but they gave an assurance that the proposal would again be brought up for discussion at the next Session of the Assembly. A second Bill was accordingly prepared in which the Government of India put forward a different proposal. They now proposed to add the following clause after Clause (d) of Section 9 of the Indian Factories Act:—"(e) The temperature in any part in which any manufacturing process is being carried on shall not be such as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein."

It was also proposed to vest local governments with powers to prescribe standards of temperature. Thus it was now proposed that two criteria should be laid down for the determination of excessive temperature in factories, viz. :—(i) The temperature must not exceed certain prescribed standards; and (ii) it must not be injurious to the health of the employees.

The Bill was introduced in the Autumn Session of the Legislative Assembly in 1926 and circulated for opinion, but it lapsed in the same year with the dissolution of the Assembly. In circulating the Bill for opinion, the Government of India pointed out that the measure proposed was of "a tentative nature" which was "put forward as a basis for discussion." An alternative scheme was also discussed in accordance with which inspectors of factories would be required by law to make recommendations to the local government for remedial measures in respect of such premises in which the temperature in their opinion was likely to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein. The local government could, if they accepted the recommendation, authorize the inspector to issue a provisional order calling on the manager of a factory to carry out before a specified date any measures (e.g., roof spraying, whitewashing, etc.) specified in the order and calculated to reduce the temperature in a factory or a part of a factory, or to state any objections which he may have to the confirmation of the order. In the absence of any valid objections, the order could be made final with the approval of the local government. The alternative scheme referred to above met with little support and objections were also raised to the proposals which were embodied in the Bill. It was pointed out that suitable standards of temperature could only be prescribed after a careful and thorough examination by experts of the whole question of temperatures in factories. Some of the replies indicated that, owing to the varying climatic conditions from place to place and from season to season, to the varying nature of the processes, and to the varying character of the buildings in which factory work is carried on, it would be impossible, without a very general dislocation of industry, to enforce anything in the nature of a "standard of temperature." The Governments of Burma and Bengal suggested that it would be more feasible to lay down standards of cooling power than standards of absolute temperature. The absolute temperature is no adequate measure of comfort or of injury to health whereas Mr. Maloney's Report\* indicated that the measure afforded by the kata-thermometer is ordinarily a much more reliable one. A further difficulty arose in connection with the adoption of the criterion of injury to the health of the employees. This criterion was intended as a safeguard to ensure that employers would not be harassed where there was no genuine necessity for interference, but it would in effect make the proposed clause inoperative. Injury to health is not easy

\* "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills" by T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., pages 30-39 and 85.

to prove and it is significant that Mr. Maloney after 18 months research, covering some of the worst mills in India had, in spite of medical assistance, to record a very guarded opinion regarding the effect on health of conditions which were, from the point of view of comfort, almost intolerable.\*

In view of the above objections, the Government of India decided to hold over the consideration of this difficult question until they had received and considered the reports of the local governments on the proposals regarding the control of ventilation and humidification in cotton factories.

*Control of Construction of Factories.*—This was another question which arose out of the report submitted by Mr. Maloney on the Humidification and Ventilation in Cotton Mills. It was pointed out in that report that a considerable amount of discomfort was suffered by the operatives owing to the faulty construction of the mills. Municipalities have usually the power to control the construction of new buildings, but the considerations which weigh with such authorities do not take into account the internal temperatures which are likely to prevail in the mill after it has been built. In addressing local governments in April, 1924,† on the recommendations made by Mr. Maloney, the Government of India expressed the view that, subject to the control of the local government, the sanction of the factory inspector should be necessary to the construction of a new factory or the conversion into a factory of an existing building used for some other purpose. The factory inspector would then be able to prevent the erection of mills in which, by reason of the details of their construction, the operatives would be unable to work under humane conditions. Here, too, the local governments, while in general agreement with the principle underlying the proposal, expressed divergent views as to the manner in which the control should be exercised. In the circumstances, the Government of India considered that it would not be possible for them to frame a measure containing any detailed provisions which would take account of the different conditions and the difficulties in the various provinces. They accordingly addressed local governments in 1926, and left it to them to introduce whatever measures they might consider necessary in the local legislative councils. The Government of Burma is the only local government which has taken any action in the matter, but the measure which the local government proposed to enact for the purpose has not yet been passed into law. The Government of Bombay at first expressed the view that legislation on the subject should be central, but when the Government of India adhered to their original conclusions that legislation should be provincial, the local government replied that it was "not desirable to undertake any legislation in the local legislative council in this connection."<sup>6</sup> In Bengal the only progress achieved is due to the co-operation of the Howrah Municipality with the Factory Inspection Department. The Municipality has adopted the practice of obtaining the advice of the Chief Inspector of Factories on the plans for the construction of new factory buildings which are submitted for its sanction.

*Sanitation in Mines.*—The provisions in the Indian Mines Act regarding sanitation are contained in Section 17 of the Act and local governments are vested under Section 30 (c) with powers to prescribe the scale of latrines and urinal accommodation to be provided at mines and for the supply of drinking water. The regulations made by the Governor-General in Council under Section 29 provide, in addition, for the ventilation of mines and for the action to be taken in respect of dust and noxious gases. These regulations provide for the adequate ventilation of every mine to clear away the smoke and to dilute and render harmless inflammable and noxious gases. The rules made by local governments provide for the adequate supply of drinking water, for the cleanliness of the underground workings and roads, and for the provision of latrines and urinals which have to be kept in a sanitary condition. In addition, the Governments of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa have each passed a Mining Settlement Act‡ for the control and sanitation of mining settlements and to make better provision for preventing the outbreak and spread in such settlements of epidemic diseases." Under these Acts a Mines Board of Health has been set up in Jharia and in Asansol for carrying out the purposes of these local Acts. As regards the work done by these two Boards of Health the following extract from the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year 1927 is of interest:—

"The beneficial results of the work carried out by the Asansol and Jharia Mines Boards of Health and by the Jharia Water Board are well known. From the public health point of view the settlements are bright spots in the two provinces, and within the settlements it is remarkable how much less disease there is at the collieries

\* "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills" by T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T. pages 30-39 and 85.

† Paragraph 18 of letter No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924, Appendix III.

‡ *Vide* the B. and O. Mining Settlements Act, 1920, and the Bengal Mining Settlements Act of 1912. The revision of the latter Act is under consideration.

than in the surrounding villages. One of the major improvements effected in the Jharia coalfield has been the provision of a pure water supply. From the Topchanchi reservoir, 16 miles distant, 1,250,000 gallons of water are supplied daily to all collieries of importance."

*Health and Sanitation in Plantations.*—Elaborate provisions for water supply, sanitary arrangements, hospital accommodation and medical attendance are contained in the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, VI of 1901, but these provisions relate to "labourers," i.e., persons who are bound by a contract penally enforceable under the Act. With the abolition of penal contracts\* these provisions are now inoperative though they have not yet been formally repealed. The Government of Assam have, however, under sections 113 and 122 (i) of the Act framed rules for the submission of monthly returns of vital statistics and vaccination. These rules also require Deputy Commissioners to classify the estates in their districts in one of the following three categories:—(i) healthy or first-class estates; (ii) second-class estates; (iii) unhealthy estates. The last class comprises estates in which the average mortality for the preceding year exceeded 7 per cent. of the population of the estate as a whole, while the first category includes only such estates as have not been on the unhealthy list for the last three years. All other estates are included in the second category. Unhealthy estates are to be inspected once by the Civil Surgeon and thereafter annually by the Deputy Commissioner or their authorized subordinates until they are placed in the class of healthy estates. But neither the Deputy Commissioner nor the Civil Surgeon can legally order the Manager of an estate to take any steps for the improvement of the health or sanitation of the estate, though their periodical visits do undoubtedly stimulate some action in this direction on the part of the employer. In the year 1928 only one garden in the whole of Assam, situated in the Goalpara District, was classified as unhealthy.† The nature of the sanitary arrangements provided by the tea gardens in Assam was examined by the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee of 1922 and the observations of the Committee are given in Chapter VI of the Report.

Most of the tea gardens in Bengal are situated in the Jalpaiguri district. The Dooars, like Assam, are malarial and unhealthy but labour has always been "free," and the Dooars have all along had the advantage over Assam in the matter of recruitment. The Dooars Labour Committee, which was appointed by the local government in 1910 to report on the health and conditions of employment in the tea gardens in the Dooars, expressed itself strongly in favour of the continuance of the system of "free" labour and was opposed to any legislation for the protection of labour which, as in Assam, was then invariably associated with the system of penally enforceable contracts. The Committee found a general disposition among employers to effect improvements in the conditions of the life of their labourers, but made certain suggestions for their consideration, e.g., the establishment of one or more central hospitals and of branch dispensaries, the appointment of qualified men as resident garden doctors, the adoption of a system of quinine prophylaxis on all gardens to protect the men from attacks of malaria. But the Committee also made the suggestion that the Government should take steps to obtain vital statistics of the tea gardens in the Dooars. This suggestion led to the passing of the Jalpaiguri Labour Act of 1912, which requires employers to maintain registers and to submit returns relating to vital statistics. Inspectors are also appointed under the Act to check the accuracy of the entries in the registers and returns. In 1923 the late Sir Surendra Nath Banerjee, then the Minister for Local Self-Government in Bengal, introduced a measure called "The Bengal Tea Gardens Public Health Bill," the object of which was to create a new local authority in the form of a statutory Board of Health, similar to the Boards of Health already existing for mines in Asansol and Jharia, to exercise wide powers for the control and sanitation of tea-garden areas in Bengal. The Bill was circulated for opinion but was not further proceeded with.

In Madras the Madras Planters' Labour Act of 1903 contained provisions regarding the health and sanitation of the plantations in the Nilgiris and in the Wynaad Taluk of the Malabar District. But along with these provisions the Act also contained provisions for penal contracts. The Act has been repealed with effect from the 1st January, 1929, and the plantations are no longer subject to official control in the matter of health and sanitation. In Coorg a temporary legislation known as the Coorg Labour Act was passed in 1926 to keep alive the system of penal labour contracts for a period of five years only. In return for this benefit which the Act confers on employers it imposes the obligation of providing suitable house accommodation, water supply, sanitary arrangements and medical treatment for the

\* See Chapter III, page 170, *supra*.

† See Reports on Immigrant Labour in the Province of Assam for the year ending 30th June, 1928.

labourers. The inspection of the estates is entrusted to the Commissioner, the District Magistrate and the Civil Surgeon of Coorg. The Chief Commissioner can declare an estate to be unfit for the residence of any workmen, and so long as this declaration remains in force no penal action can be taken against a labourer for a breach of a contract of service.

*Industrial Diseases.*—Little information is available about the prevalence of industrial diseases in India. In 1919 the Washington Conference adopted two recommendations concerning industrial diseases; the first suggested that arrangements should be made for the disinfection of wool infected with anthrax, whilst the second advocated the exclusion of women and young persons from certain processes in lead manufacture and the regulation of employment of women and young persons in processes involving the use of salts of lead. There was no evidence that the handling of wool in India causes infection to those employed in the process, but the Government of India did not consider it safe to assume its absence. A provision was accordingly made in the Indian Factories Act (Section 38A) which gives the Governor-General in Council the power to frame rules for the adequate disinfection of wool used in factories which may be infected with anthrax spores. So far no rules have been framed by the Governor-General in Council. As regards the second recommendation of the Washington Conference, the Government of India did not consider that there was any immediate need for legislation in view of the fact that the industries in question had not developed to any appreciable extent in the country. But a provision was inserted in the Factories Act (Section 19B) in accordance with the Recommendations of the Conference "in order to obtain without opposition protection against a danger that might become real in years to come." Recently the Government of Bihar and Orissa, when revising the rules framed by the local government under the Indian Factories Act, made the suggestion that this provision of the Act should be amended so as to require the medical examination and certification of all persons employed on processes involving the use of lead or its compounds.

The Washington Labour Conference adopted a further Recommendation suggesting the establishment of a government service for safeguarding the health of the workers. This Recommendation had apparently a strictly limited application relating as it did only to the protection of workers in the unhealthy trades, e.g., in factories and workshops where lead, arsenic or other poisonous substance is used, or those in which grinding, glazing or polishing on a wheel is carried on by which dust, or any gas vapour or other impurity is generated or inhaled by the workers to an injurious extent. As industries of this nature were few in India, the Government of India did not consider it necessary to establish a special medical service for the purpose, but they pointed out to local governments the desirability of strengthening the medical services of the country in areas where many unhealthy industries are situated.

The Third International Labour Conference adopted a Draft Convention in 1921 relating to the regulation of the use of white lead in painting. The object of this Convention was to minimize the dangers of lead poisoning which experience had shown to be prevalent in certain countries. The Government of India, after consultation with local governments, came to the conclusion that it would not be practicable to ratify this Convention as the use of white lead was relatively small and a disproportionately large staff would be required to enforce the Convention. At the same time, the Government of India have by means of executive instructions enforced the compliance of the principles underlying the Convention so far as their own departments, e.g., the Public Works, Railways and Military Works, are concerned and have requested local governments to take similar action and to recommend for adoption the provisions of the Convention to such other public and quasi-public bodies situated in their territories as make use of white lead pigments.

*Sex Ratio in Industrial Centres.*—In his note for the Indian Industrial Commission, to which reference has been made earlier in this Chapter, Major F. Norman White, Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, stated\* as follows:—

"Another less obvious danger to our present large industrial centres would appear to lie in the great disturbance of the natural sex ratio. Thus in Calcutta there are 365,000 males and only 131,000 females between the ages of 15 and 40. A certain disproportion is possibly unavoidable but a disparity of the extent quoted would appear to be a direct health danger. It would be interesting to learn, among other things, what effect such a state of affairs has on the prevalence of venereal disease."

\* Appendix L to the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, page 463.

The number of women per 1,000 males in 1921 in some of the important industrial centres was as follows\* :—Calcutta and Suburbs, 500 ; Bombay, 524 ; Ahmedabad, 763 ; Sholapur, 894 ; Cawnpore, 667 ; Delhi, 672 ; Nagpur, 864 ; Rangoon, 444 ; Karachi, 629. The proportion of women to men must be considerably less among the industrial population. The disparity between the sexes in these centres is largely due to the migratory character of labour and to the fact that the workers are generally disinclined to bring their families with them to towns where the conditions of life are less attractive than in the villages. The overwhelming preponderance of the male sex in these industrial centres has an important effect on the social life of the workers. Dr. Curjel in her Report on Women's Labour in Bengal Industries† refers to the frequency of irregular liaisons and the prevalence among the millhands in Bengal of venereal disease. The evil is aggravated by want of privacy in most of the quarters in which the millhands live. In dealing with this question, Dr. Curjel states "from enquiries through Indian and English sources, and from personal knowledge of living conditions among the poorer classes in other parts of India, one must conclude that such irregular family life as is found among mill women in Bengal is not customary in the districts from which the majority of mill labour is recruited." Conditions in Rangoon and Bombay can hardly be expected to be more satisfactory than in Bengal.

*Medical Facilities provided by Employers.*—The economic importance of health is recognized by the employers in India and in a number of cases special medical facilities are provided for the workers. In connection with an enquiry into welfare work which was made in 1926, employers were requested to furnish particulars regarding the medical facilities provided by them for their employees and the following statement is based on the returns obtained from them :—

Industry.	Number of concerns submitting returns	Total number of persons employed by concerns shown in column 2.	Number of concerns providing dispensaries.	Number of concerns not providing dispensaries but providing	
				Whole-time medical officers.	Part-time medical officers.
<i>Bengal.</i>					
1. Jute mills and presses	89	282,417	62	8	..
2. Cotton mills.. ..	9	12,165	5	4	..
3. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	42	36,440	9	..	19
4. Railway workshops..	13	49,570	13	..	..
5. Rice mills .. ..	24	766	..	2	4
6. Paper mills .. ..	4	4,418	4	..	..
7. Printing presses ..	15	3,815	5	4	..
8. Coal mines .. ..	104	37,738	61	37	6
9. Tea gardens .. ..	84	55,523	22	‡42	‡18
<i>Bombay.</i>					
1. Textile mills.. ..	149	237,694	108	2	11
2. Railway workshops..	1	11,089	1	..	..
3. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	3	3,361	2	..	..
4. Printing presses ..	4	1,380	4	..	..
5. Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	4	1,006	..	4	..

\* Statistical Abstract for British India (1917-18 to 1926-27), page 10.

† Bulletin No. 31 of Indian Industries and Labour.

‡ The tea gardens in columns 5 and 6 also supply medicines.

## Medical facilities provided by employers.—continued.

Industry.	Number of concerns submitting returns	Total number of persons employed by concerns shown in column 2.	Number of concerns providing dispensaries.	Number of concerns not providing dispensaries but providing	
				Whole-time medical officers.	Part-time medical officers.
<i>Bihar and Orissa.</i>					
1. Railway workshops..	2	12,318	2	..	..
2. Iron and steel works	1	30,600	1	..	..
3. Rice mills .. ..	4	199	..	..	3
4. Sugar factories ..	5	2,908	1	..	3
5. Indigo factories ..	1	1,596	..	..	1
6. Lac factories .. ..	2	194	..	..	..
7. Coal mines .. ..	18	40,473	15	2	1
<i>Burma.</i>					
1. Textile mills .. ..	1	486	..	..	1
2. Rice mills .. ..	8	6,159	..	5	3
3. Saw mills .. ..	6	3,940	2	2	1
4. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	3	2,657	2	..	1
5. Railway workshops..	2	2,449	2	..	..
6. Oil production and refining .. ..	7	11,174	5	..	..
7. Metalliferous mines..	3	12,187	1	..	..
8. Rubber plantations..	4	1,356	2	..	..
<i>Central Provinces.</i>					
1. Cotton mills .. ..	10	20,226	5	1	3
2. Railway workshops..	1	1,058	1	..	..
3. Cement, lime and pottery works .. ..	9	3,247	4	2	1
4. Match factories ..	1	225	1	..	..
5. Coal mines .. ..	11	10,271	8	..	1
6. Manganese mines ..	31	12,770	19	..	..
<i>Madras.</i>					
1. Cotton mills .. ..	7	20,273	5	..	..
2. Jute mills .. ..	3	3,607	3	..	..
3. Railway workshops..	2	18,785	2	..	..
4. Rice mills .. ..	2	143	..	..	..
5. Tanneries .. ..	1	911	1	..	..
6. Tea, coffee and rubber plantations .. ..	..	..	5	..	..
<i>United Provinces.</i>					
1. Textile mills .. ..	11	16,725	8	1	2
2. Railway workshops..	5	8,049	5	..	..
3. Sugar factories ..	1	429	1	..	..
4. Leather factories ..	2	2,194	2	..	..
5. Glass factories ..	1	250	1	..	..
6. Paper mills .. ..	1	762	..	..	1
<i>Punjab.</i>					
1. Textile mills .. ..	4	2,675	3	1	..
2. Railway workshops..	5	8,471	5	..	..
3. Printing presses ..	4	1,163	..	..	3
4. Flour mills .. ..	8	975	2	..	3
5. Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	6	568	1	..	3
<i>Assam.</i>					
1. Tea gardens .. ..	123	142,800	123	..	..
2. Railway workshops..	1	49	1	..	..
3. Oil production and refining .. ..	1	5,000	1	..	..

In most cases it is reported that medical treatment is provided free of charge to the employees and their families, but in some of the cotton mills in Bombay a nominal charge of one or two annas a month is made from each worker. Medicines have generally to be purchased by the employees but in some cases ordinary medicines are supplied free of charge.

*Sickness Insurance.*—The possibility of introducing a scheme of sickness insurance in India was considered by the Government of India in connection with the Draft Conventions and Recommendation adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference in 1927. Owing to the migratory character of industrial labour, the want of qualified medical practitioners in sufficient numbers, the existence of indigenous systems of medicine, and the opposition of the workers to any system involving compulsory deductions from pay, the Government of India considered that it would not be practicable to introduce a comprehensive scheme of sickness insurance on the lines of the Conventions of the International Labour Conference. But they realized that the question was one of some importance for the country. The general level of wages in India is low and in the case of the majority of workers the margin between income and expenditure is so small that it is impossible for them to make any effective savings for any unforeseen contingency, such as illness. The enquiry into working-class family budgets in Bombay City disclosed that 47 per cent. of the working class families are in debt, while a similar enquiry in Ahmedabad showed that the worker at that place is also generally heavily indebted. An interruption of income owing to illness in such cases undoubtedly involves considerable hardship. The Government of India accordingly decided to consult provincial Governments as to whether it would be feasible to introduce a limited scheme of sickness insurance, either on the lines indicated in the Draft Conventions or on other practicable lines. In their letter\* No. L-1518, dated the 20th September, 1928, they invited the views of local Governments in the matter and also made the suggestion that the examination of this question might suitably be entrusted to a small and informal committee, including a few representatives of employers and employees. Such Committees were, however, appointed in only five provinces, namely, the Punjab, Madras, Burma, the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces. Generally speaking, all major local Governments expressed the opinion that the introduction of any scheme of sickness insurance would be premature and impracticable in present conditions. It was pointed out that the Indian worker, owing to his illiteracy, would not be in a position to appreciate the advantages of a scheme of sickness insurance and that he would object to the payment of any contributions, particularly as he receives in most cases medical treatment free of charge. Some of the local Governments also referred to the fact that the workmen are reluctant to be treated by the allopathic system of medicine. But the main difficulty with local Governments was the question of finance. Thus the Government of Madras expressed the opinion that there were other more urgent services, such as elementary education, increased medical facilities, etc., which had a prior claim on their resources, while the Governments of the Punjab, the United Provinces, and Bihar and Orissa, expressed their inability to undertake any liability in the matter. The Government of Bombay stated that they were unable at present to make any financial contribution towards a scheme of sickness insurance, but, if the Labour Commission came to the conclusion that such a scheme is desirable and practicable, the local Government would give it their support "to the extent of the resources which may be made available." The Government of the Central Provinces also expressed the opinion that the State should bear only the cost of administration as the large and growing liability of a scheme of sickness insurance may prove to be too heavy a burden on its finances.

*Maternity Benefits.*—The question of the provision of maternity benefits for women workers was also raised by a Draft Convention adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919. This Convention was not intended to be ratified by India, but the Conference passed a resolution inviting the Government of India "to make a study of the question of the employment of women before and after confinement, and of maternity benefits, and to report on these matters to the next Conference." Enquiries were instituted on the subject, and the conclusion reached was that the introduction of a compulsory scheme of maternity benefits would be premature but that employers should be encouraged to start voluntary schemes. A report was accordingly presented to the International Labour Conference which met at Geneva in 1921. In pursuance of certain suggestions put forward in the Legislative Assembly, enquiries were made by the Government of India in June, 1924, regarding the extent to which maternity benefit schemes were in force in India. The results of this enquiry were published in 1925 in Bulletin No. 35 of Indian Industries and Labour. Since that date maternity benefit schemes have been introduced by various employers,

\* A copy of this letter, together with copies of the replies thereto, will be found in Appendix V.

an important scheme being started at Jamshedpur by the Tata Iron and Steel Company. In a communication to the press, the Company announced that it would pay maternity benefits from the 1st January, 1929, to its female employees on weekly wages. The benefit is the equivalent of six weeks' wages which will be paid on the condition that the woman shall have been in the continuous employment of the Company for not less than twelve months prior to the date of confinement, and shall give an undertaking not to do any work outside her own home during the period of six weeks following confinement. She must also notify the birth of the child to the Company's main hospital within three days of its occurrence. Employees who wish to take advantage of this benefit must register their claim at the Employment Bureau, which will then arrange for the examination of the woman in order that the probable date of birth may be ascertained. If the claim is in order the Employment Bureau will issue a permit for leave of absence for six weeks and payment will then be made of three weeks' wages. On receipt of notification of birth, the Chief Medical Officer will arrange for verification, noting the date on the certificate issued by him. The certificate will be handed in at the Employment Bureau, and payment will then be made of the second three weeks' wages. Before resuming work the woman must report at the Employment Bureau, when a fresh weekly ticket will be issued.

An attempt at legislation was first made by Mr. Joshi in September, 1924, when he introduced in the Legislative Assembly a Bill\* designed to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit in certain industries. This Bill, after circulation, was thrown out by the Legislative Assembly in August, 1925.† The cue, however, was taken up by the provincial legislatures and in August, 1926, the Bihar and Orissa Council passed the following resolution:—

"This Council recommends to Government that early steps be taken to protect female labour employed in the coalfields and all industrial plants of the province—

"(a) by protecting their employment during their advanced state of pregnancy, and three weeks after childbirth has taken place; (b) and that such companies or firms in this province that have in their employment such labour, provided that a period of six months' service has been given prior to the event, be directed to pay to such persons in the way of maternity benefit a sum of money equal to payment lost during that period."

The Central Provinces Legislative Council has on the anvil a Maternity Benefit Bill which was introduced by Mr. R. W. Fulay, a non-official member, on the 22nd January, 1929. The only province in which legislation has been passed is Bombay, where a Maternity Benefit Act was passed early this year, and came into force from the 1st July, 1929. Here, too, the measure was introduced by a non-official member. It differs from Mr. Joshi's Bill in one important respect. The payment of maternity benefit is an obligation which is imposed directly on the employer, whereas under Mr. Joshi's Bill it would have fallen on the local Government to set up a Maternity Benefit Fund and to make payments out of this fund.

## Chapter VII.—Welfare.

*Nature of Welfare Work. Its importance in India.*—The definition of "Welfare Work" presents some difficulty, as there is some difference of opinion as to the nature of the activities which should legitimately be included within its scope. One definition would confine welfare work "to the voluntary efforts on the part of employers to improve, within the existing industrial system, the conditions of employment in their own factories." But another definition, which is more generally accepted, would extend its scope "to all efforts which have for their object the improvement of the health, safety, and general well-being and the industrial efficiency of the worker."‡ The necessity for welfare work arises out of the modern system of production which destroys all personal touch between the employer and the employee. In cottage industries the employee works directly under the eye of the master, and is often a relation in whose welfare the master is directly interested. But under the modern system of large scale production it is impossible for the employer to pay individual attention to the numerous employees who are working in his factory. The worker is known by his number rather than by his name, and his personal needs and rights are apt to be disregarded. It is not therefore surprising that the growth of the factory system has given rise to grave industrial unrest which threatens to destroy its very foundations. If this system is to be preserved the importance of the

\* Appendix VI.

† *Vide* Assembly Debates, Volume VI, Nos. 5 and 6, dated the 26th and 27th August, 1925.

‡ *Vide* the Presidential Address of Mr. (now Sir) Atul Chatterjee at the All-India Industrial Welfare Conference, 1922.



part played by labour in production must be recognized, and every effort must be made to develop a sense of responsibility and of dignity among the working classes. The basis of welfare work is therefore the recognition of the human element of labour as a factor in production. But welfare work has another aspect ; it has a direct bearing on the efficiency of the worker. "Welfare work at its best is the voluntary expression on the part of the employer of his recognition that the employees in the firm are his fellow-workers in an undertaking for the service of the community, and at its worst it is merely a business proposition." But it would be a mistake to lay too much stress on the financial aspect of welfare work which can never be a success if it is instituted with that end only in view.

The importance of welfare work is greater in India than in the West. The worker in this country regards employment in a factory or a mine as a necessary evil from which he is only too glad to escape when circumstances permit. Separated from his community and in strange surroundings, he is almost irresistibly drawn to the liquor-shops, which invariably make for his demoralization and ruin. If the employer desires a more stable and efficient labour force, it is obvious that he must endeavour, by every means in his power, to effect an improvement in the conditions of employment of his workpeople, and to secure for them a happier existence.

*Difficulties of Welfare Work in India.*—Education, or rather the lack of it, is the stumbling block to all progress in India, and welfare work suffers from this blight. The vast majority of Indian workers are illiterate, and it is unfortunately impossible for them to understand or to appreciate the importance of any scheme which may be intended for their ultimate benefit. Welfare activities, such as are to be found in the highly organized factories of Europe and America, presuppose a certain standard of education which is entirely absent in India. Welfare work therefore depends for its success on the energy of the employer or an outside agency working, in the beginning, at any rate, without the co-operation of the employees. But the illiteracy of the worker is not the only obstacle. The labour force is, in most cases, of a temporary and floating character and heterogeneous in composition. Men from different provinces, speaking different languages and of different religions, are to be found working in the same factory : workers of one community naturally tend to form groups within their own community, and this renders the working of any general scheme of welfare work somewhat complicated. These difficulties, though serious, have not proved to be insuperable, and in recent years satisfactory progress has been achieved both by individual employers and by private organizations, such as the Social Service League in Bombay and the Young Men's Christian Association in Nagpur. In 1922 an All-India Industrial Welfare Conference was convened at Bombay by the Social Service League, which had since 1918 been entrusted with the organization and management of two workmen's institutes for the benefit of operatives employed in mills under the agencies of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ibrahim & Sons and Messrs. Tata & Sons. The Conference was attended by the representatives of the Central Government and of some of the provincial Governments, and was presided over by Mr. (now Sir) Atul Chatterjee, who was then Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Industries. The object of the Conference was to discuss several problems connected with welfare work, and to secure some co-ordination between the activities of the various agencies at the different centres.

*Classes of Welfare Work.*—Welfare work falls into two broad classes, viz., activities inside the factory or *intra-mural* welfare work, and activities outside the factory or *extra-mural* welfare work. *Intra-mural* welfare work includes such items as improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions in factories, ventilation and temperature in factory buildings, etc. An account has already been given of the action taken by Government and by employers to improve working conditions within the factory. The other important items of welfare work which are connected with the working conditions inside a factory are :—(i) Medical attendance ; (ii) Maternity benefits ; (iii) Education ; (iv) Recreation ; (v) Provision of creches ; (vi) Co-operation ; (vii) Housing.

Of these, (i), (ii) and (vii) have been dealt with elsewhere in this memorandum, and an account will now be given of the progress achieved in respect of the remaining items.

*Education.*—The importance of this item does not need to be specially stressed. Education is required for the children employed in factories, i.e., the half-timers, for the children of the adult employees and also, where possible, for the adult workers themselves who are for the most part illiterate. The question of the education of half-timers was the subject of some controversy when the Indian Factories Act of 1911 was under consideration.\* The late Mr. Gokhale moved an amendment designed to compel all factory-owners employing not less than 20 children to provide for their

\* *Vide* Indian Factory Legislation, by A. G. Clow, page 50.

free education for not less than three hours a day. The amendment was opposed by the employers on the ground that it would place on them a burden which was not imposed on employers in other countries, a point of view which later received support from the Indian Industrial Commission.\* This amendment was eventually withdrawn by Mr. Gokhale, and the question of the education of the children employed in factories has lost much of its importance since the amendment of the Factories Act in 1922, which raised the minimum age of admission of children into factories from 9 to 12. The problem of the education of the children of the workers is now gaining in importance as it ensures a future supply of efficient workmen, but the worker does not generally bring his family with him, and progress in this direction must necessarily be slow. The education of the adult worker presents still greater difficulties. Apart from the indifference of the average worker to education, the hours of work are generally so long that it cannot reasonably be expected that after a full day's work in a factory he will willingly spend the little spare time that is available to him in a school. Illiteracy is, however, a serious handicap to the Indian worker, and without education any attempt to improve his efficiency is doomed to failure. Some of the enlightened employers in the country have therefore recognized it as their duty to take whatever measures are possible to promote education not only among their workers, but also among the children of their employees, whom they hope in time to attract to their mills. A brief account of the nature of the special facilities which are being provided in each province for the education of the workers and their children is given below † :—

(a) *Bengal*.—Attempts have been made by some mills to set up day and night schools, but it is reported that the great majority of such schools have been closed owing to the lack of interest shown by employees. Some of the engineering concerns provide for the training of artisans, and it is reported that one concern encourages promising youths to take up recognized professional courses. The progress made in this province is, however, most disappointing.

(b) *Bombay*.—There are special schools for half-timers employed in some of the mills, and night schools have also been established by the Social Service League, which is being subsidized for this purpose by the more enlightened millowners. In Ahmedabad the Millowners' Association makes an annual donation of Rs. 15,000 to the Ahmedabad Labour Union for the maintenance of schools for the children employed in the mills, and for the children of the employees. In Sholapur all the five textile mills provide free education. The railways generally provide schools at the more important stations for the children of their employees.

(c) *Bihar and Orissa*.—The Tata Iron and Steel Company has established a Technical Institute at Jamshedpur, in which theoretical and practical training in metallurgy is given. In addition, the Company maintains twenty ordinary schools for the education of the children of its employees. The Jamalpur Mechanical Department Workshops of the East Indian Railway also maintain a well-equipped technical school. Facilities for education are provided by only a few of the collieries. The Giridih Collieries of the E. I. Railway are, however, doing excellent work for the education of their employees. They maintain 27 elementary schools and one upper primary school. The total number of children attending these schools is reported to be 1,200. An industrial school has also been established where mechanics, drawing, mathematics, etc., are taught.

(d) *Madras*.—The most notable progress has been made by the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills ‡ which maintain a day as well as a night school. In 1926-27 there were 1,426 children in the day school and 333 men in the night school. The day school is an elementary school with five standards, and has as many as 34 teachers and 8 technical instructors on the staff. In the technical section attached to the school, carpentry, tailoring, tinsmithy, turning, fitting, and weaving, are taught. The night school has eight standards, and commercial instruction is also given in English and typewriting.

(e) *Burma*.—Very few firms provide facilities for education. The Burma Oil Company maintains schools in the Yenangyaung Oilfield for about 800 children, and is proposing to start a night school for their employees. The Burma Corporation makes an annual donation of Rs. 1,000 for the maintenance of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School at Namtu, and is also constructing a school at Bawdwin for the education of the children of its employees.

\* *Vide* paragraph 142 of the Report.

† For further details a reference is invited to the pamphlet entitled "The Education of Factory Children in India," published in 1918 by the Bureau of Education and to the Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India.

‡ *Vide* Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India for 1922-27.

(f) *United Provinces.*—The British India Corporation (which is a congregation of five large mills in Cawnpore and two outside Cawnpore) maintains six schools for children and industrial classes for its employees. The only other concerns which take any interest in the promotion of education are the Elgin Mills at Cawnpore, the United Agra Mills, Agra, and the B.N.W. Railway Workshops at Gorakhpur, which provide for the education of the children of the employees.

(g) *Punjab.*—No facilities are provided for the education of adult workers. The New Egerton Woollen Mills Company, Dhariwal, maintains a school in which the daily attendance is reported to be about 400.

(h) *Central Provinces.*—The mills in Nagpur have entrusted their welfare work to the Young Men's Christian Association, which has established nine centres where the millworkers reside, and in each centre there is a school. The average daily attendance in these schools, which are run by the Young Men's Christian Association on contributions raised from the mills, is reported to be about 420.

(i) *Assam.*—Some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children, but these schools are not popular, as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount, particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School, and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provides a Middle English School and a Primary School for the children of their employees.

*Recreation.*—The lot of the Indian worker is by no means a happy one and, if he is to be kept contented, every possible attempt should be made to add a little colour to the drab life in industrial employment. It is also most important that he should be encouraged to spend his spare time in healthy recreation, so that he may be saved from the attractions of the liquor shop. Though employers are beginning to recognize the value of recreation, the facilities so far provided are on a very small scale. In Bombay\* it is reported that playgrounds for the benefit of the employees are provided by only four mills, and that very few employees take advantage of them. The management of the Kohinoor Mills, Limited, regularly arranges for dramatic performances, cinema shows, and open air lectures, and it is stated that the average attendance at the open-air lectures is about 2,000. The Alexander and E. D. Sassoon Mills also provide for lectures and magic-lantern shows, etc. The Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute, which is run by the Social Service League, provides a gymnasium, a social club, a cricket club, and makes periodic arrangements for sports and excursions. At Ahmedabad only one mill provides an open ground for sports, whilst only one or two others provide for periodic entertainments. The mills in Sholapur appear to be more advanced in this respect. Three out of the five cotton mills at that place provide facilities for outdoor sports. One mill has started a boy-scout movement, and the troop strength is reported to be 120. The same mill distributes sweets to the children on the playground in order to encourage them to take healthy exercise.

In Bengal very little is being done for the promotion of healthy recreation among the employees. Attempts have been made to encourage sports and games, but the response has been poor. A few mills make special arrangements for cinema and gramophone entertainments.

In Bihar and Orissa the Tata Iron and Steel Company maintains libraries and reading rooms for its employees. Special facilities are also provided on a generous scale for games, sports and other forms of recreation. The only other concerns in the province which provide facilities for recreation on any appreciable scale are the Giridih Collieries and the Jamalpur Workshops under the East Indian Railway.

In Madras the only concerns, whose activities in this direction are worthy of mention, are the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company, and the South Indian Railway Company. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills have organized their welfare work on an extensive scale, and a Welfare Committee consisting of the management and the workpeople has been constituted to take charge of these activities. The railway administrations make grants-in-aid to sports clubs at important centres.

In the United Provinces, apart from the activities of the British India Corporation, practically nothing is being done to promote this class of welfare work among the employees. The British India Corporation provides large playgrounds for hockey, football, cricket, etc., and gives a grant-in-aid to the workers' clubs in their settlements.

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\* *Vide* Article on Welfare Work in the Bombay Presidency on pages 432-442 of the Bombay Labour Gazette for January, 1927.

In the Central Provinces grounds for outdoor sports are provided in seven textile mills, one match factory and in some of the mines, collieries and cement and pottery works. The Young Men's Christian Association is also carrying on very useful work at Nagpur.

In the Punjab very little is being done.

In Burma, facilities for recreation are provided only by the Burma Corporation at Namtu and Bawdwin and by the Burma Oil Company at Yenangyaung.

In Assam, cinema and other entertainments are provided occasionally in most gardens, and in a number of them football and playing fields are also provided for the employees. The Assam Oil Company and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provide football and cricket grounds for their employees and occasionally make arrangements for cinema shows and other entertainments.

*Creches.*—The provision of creches is of great importance in factories where women are employed in large numbers. In most cases women workers find it exceedingly difficult to find any responsible person to take charge of their young children whilst they are at work in the mills. This difficulty is in part responsible for the prevalence in Bombay of the habit of drugging children with opium in order to keep them quiet. From the point of view of employers these creches are valuable in securing more regular work from the women operatives. Here, too, the ignorance of the worker has made progress difficult. There still exists a certain amount of prejudice in the minds of the women workers against these creches and great difficulty has been experienced in persuading them to leave their children in the charge of nurses. Much tact is necessary to overcome the suspicions of mothers, and the success of a creche is dependent largely on the personality of the lady supervisor. The greatest progress has been achieved in Bombay, where creches are now being provided in a number of textile mills. These creches are becoming increasingly popular with the female employees. The lady supervisors have in many instances been able to persuade mothers to give up the practice of administering opium to their children and to teach them the elementary principles of child welfare. Creches have also been provided in a number of mills in Ahmedabad and in all the five textile mills in Sholapur. In the Central Provinces and Berar, creches have been provided in six textile mills, which employ a large number of women. In other provinces the progress is negligible and creches have been provided only in a few isolated cases.

*Co-operation.*—The co-operative movement has as yet hardly touched the fringe of the industrial population. The Social Service League, Bombay, has organized several co-operative credit societies among the millhands in Bombay, whilst the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur and the Empress Mills at Nagpur appear to be the only two concerns which have made any serious attempt to promote co-operation among their employees. The organization of co-operative societies among industrial workers has not made much progress owing to their general illiteracy and migratory habits, but the movement is undoubtedly one of considerable importance, as it is calculated to promote thrift and to save the worker from falling into the clutches of the moneylender.

#### Chapter VIII.—Safety.

*Industrial Accidents in India.*—An American writer in referring to industrial accidents observed as follows:—"While the bread of the labourer is earned in the sweat of his brow, it is eaten in the peril of his life. Whether he works upon the sea, upon the earth, or in the mines underneath the earth, the labourer constantly faces imminent death; and his danger increases with the progress of the age. With each new invention the number of killed and injured rises."

As in other countries, the industrial progress of India has been accompanied by an alarming increase in the number of industrial accidents. The seriousness of the problem will be apparent from the fact that the total accident rate per 100,000 employees in factories rose from 520 in 1904 to 1,025 in 1927; whilst in mines the total accident rate per 100,000 operatives also rose from 146 in 1904 to 357 in 1927. The death rate per 1,000 persons employed in mines rose from 0.63 in 1902 to 0.92 in 1927. Even after making due allowance for the fact that the reporting of accidents was not altogether satisfactory in the earlier years, it is clear that the growing industrialization of the country has increased to a considerable extent the risk of injury to which the workers are exposed.

The detailed statistics of accidents in factories and mines from 1904 to 1927 are given in the table at the end of this chapter. The accident rate in factories is highest in Bihar and Orissa, where in 1927 it was 2,875 per 100,000 operatives. This is due to the steel industry, which was alone responsible for 75 per cent. of the total number

of accidents in the whole province. The accident rate in factories in other provinces for the same year is shown as follows:—Burma, 1,433; Punjab, 1,412; United Provinces, 1,388; Bombay, 1,257; Madras, 920; Bengal, 634; Central Provinces, 427; Assam, 138. In the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bombay and Madras a large proportion of the accidents occurred in the railway workshops, but, as the result of an investigation made by the Railway Board it was discovered that the railway workshops were reporting a number of very trivial accidents which do not require to be reported under the Act. In mines the death rate is highest in coal mines where the average death rate per 1,000 workers during the ten years ending with, and including 1926, was 1.22 as compared with 0.98 for all mines under the Coal Mines Act in Great Britain. Statistics cannot, however, measure the sacrifice and suffering caused to the workers and their families. The problem of checking the waste of human life incident to the production of wealth is the direct concern of society, and the State cannot leave entirely to the employers the important business of safeguarding the workers in industry.

*Safety Regulations in Factories.*—The provisions relating to safety in factories are contained in Sections 15-20 of the Indian Factories Act. The powers vested in the inspectors of factories under Sections 16, 18, 18 A and 19 A are subject to an appeal to the local government, or to such authority as it may appoint in this behalf, and the appeal must be heard with the aid of assessors if the applicants so desire.\* Except in the case of an appeal against an order under Section 19 A (prohibition of the presence of children in factories) the appellate authority may, on the application of the appellant, suspend the operation of an order of the inspector pending the decision of the appeal. Rules have been framed by local governments under the Indian Factories Act, which lay down in greater detail the measures which have to be taken for the safety of the operatives. These rules provide for the precautions to be taken against fire and for the proper fencing of machinery. The rules regarding precautions against fire are briefly as follows:—Every building of more than one storey shall be provided with at least two sets of stairs, and such stairs shall be provided with a suitable and efficient hand-rail. In factories of more than one storey every window or door giving access to an external staircase shall be so arranged as to open immediately from inside. Ginning factories shall be provided with at least two flights of stairs made of brickwork or other fire-resisting material. The manager shall cause notices to be exhibited prohibiting smoking and the use of naked lights in all places where they would be dangerous, or where the inspectors may so require. In any factory where the process of manufacture necessitates the use of inflammable materials, efficient means of subduing outbreaks of fire shall be kept ready for immediate use.

With regard to the fencing of machinery the provisions contained in the provincial rules may be summarised as follows:—In every factory all moving parts of machinery shall be securely fenced, unless they are so situated that in the opinion of the inspector they are incapable of causing injury to the workers. Fencing shall be so designed as to give protection to a person oiling, cleaning or otherwise attending to the machinery, and to all persons who may be in the neighbourhood of a moving part whilst it is in motion. All electrical circuits or parts of such, or any objects electrically connected with them, which by reason of their position could cause injury to any person, shall be adequately protected and in such a manner as to remove danger of injury. Every hoist and teagle, and every place where material of sufficient weight is raised or lowered, shall, where practicable, be so fenced as to prevent injury to any person in its descent. Every opening in the ground or in a floor which, owing to its situation or otherwise could cause personal injury, shall be so fenced as to prevent any such injury. There are also some additional and special provisions relating to textile and ginning factories. In Burma, which is the home of the timber industry, additional safeguards are provided for the fencing of circular saws.

The provincial rules also prescribe measures for the protection of persons attending to machinery or boilers. These are briefly as follows:—All important pulleys shall be provided with belt hangers or perches. Suitable string gear shall be provided and used to move driving shafts on all fast and loose pulleys. Lubrication of bearing or gear-wheels or replacing or adjusting of belts shall be done only by an experienced and specially trained person. Service platforms and gangways shall be provided for overhead shafting and, where required by the inspector, shall be securely fenced with guard rails and toe boards. No transmission machinery in motion shall be cleaned by cotton waste, rags or similar material held in the hand. Every shafting ladder shall be fitted with hooks or some other effective non-skid device. No person engaged

\* *Vide* Section 50 of the Indian Factories Act.

in oiling or adjusting belts or in any other work within reach of unfenced transmission machinery shall be allowed to wear loosely fitting clothing. No women or child shall be allowed to clean machinery in motion. Safe and convenient access is to be provided to all bearings. All water gauge glasses of boilers working under high pressure shall be securely guarded. Efficient measures are to be taken for securing and maintaining sufficient and suitable lighting in every part of a factory in which persons are working or passing.

In the United Provinces, the Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam, a provision is made in the rules which requires the occupier or manager of a factory, if called upon to do so by the Chief Inspector of Factories, "to supply such drawings, specifications or particulars, and to carry out such examination or tests as may, in the opinion of the Chief Inspector of Factories, be necessary in order to determine whether any part of the machinery or plant is in such a condition that it can be used without danger to human life or safety." The Bengal Government have issued a rule to the effect that the operation of all railways or other electrical or mechanical means of transport within the precincts of a factory shall be such as to satisfy the Inspector that there is no danger to human life and safety. Recently the Government of Bihar and Orissa have also stressed the importance of control over the operation of factory railways. In the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur there are over one hundred miles of railway line, and from the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar and Orissa, it appears that the rules framed by the company for the operation of their railways are inadequate for the safety of the workers in the crowded parts of the factory and that even these rules are not always being observed. The company has been somewhat slow to accept suggestions for improving its traffic operation, and the local government consider greater control is necessary than is provided for by the Indian Factories Act. The only section of the Act which can be held to be applicable to factory railways is Section 18 A, but this only empowers the inspector to issue orders in a case in which he is satisfied that locomotives or rolling stock are in a dangerous condition, or in which he considers that some part of the permanent way is defective. But it is not only the condition of the plant, etc., which may be a source of danger to the operatives but also the method of operation, particularly in places where there are large numbers of workers. In order to secure adequate safety the local government considers that it should be empowered to frame rules which will (a) prescribe speed limits, subject to exceptions where there is no danger; (b) prescribe that a flagman should precede all trains except in localities which may be exempted; (c) prevent unauthorized persons from riding on trains; and (d) provide general standards for brakes on rolling stock.

The Government of India suggested to the local government that if the Inspector of Factories was unable to secure adequate safety by means of instructions under Section 18 A of the Act an application may be made to the Governor-General in Council for the delegation of the necessary powers to the local government under Section 144 of the Indian Railways Act.

*Safety Regulations in Mines.*—The Indian Mines Act of 1923 empowers the Governor-General in Council to frame regulations for the safety of persons employed in mines, under Section 29, clauses (h) to (p). Local governments are also empowered to frame rules under the Act to ensure the proper fencing of a mine for the protection of the public. In addition, the Chief Inspector of Mines may call upon the owner, agent or manager of a mine to frame bye-laws which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act, regulations or rules to prevent accidents and to provide for the safety, health, and discipline of the persons employed in the mine (Section 32). The bye-laws, when approved by the local government, have effect as if enacted under the Act. Further, Section 19 of the Act gives special powers to the Inspector of Mines in any case when any danger is apprehended which is not expressly provided for in the Act, regulations, rules and the bye-laws. The Governor-General in Council may increase the number of two sets of regulations, viz., the Indian Coal Mines Regulations, 1923, which apply only to coal mines, and the Indian Metalliferous Mines Regulations, 1923, which apply to all other mines. These regulations provide for the proper maintenance of shafts and outlets, roads and working places, haulage arrangements, fencing of materials; for the restrictions which have to be observed in raising or lowering materials; for the precautions to be taken in the use of explosives; and for adequate ventilation and lighting.

*Reporting of Accidents in Factories and Mines.*—Both the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act provide for the prompt reporting of accidents. Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident.

Accidents in factories are divided into three classes, viz., fatal accidents, serious accidents, i.e., accidents which prevent a person from returning to work for 21 days or more, and minor accidents. All three classes of accidents are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the district magistrate, and, in case of any accident resulting in death, to the officer-in-charge of the police station. It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the cause of and the responsibility for a fatal or serious accident, and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned if it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act. Section 34 of the Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a local government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person. So far notifications have been issued under this section only in Bombay, Bengal and Burma.\* Section 20 of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, requires the owner, agent or manager to report any accident causing loss of life or serious bodily injury and also any accidental explosion, ignition, outbreak of fire or irruption of water in or about a mine. The Inspector of Mines has to be informed immediately by telephone or telegram, and a notice in the prescribed form has to be sent within 24 hours to the district or sub-divisional magistrate. Section 21 of the Act empowers the local government to appoint a court of inquiry in cases of accidents.

*Causes of Accidents in Factories and Mines.*—Provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act frequently refer to the ignorance and carelessness of the workers, which are responsible for a great many of the accidents. The fact is that the education of the operative has not kept pace with the increase in the complexity of the plant and processes consequent on the growing industrialization of the country. The inspectors of factories are doing all they can to encourage the managements with which they deal to give due attention to safety methods, and considerable progress has been made in all provinces in the fencing of dangerous machinery. But employers have not always shown due regard for the safety of their operatives. Cases are by no means rare in which accidents are due to lack of supervision or an indulgence in unsafe practices on the part of the management. Thus the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar and Orissa, for the year ending 31st December, 1926, refers to a series of catastrophes which were due to the "technical incompetence" of the management. The Punjab and Burma Reports for 1927 also refer to the disregard shown by some factory owners for the essential and oft-repeated precautions against accidents. In some of the provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act, accidents are classified according to their causing agent.† Plant and machinery account for the highest number of accidents, but there are also other important causes, such as falling weights, persons falling and slipping, explosions, fires, hot liquids and molten metals, flying splinters and hand tools. In Bengal, 42 per cent. of the total accidents in 1927 were caused by machinery and another 18 per cent. by falling objects. The percentages in Bombay were 31 and 18, and in Bihar and Orissa 38 and 21, respectively. The percentage of accidents in these three provinces in 1927, which were caused by persons slipping and falling, were 7, 10 and 9, respectively. In mines under the Indian Mines Act, the responsibility for fatal accidents in 1927, as gauged by the inspectors of mines, was as follows :—

	Number of fatal accidents.	Percentage of total number of fatal accidents.
Misadventure.. .. .	131	62.68
Fault of deceased .. .. .	45	21.53
Fault of fellow workmen .. .. .	7	3.35
Fault of subordinate officials .. .. .	14	6.70
Fault of management .. .. .	12	5.64
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>100.00</b>

It will be observed that with proper care a large proportion of the accidents might have been prevented.

\* The substance of the notification in these Provinces is reproduced in Appendix VIII.

† *Vide* Bengal and Assam Report for 1927, pages 55-56; B. and O. Report for 1927, pages 35-36; Bombay Report for 1927, pages 14-15; Madras Report for 1927, page 9.

The following is an abridged classification of fatal accidents which occurred during the last five years. The figures show the number of lives lost :—

Cause.	Period.						Per-centage.
	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1923-27.	
Explosions and suffocation by gases.	87	2	4	7	10	110	8
Falls of roof and side ..	193	151	123	122	122	711	51.7
In shafts .. .. .	32	31	28	17	10	118	8.58
Explosives .. .. .	11	26	19	17	27	100	7.27
Haulage .. .. .	29	20	15	26	24	114	8.29
Miscellaneous underground	13	17	20	12	23	85	6.19
Surface .. .. .	19	29	22	25	29	124	9.02
Electricity .. .. .	3	5	2	1	2	13	0.95
Total .. .. .	387	281	233	227	247	1,375	100.00

The bulk of mine accidents in India, as in all mining countries, are due to falls of roof and side.\* The heavy death rate on account of explosions in 1923 was due to an accident which occurred on the 4th January, 1923, at the Parbelia Colliery of the Bengal Coal Company, in the district of Manbhum, Bihar and Orissa, in which alone 74 lives were lost. Measured by the death rate this accident was the most serious accident that has occurred in the history of mining in India. The committee which was appointed by the local government to enquire into the accident came to the conclusion that it was due to an explosion of coal dust caused by a faultily placed shot. The committee also drew attention to the fact that owing to the introduction of coal-cutting machinery, which produced dust in greater quantity and of finer consistency than the old system of hand-cutting, the danger of explosions had greatly increased in Indian mines and recommended that this danger should be systematically investigated by a representative committee. A committee, with the Chief Inspector of Mines as Chairman, was accordingly appointed by the Government of India in 1923 with the following terms of reference:—"To enquire into the danger of explosions of coal dust in Indian mines; to make experiments on different kinds of coal dust with a view to determine their liability to explode or otherwise; and to report what means, if any, are necessary or desirable to provide against the risk of coal dust explosions in Indian coal mines." The committee submitted its first report in 1924 and a second report in 1929, but its investigations have not yet been completed.

*Accident Prevention.—Use of Safety Posters.*—Progress in the prevention of accidents rests to a very large extent in the education of the worker in safety methods. Regulations and safety devices have done much to check the speedily rising accident rate in factories and mines, but the Indian worker requires protection against his own ignorance and carelessness, which is due to his inability to recognize the risk which he runs in industrial employment. Some of the larger employers of labour are now beginning to realize the importance of educating the worker to a sense of greater responsibility to himself and to his fellow workers. The Government of Madras have issued a rule requiring all factory owners to affix in conspicuous places in every room in which machinery is in use a notice, both in English and in the vernacular of the district, warning all operatives of what they should or should not do within the factory. Such notices cannot, however, achieve very much in India, where the vast majority of the operatives are illiterate. Safety posters, which have been tried with great success in America and Europe, are the only means of warning the illiterate worker against the particular actions which may endanger his life or the life of his fellow-workers. But it is not so easy to design safety posters which are both simple and arresting enough to penetrate the mental equipment of the average Indian operative. So far few employers in India have recognized the value of safety posters. They have been introduced in some of the railway workshops in Bombay, and the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, reports that they have been so well received by the employees that they have been obtained and are being tried in other engineering shops in the province. The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association has also now recognized the value of safety posters as an aid in the reduction of accidents and has undertaken the preparation of some posters for the textile industry. The posters which are now under preparation will illustrate the danger on carding machines at the front plate, either during or after the shifting

\* An interesting analysis of accidents in mines is given in an article on "Regulations for the prevention of Accidents in Indian Mines," by Mr. R. R. Simpson, M.Sc., Chief Inspector of Mines in India, in the Journal of Indian Industries and Labour, Vol. I, Part III, for August, 1921.



process, dangers at the under side of the lickers-in, dangers of wearing unsuitable clothing, and the danger from careless sweeping under ring frames. Safety posters showing the right and the wrong way to perform various mining operations with safety have also been introduced in some of the collieries, and the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India indicates that mine-owners are to an increasing extent carrying on a "safety first" propaganda among their labour force. In other countries "safety committees," consisting of the management and the employees from the various departments, have been able to play an important part in checking the increase in the number of accidents by concentrating attention on all industrial risks. In India it is unfortunately not yet possible to secure the same degree of co-operation from the workers as in the west. Safety committees are, however, to be found in the railway workshops and from the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, it appears that an experiment is being made with such a committee in a jute mill in that province.

*First Aid and Medical Relief.*—Some of the local governments have framed rules requiring the provision, under the charge of responsible persons and in readily accessible positions, of first aid appliances containing an adequate number of sterilized dressings and some sterilized cotton wool in all factories employing 500 and more operatives. The legality of such rules is somewhat doubtful, but it may be stated that they have not been challenged in any of the five major and four minor provinces in which they have been in force during the last six years. Most of the factories are situated within easy reach of Government hospitals or hospitals maintained by local authorities, but many of the large and enlightened employers are already maintaining their own medical staff and equipment, which are readily available in case of accidents.

In Indian mines the mortality from injuries of a simple character is high, owing to the fact that in many cases the injured persons have to be carried long distances before they are able to obtain medical relief. The provision of "first aid" training is, therefore, of considerable importance. Rules have been framed by local governments under the Indian Mines Act of 1923, which require that in every mine in which 50 persons or more are employed underground, at least one person for every 100 persons employed underground shall be trained in ambulance work to the standard of St. John's First Aid Certificate. The rules also require mines which have been notified in this behalf by the local government under Section 18 of the Act to keep a suitably constructed stretcher and a sufficient supply of splints, bandages and other medical requirements. Classes in "first aid" are held both in the Jharia and the Raniganj coalfields. In 1927, such classes were held at 45 centres in the Jharia coalfield and at 14 centres in the Raniganj coalfield.

*Accidents in Factories.*

Year.	Number of persons injured in recorded accidents.				Number of persons injured for every 100,000 persons employed.			
	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.	Fatal	Serious.	Minor.	Total.
1904	91	586	2,383	3,060	15	100	405	520
1905	111	499	2,842	3,252	18	79	417	514
1906	86	738	2,739	3,563	13	107	396	516
1907	120	833	2,797	3,750	17	114	383	514
1908	128	891	2,680	3,699	17	116	349	482
1909	123	897	3,016	4,036	15	114	385	514
1910	139	886	3,354	5,379	18	112	423	553
1911	108	985	3,129	4,222	14	124	395	533
1912	122	1,019	3,367	4,508	14	117	387	518
1913	143	1,101	3,587	4,831	15	118	383	516
1914	114	798	4,017	4,929	12	84	422	518
1915	115	923	4,414	5,452	11	92	439	542
1916	169	1,098	3,956	5,223	16	103	373	492
1917	144	887	3,961	4,992	14	82	368	464
1918	180	1,108	3,775	5,063	16	99	335	450
1919	145	957	4,321	5,423	12	82	369	463
1920	190	1,197	4,371	5,767	16	96	353	465
1921	203	1,179	5,634	7,016	16	93	445	554
1922	191	1,207	5,562	6,960	14	89	409	512
1923	197	1,333	5,507	7,037	17	91	391	499
1924	284	1,680	8,055	10,029	20	118	565	703
1925	263	2,181	9,901	12,645	18	166	662	846
1926	370	3,155	11,441	14,966	18	208	753	979
1927	342	3,403	12,066	15,711	16	222	787	1,025

*Accidents in Mines.*

Year.	Number of persons injured in recorded accidents.			Number of persons injured for every 100,000 persons employed.		
	Fatal.	Serious.	Total.	Fatal.	Serious.	Total.
1904	73	84	157	68	78	146
1905	71	97	168	64	89	153
1906	106	82	188	82	64	146
1907	122	128	250	80	84	164
1908	195	140	335	118	85	203
1909	152	176	328	108	125	233
1910	186	110	296	129	76	205
1911	174	136	310	118	93	211
1912	185	153	338	112	93	205
1913	211	209	420	116	115	231
1914	191	258	449	103	139	242
1915	188	272	460	104	151	255
1916	206	297	503	104	150	254
1917	201	305	506	95	144	239
1918	243	232	475	102	98	200
1919	312	372	684	125	149	274
1920	225	301	526	98	129	225
1921	293	349	642	117	140	257
1922	243	300	543	106	131	237
1923	387	344	731	165	146	311
1924	281	424	705	109	164	273
1925	233	496	729	92	195	286
1926	227	540	767	87	208	295
1927	247	713	960	92	265	357

**Chapter IX.—Workmen's Compensation.**

*The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.*—The increase in the number of accidents consequent on the growing industrialization of the country made it necessary for the Government of India to consider the possibility of introducing a system of workmen's compensation in India. The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, which was passed in 1923 and came into force on the 1st July, 1924, was based on similar legislation in other countries, but it has certain distinctive features to suit the special conditions obtaining in India. The advisability of such a measure was generally recognized, but owing to the migratory habits of the Indian worker, the paucity of qualified medical men, the tendency to litigation which is strong even among the poorer classes, and the ignorance and illiteracy of the workmen, the introduction of a practicable system of workmen's compensation presented considerable difficulties. The Act was admittedly a tentative measure, and as stated by the Government of India in a letter addressed to local governments, "many of its features owe their origin more to a desire to minimize the difficulties attendant on the introduction of an entirely new measure of this kind than to any belief in their permanent value." It is not possible in this memorandum to describe in detail the provisions of the Indian Act, for which a reference is necessary to the Act itself. But it may be useful here to refer briefly to some of its more important features: these are dealt with under three heads, viz., the scope of the Act, the scale of compensation benefits, and administration.

(i) *Scope of the Act.*—The Act extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas. It was subsequently extended to the Shan States in Burma, Aden, the Military Cantonment of Bangalore and the Andaman Islands. The Act does not apply to all work in India, and as stated in the Statement of Objects and Reasons prefaced to the Bill on its introduction,

two criteria were followed in the determination of the classes to be included :—  
 (1) That the Bill should be confined to industries which are more or less organized ;  
 (2) that only workmen whose occupation is hazardous should be included.

Neither of these criteria can be said to be logically sound, but the inclusion of all classes of workmen would have rendered the administration of the Act impossible. As a first step, the object of the Government of India was to include only those workmen who are most affected by the increased risks of modern industry. The persons protected are those included within the definition of the term "workman" in Section 2 (1) (a) of the Act.

Casual labourers employed otherwise than for the purpose of the employers' trade or business are excluded from the scope of the Act. In all cases, excepting railway servants, persons employed on non-manual labour are excluded if their monthly wages exceed Rs. 300. For railway servants this limitation does not apply, provided they do not come under any of the other categories of workmen, e.g., persons employed in railway workshops or mines. The Act is not applicable to agricultural workers and workers in organized plantations nor to workers in small industrial establishments and in industries not making use of power of any kind. The Governor-General in Council is empowered to bring within the scope of the Act other classes of workmen whose occupations are of a hazardous nature. Several such classes have been added since the Act came into force, but no large extension of the scope of the Act is possible so long as the two criteria referred to above are maintained.

(ii) *Scale of Compensation Benefits.*—As stated by Dr. Downey, "the scale of compensation benefits is the crux of the compensation system."<sup>o</sup> The recommendation adopted by the Seventh International Labour Conference laid down that the minimum compensation should be two-thirds of the amount which the workman would have earned had he not been killed or incapacitated, and it is difficult to see how the workman or his family can, without hardship, do with less. In India, however, the agricultural connection of the industrial worker and the joint family system are of some avail to him in times of distress. The Act provides for the payment of compensation if personal injury is caused to a workman by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment, and also if the workman contracts certain occupational diseases mentioned in Section 3 (2) and in Schedule III while employed in the occupations specified therein. The compensation is based entirely on the earnings of the deceased or injured workman. The average monthly earnings are first calculated in accordance with Section 5, and these average monthly wages are then subject to what is called a table of "assumed wages" whereby meticulous calculations are avoided by a system of rounding. The scales of compensation laid down in the Act are as follows :—

(a) *Death.*—(i) For adults, 30 times the "assumed" monthly wages, with a maximum limit of Rs. 2,500 ; (ii) for minors (i.e., persons under the age of 15 years), Rs. 200.

(b) *Permanent Total Disablement.*—(i) For adults, 42 times the "assumed" monthly wages with a maximum limit of Rs. 3,500 ; (ii) for minors, 84 times the "assumed" monthly wages, with the same limit as for adults.

(c) *Permanent Partial Disablement.*—A proportion of the compensation payable for permanent total disablement calculated with reference to the reduction of earning power caused by the injury.

(d) *Temporary Disablement.*—After a waiting period of 10 days, for which no compensation is payable, an adult is entitled to a monthly compensation amounting to one-half of his monthly "assumed wages" subject to a maximum of Rs. 30, whereas a minor is entitled to two-thirds of his monthly "assumed wages" subject to the same maximum. In both cases the maximum period for which compensation is payable is five years. The Act also provides for the commutation of the recurring payments.

The scales of compensation in India are thus considerably below the minimum standard suggested in the recommendation of the International Labour Conference. The most striking feature of the Indian Act is the preference for lump sum payments as against recurring payments. This is due to the fact that industrial labour is recruited from distant areas and the payment of lump sums is administratively much more convenient than the payment of pensions. A waiting period of 10 days has been provided in the case of temporary disablement in order to exclude all cases

<sup>o</sup> Downey : *Workmen's Compensation*, page 35.

of trivial injury, which would give rise to administrative difficulties, and to minimize the risk of malingering. The question of the reduction of the waiting period or the adoption of the method known as "dating back" is being considered by the Government of India in consultation with local governments.\* The Act does not expressly provide for a minimum scale of compensation, but as the "assumed wages" of a workman cannot be less than Rs. 8, a minimum compensation is automatically provided for. The minimum is, however, probably inadequate and in the case of death it is only Rs. 240 for adults as against £200 in England.

(iii) *Administration*.—The Act is an "all-India" measure but its administration is entrusted to local governments. It is administered not by the ordinary civil courts but by special commissioners who are appointed by local governments. These officers are called upon to decide disputes and are empowered to suramon one or more expert assessors to help them if necessary. The right of appeal to the High Court against the decisions of the commissioners is severely limited. In introducing what is now the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, in the Legislative Assembly, the Honourable Mr. (now Sir) Charles Innes stated: "What we have tried to do is to frame a Bill under which men without any expert legal knowledge, the employer and the workman will be able to see for themselves whether in any particular case compensation is due, and if so, what the compensation amounts to." This desire to leave as few opportunities as possible for litigation has made the provisions of the Act somewhat rigid and has left very little discretion in the hands of those who are called upon to administer it. The liability to compensation, the amount of compensation and the persons to whom compensation is payable are determined by the law itself and cannot be varied by any tribunal. The commissioners for workmen's compensation are not authorized to take the initiative in securing for workmen what is due to them under the Act, and an application can only be made to them "if some question has arisen between the parties which they have been unable to settle by agreement,"† In the case of death, however, the employer must deposit the compensation with the commissioner who alone is authorized to distribute the amount among the dependants of the deceased workman. The Act further requires the employer in two cases to register with the commissioner an agreement with his workman for the payment of compensation. One is the case of the payment of any lump sum whether that sum is paid as compensation for permanent disablement or whether it represents the commuted value of half-monthly payments. The other is the case of the payment of any sum, whether a lump sum or a recurring payment to a person under a legal disability. In such cases the commissioner may refuse to register an agreement if he considers that the amount of compensation is inadequate or that the agreement was obtained by improper means. Finally, the Act requires employers to submit such returns as may be prescribed by the Government of India under Section 16.‡

*The Working of the Act*.—The Act has been in operation for nearly five years and, contrary to expectation, its administration has given rise to remarkably little difficulty. But the provisions of the Act are still unfamiliar to workmen in many areas, though each year of its operation has shown a distinct improvement in this respect. Statistics are not collected regarding all cases of compensation paid under the Act but the statistics available for the more important classes of workers, i.e., workers in factories, mines and docks and on railways and tramways, show that the total amount of compensation paid in 1927 in respect of these classes of workmen was over Rs. 11 lakhs, whereas in 1926 and in 1925 it was about Rs. 8½ lakhs and Rs. 6½ lakhs respectively. The total number of accidents among the same classes of workers which occurred in 1927 and which came within the purview of the Act was 15,216, as against 14,096 in 1926 and 11,371 in 1925. The number of applications filed before commissioners has also risen from 284 in 1925 to 554 in 1927. It is clear, however, that full use is not yet being made of the Act; in particular, the number of claims made in respect of minor disablements is still very far short of the number of possible claims. Even in the case of fatal accidents a number of dependants who could have preferred successful claims have failed to do so presumably on account of their ignorance of the law. In the Bengal Presidency no application for compensation was made by any colliery worker in 1925; in 1926 only seven applications were filed, while the number of those filed in 1927 was only four. In the engineering works in the same Presidency only a small proportion of the workers appear to be aware of the existence of the Act. In Burma no compensation has yet been paid for occupational disease, although it is known that cases of lead poisoning occur every year. A hopeful

\* *Vide* circular letter printed as Appendix IX.

† Section 22 (1) of the Act.

‡ Returns have been prescribed for certain classes of employees in Notification No. L.-1189, dated the 28th June, 1924, issued by the Government of India.

feature is the increasingly active part which labour organizations, particularly in Bombay and Bengal, are taking in furthering the claims of their members. A workmen's compensation aid society has been formed in Karachi, which is reported to be doing particularly useful work in this direction. The Act has so far given rise to remarkably little litigation. The number of contested cases before commissioners during 1927 was less than 300 and appeals against the orders of the commissioners have been rare. The experience which has been gained of the working of the Act does not confirm the fear which was expressed in certain quarters that it would lead to cases of deliberate self-mutilation on the part of workmen, with the object of obtaining compensation. No such case has come to notice and in regard to malingering the following statement made by Mr. W. J. Herridge, Manager, Calcutta Claims Bureau, is of some interest :—

" There is some malingering among the more severely injured workmen, but this to a certain extent is only natural. Such malingering, however, is what doctors call 'Traumatic Neurasthenia,' and is particularly noticeable in serious bone injury cases, especially in spine and pelvis fractures. The expression implied that the injured worker does not make any appreciable effort to get well until his case has been settled. When the claim is settled and the worker has received his lump sum compensation, he is relieved of much mental anxiety, and thus obtains that perfect and undisturbed bodily and mental rest without which recovery is well-nigh impossible. This is a very strong argument in favour of payment of lump sum compensation as opposed to weekly payments or pensions."

*Effect on industry.*—A compulsory system of workmen's compensation does enhance the cost of production, but not to any appreciable extent. Dr. Downey in his book on Workmen's Compensation\* estimates that a really adequate scale of compensation benefits, such as has never been established in the United States or elsewhere, would only add something like ten cents to the cost of a sixty dollar suit of clothes, thirty-five cents to the cost of a fourteen dollar ton of anthracite coal and two hundred dollars to the cost of a ten thousand dollar home. The effect of the Indian Act with its comparatively low scale of compensation benefits must therefore be almost negligible. Complaints have, however, been made by the coal industry, particularly by the owners of small coal mines, many of whom have been compelled to close down owing to the severe depression with which the industry has been faced. In dealing with these complaints the Indian Coal Committee, 1925,† observed as follows :—

" Frequent mention was made in the evidence before us of the effect of legislation in increasing costs. The requirements of the new Mines Act, the new Boiler Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act together with the higher standard demanded in such matters as housing, sanitation and water-supply have undoubtedly contributed their quota to the enhanced cost of raising coal, but even at the highest estimate the cumulative effect of these cannot in our opinion be placed at more than four annas per ton. The influence of legislation on costs is thus not comparable in importance with that of the increase in wages."

In Bihar and Orissa it is reported that some of the smaller coal mines have shown an increasing tendency to resist claims, and to deny their liability to pay compensation while the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines refers to the fact that the proprietors of coal mines in the Jhelum district of the Punjab are not satisfied with the privileges enjoyed by the miners under the Workmen's Compensation Act, as some of them have had to pay as compensation on a single accident more than they could earn during a month.‡ An unexpected increase in the number of serious and fatal accidents may undoubtedly make a big hole in the profits of a concern, but the remedy for this lies in accident insurance, and this is particularly necessary in the case of small concerns which have not sufficient capital to meet possible claims under the Act.

*Insurance facilities.*—The handling of claims under the Act requires considerable attention to numerous details of procedure, and it is here that insurance companies with their specially trained staff can be of considerable help to the employer. Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of the leading insurance companies in the country, and the most important step has been the establishment of a Claims Bureau at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. These bureaux, which are supported by practically all the leading insurance companies engaged in this particular line, have been set up with the main object of acting on behalf of their constituent companies in connection with the settlement of claims under Workmen's Compensation policies submitted to them for disposal. The works of the Calcutta

\* Op. cit., page 86.

† Paragraph 39 of the Report.

‡ Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India for 1927, page 3.

Claims Bureau in particular has grown with great rapidity since it first came into being. In the first year of operation it handled a total of 1,900 claims; in the second year nearly 2,300; in the third 2,900 and in the fourth over 5,000. The provincial reports on the working of the Act indicate that insurance is widely resorted to by the employers in Bengal, Bombay and Madras. In Burma most of the larger employers of labour are also insured against the risk, but in other provinces accident insurance does not appear to have made much progress.

*Amendments.*—The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act has been twice amended, once in 1926 and again in 1929. The Amending Act of 1926 merely modified the provision relating to occupational diseases in order to bring it into conformity with a draft convention adopted by the International Labour Conference. The amendments made in 1929 related mostly to matters of detail, but the opportunity was also taken to make two important changes. The scope of the Act was extended to workmen employed upon a railway by a person fulfilling a contract with the railway administration, and proviso (c) to sub-section (1) of Section 3 which restricted the payment of compensation in the case of workmen employed in the construction, repair or demolition of a building or bridge only to cases of death and permanent total disablement was removed. The Amending Act of 1929 also incorporated the provisions of the notifications issued by the Governor-General in Council bringing within the scope of the Act certain classes of workers such as inspectors, mail guards, sorters or van peons in the Railway Mail Service, persons employed in connection with certain operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas and persons employed in blasting operations. In regard to dock labourers, the Act was expanded so as to include all persons employed for the purpose of loading, unloading, fuelling, constructing, repairing, demolishing, cleaning or painting any ship. No attempt made to make any modification of the principles underlying the Act or of its more important features.

The Government of India have in their letter No. L.-1125, dated the 30th November, 1928,\* addressed local governments on the question of the further revision of the Act, but the replies of some of the local governments have not yet been received.

### Chapter X.—Hours of Work.

*Statutory limitation in factories.*—The Indian Factories Act prescribes a daily as well as weekly limit to the hours of work in factories and provides for rest intervals and for a weekly holiday. The hours of work of adults in factories are limited to eleven † in any one day and to sixty‡ in any one week. Section 21 of the Act provides for a rest period of at least one hour at intervals not exceeding six hours or at the request of the employees concerned two rest periods of half an hour each, at intervals not exceeding five hours. With the previous sanction of the local government and at the request of the employees concerned the rest interval may also be reduced to half an hour for each male person provided that they are not employed for more than eight and a half hours on each working day, and are not required to work for more than five hours continuously. Section 22 of the Act provides for a weekly holiday on Sundays or on any other day of the week, provided that no person is allowed to work continuously for more than 10 days without a holiday for a whole day. For children the daily hours are limited to six, and a rest period of half an hour is obligatory if their daily hours of work exceed five-and-a-half hours. The rest period, where necessary, must be so fixed that no child is required to work continuously for more than four hours. The Act further prohibits the employment of women and children for a period of 10½ hours during the night. No child can be employed in more than one factory on the same day, but adults may be so employed in such circumstances as may be prescribed by the local government.§ The Governments of Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces are the only local governments which have prescribed the circumstances under which adults may be employed in more than one factory on the same day. The rules framed by these local governments invest the Inspector of Factories with the power to sanction such employment if he is satisfied that the adults concerned are not employed for more than 10 hours on any one day, and that they receive the weekly holiday prescribed by section 22 of the Act. ¶

In order to maintain a check over hours of work, etc., the Act provides that the manager of a factory shall fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in his factory, and that no person shall be employed except during such hours.† A register has also to be maintained of all persons employed in a factory

\* Appendix IX. † Section 28. ‡ Section 27. § Section 25. \*\* Section 26 of the Indian Factories Act.

in the form prescribed by the local government showing their hours of work and the nature of their respective employment. The local government can exempt, by notification, any factory or class of factories from this requirement of the law in the case of adults only, if it is satisfied that no contravention of the provisions of the Act regarding hours of employment and holidays is possible. The Inspector of Factories can also, by an order in writing, allow a factory to maintain a muster roll or any other register in lieu of the register prescribed by the local government if he is satisfied that such muster roll or register gives the necessary particulars.\*

*Hours, intervals and holidays in Indian factories.*—Statement V of the statistics of factories, which is published annually by the Government of India, gives the information available in regard to hours of work, holidays and rest intervals in factories. The percentage of factories in India maintaining a week of 48 hours for men was 27 in 1927. In 14 per cent. more factories the men employed worked for 54 hours or less. The percentage of factories working more than 54 hours a week was 59. For women the corresponding percentages were 31, 13 and 56. Children were employed in 1,564 factories in 1927. In 563 or 36 per cent. of the factories the children employed were worked for 30 hours a week or less, but in the remainder they were worked up to the maximum limit permissible under the Act, *i.e.*, 36 hours a week. The statistics of factories do not show the hours of work in particular industries. From the figures given in the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, it appears that in the cotton factories in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur the normal hours of work for men and women are the maximum prescribed by the Act, whereas the normal hours for children do not exceed 30 in a week except in Bombay District, where there are very few children employed in the cotton mills. In the jute mills of Bengal in which a system of multiple-shifts has been in force, the hours of work are from 5.30 a.m. to 7 p.m. The working of the multiple-shift system in these mills will be seen from the diagram,† which shows the time when each shift is at work, and also the total daily hours of work. The daily hours of work of each of these general shifts are 8½, 9½ and 9 respectively; for piece-workers the daily hours of work are generally 11, and for children 6. In 1922 the jute mills under the Indian Jute Mills Association arrived at an agreement whereby each mill undertook not to work more than 13½ hours a day for 4 days in the week, *i.e.*, a total of 54 hours in the week. In the case of the mills which had adopted the single-shift system it was agreed that the working hours would be 11 hours a day for 4 days of the week and 10 hours on the fifth day, *i.e.*, a total of 54 hours a week. This agreement remained in force till the 1st July, 1929, from which date the Association has decided to introduce a 60-hour week in all jute mills under its control. The change to a 60-hour week may result in the abandonment of the complicated multiple-shift system under which it is exceedingly difficult for the Inspector of Factories to exercise effective control over the hours of work. But the operatives are opposed to the change, as they fear that it will throw some of them out of employment, while the remainder will not secure an increase in wages proportionate to the increase in their hours of work. In the tea factories in Assam and Bengal the hours of work for adults are reported to be generally in the neighbourhood of 48 in a week. In 1927 in no less than 3,704, out of a total of 7,515 factories in British India, holidays were granted on one or more weekdays in addition to Sundays. The number of factories in which a rest period of one full hour was granted on each working-day was 5,299. In 768 more factories the rest period was split into two intervals of half an hour each, while the number of factories in which the rest period was reduced to half an hour in accordance with the proviso to Section 21 (1) (a) of the Act was only 38.

*Exempting provisions of the Indian Factories Act.*—The provisions of the Act relating to hours of employment and holidays do not apply to persons who are defined by the rules made by local governments under the Act, as persons holding positions of supervision or management or to persons employed in a confidential capacity. The rules made by local governments provide that the following persons shall be deemed to hold positions of supervision and management:—(1) the manager of a factory; (2) assistant managers; (3) any other person who, in the opinion of the Inspector of Factories, holds the position of supervision and management. Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces give a more detailed list, and the Bombay Government further lays down that all clerks, accountants and timekeepers shall be deemed to be employed in a confidential capacity. In such circumstances and subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by local governments, the provisions contained in sections 21, 22, 27 and 28 of the Indian Factories Act do not apply to

\* Section 35 of the Indian Factories Act.

† Not reproduced here. The diagram is given in the Memorandum of the Indian Jute Mills Association, Bengal. Vol. V, Part I, page 296.

work on urgent repairs. The further exemptions which may be granted by local governments from certain of the provisions of the Act are shown in the following statement :—

Serial No.	Nature of work, class of factory, class of workers, or circumstances in which exemptions may be granted.	Provisions of the Act from which exemptions may be granted.
1	Preparatory or complementary work— Section 30 (1) (a)	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
2	Essentially intermittent work— Section 30 (1) (b).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
3	Work requiring continuous production for technical reasons— Section 30 (1) (c).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
4	Factories supplying public with articles of prime necessity— Section 30 (1) (d).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
5	Seasonal factories— Section 30 (1) (e) (i).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
6	Factories which can only work at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces— Section 30 (1) (e) (ii).	Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment).
7	Exceptional press of work— Section 30 (2).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
8	Tea, indigo and coffee factories— Section 32.	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday).
9	Persons employed in an engine-room or boiler-house of a factory— Section 32A (a).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
10	Fish-curing or fish canning factory— Section 32A (b).	Section 24 (a) (employment of women in the night).

It will be observed that exemptions can only be granted from the provisions of Sections 21, 22, 24 (a), 26, 27 and 28 of the Act. No exemption can be granted from the provision of the Act relating to the employment of children in the night (Section 23 (b)), nor can any woman or child be permitted to be employed for more than eleven hours\* or six hours† respectively. Except in the case of item 7 in the statement, the power vested in local governments to grant exemptions is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The local government may also impose such conditions as it may consider necessary before granting any exemption. In the case of items 1, 2, and 7, the Act further provides‡ that where the hours worked exceed 60 a week the payment for overtime shall be at least one and a quarter times the normal rate.

\* Section 24 (b) of the Act.

† Section 23 (c) of the Act.

‡ Section 31 of the Act.



*Exemptions in Factories.*—The total number of factories under the Indian Factories Act was 7,515 in 1927, and the number of factories in which the majority of the operatives were exempted from the various provisions of the Act is shown below :—

Section of Act from which exemption was granted.	Number of factories.
Section 21 (rest interval) .. .. .	1,440
Section 22 (weekly holiday) .. .. .	1,883
Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment) .. .. .	896
Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week) .. .. .	385
Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day) .. .. .	236

Only in one factory in India situated in the Madras Presidency was it necessary to grant an exemption from the provisions of Section 24 (a) of the Act.

The exemptions granted by local governments under the Indian Factories Act may for convenience be divided into two classes, general exemptions and special exemptions. The former consists of exemptions which are of a general nature and applicable to a specified class of work or a specified class of workers without reference to the class of factory in which the work may be carried on or in which the workers may be employed; the latter consists of exemptions which are granted in favour of a particular industry or a particular class of factories or in favour of a specified class of work or a specified class of workers in a particular industry or a particular class of factories. In the Punjab and the Central Provinces no exemptions of a general nature have been granted, but in all the other provinces the exemptions are both general and special. The nature of the exemptions under both these classes, the conditions under which they are granted and their scope are shown in Appendix X and Appendix XI.\* It will be observed that the procedure followed in the different provinces is by no means uniform. For instance, the work of boiler attendants and engine drivers is treated as preparatory or complementary work (Section 30 (1) (a)) in some provinces, whilst in others it is treated as essentially intermittent (Section 30 (1) (b)) or as work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons (Section 30 (1) (c)). Further, the scope of the exemptions differs from province to province, as also the conditions under which they are granted. Thus, breweries in Madras are exempted only from the provisions of Section 22 and in Bihar and Orissa from the provisions of Sections 21 and 22, while in the United Provinces and the Punjab they are further exempted from the provisions of Section 28.

The exception provided for in Section 30 (3) of the Act in regard to work on urgent repairs applies only in such circumstances as may be prescribed by the local government. In Bombay, the Punjab and the Central Provinces no such circumstances have been notified, and the exception provided for by Section 30 (3) of the Act is not applicable in these provinces. The circumstances and conditions prescribed in the other provinces vary to some extent. In the United Provinces the exception is restricted to adults, whereas in Bengal it is still further restricted to men only. In Madras, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam no such restriction is imposed. In Madras the operatives cannot be worked for more than 18 hours a day on three consecutive days or for more than 80 hours in any period of seven days. In Bengal the average weekly hours in any one month are restricted to 60, whilst in Assam they are restricted to 66. In the United Provinces the average weekly hours of an operative employed on urgent repairs in any period of four weeks are not to exceed 66. In Madras, Bengal and Assam no condition is prescribed with regard to the rest interval, but the Government of Burma have insisted on an interval of one hour for every ten hours of work, while the Government of Bihar and Orissa require an interval of one hour to be given before the ninth hour of work commences. The Government of the United Provinces provide that a rest interval of one hour shall be given during the day "as work permits." The Governments of Bengal, United Provinces, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam also provide specifically for fortnightly holidays for the operatives employed on urgent repairs.

In the case of other exemptions the general practice in all provinces is to insist on a holiday at least once a fortnight wherever an exemption is granted from the provisions of Section 22 of the Act. Three provinces (*viz.*, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces) have framed a rule under the Act which provides that in the case of every exemption from Section 22 of the Act provision shall be made for compensatory periods of rest. The rules framed by all local

\* Not printed. Particulars are given in the Local Government's memoranda.

Governments, excluding Madras and Burma, also prescribe an overtime limit for all exemptions from the provisions of sections 27 and 28 which are granted under section 30 (1) and (2) of the Act. The limits prescribed in the case of men are shown below:—

	Maximum daily hours including overtime.	Maximum weekly hours including overtime.	Maximum hours of overtime in the month.
Bombay and the Central Provinces .. .. .	..	72	..
Bengal .. .. .	..	..	40
The U.P., Punjab, B. and O., and Assam .. .. .	12	..	..

In the case of women, all the local Governments except Madras have framed rules to secure that no woman is worked overtime for more than six hours a week. In Madras rules were originally framed prescribing overtime limits for men and women, but these rules were recently cancelled by the local Government on the advice of the Advocate-General, Madras, who expressed the opinion that they were not strictly in conformity with the provisions of the Indian Factories Act, inasmuch as the Act requires local Governments to prescribe the conditions under which exemptions are granted in the notifications sanctioning the exemptions and not by means of rules framed under the Act. In this connection, it may be pointed out that the Washington Hours of Work Convention, which has been ratified by India, provides that the competent authority shall fix by regulations the limits of overtime that may be worked in exceptions made from the normal hours of work.\*

When the Indian Factories (Amendment) Act, XXVI of 1926, came into force the Government of India suggested certain broad principles for the guidance of local Governments in granting exemptions. In view of the important amendment made in section 21 of the Act, which made it possible in certain circumstances to reduce the rest interval from one hour to half an hour, the Government of India hoped that it would be possible for local Governments to withdraw a number of exemptions from the provisions of that section. Where exemptions were absolutely necessary, it was suggested that care should be taken to ensure that the operatives so exempted were not required to work continuously for unnecessarily long periods, and that when idle intervals were not a necessary concomitant of their work, the conditions laid down by local Governments should secure for them, in as many cases as possible, compensatory periods of rest. With regard to exemptions from the provisions of section 22 of the principal Act, the Government of India drew attention to the necessity of the strict fulfilment of the Draft Convention relating to the weekly rest day, adopted by the Third International Labour Conference. They also pointed out that section 22 and section 27 were the most important provisions of the Act relating to hours of work and that as few operatives as possible should be exempted from the operation of these sections. Local Governments have since been engaged in reviewing the exemptions granted by them and the revisions so far made indicate that where the existing exemptions have not been withdrawn, suitable conditions have been imposed to secure, as far as possible, compensatory benefits for the employees.

*Hours of Work in Mines.*—The first attempt to regulate the hours of work in mines was made in 1923 as a result of the Hours of Work Convention which was adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919. The Indian Mines Act of 1923 provides that no person shall be employed in a mine for more than 60 hours in any one week, if he works above ground, or for more than 54 hours in any one week if he works below ground. The Act also provides for a weekly holiday but does not specify any particular day for the purpose. In every mine a register has to be maintained of all persons employed in the mine, of their hours of work, of their days of rest, and of the nature of their respective employments. The Indian Mines Act of 1923 did not impose any limit on the hours during which any person may be employed in a mine on any one day. A proposal to impose such a limit was made in the Legislative Assembly when the Bill was under consideration but was rejected. The opposition to this proposal was based on the ground that the miners prefer to work long hours on certain days of the week and to return to their homes in the village for the rest of the week, and that they would resist any attempt to impose a shorter working day which would necessitate their having to work for more days in the week. The Government of India, however, gave an undertaking at the time that they would examine, in consultation with local Governments, the question of the introduction of a compulsory system of shifts. Local Governments were accordingly addressed on the subject in June, 1923, and a suggestion was made to them that, to begin with, the day might be divided into two shifts of 12 hours each. It was pointed out that as the workers in the mines became accustomed to the

\* Article 6 of the Washington Hours of Work Convention.

stricter regulation of hours the time would come when a shorter working day, with definite rest intervals, might be imposed. The suggestion made by the Government of India, though opposed by the Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation, met with the approval of the local Governments concerned. In March, 1927, a Bill to amend the Indian Mines Act was introduced in the Legislative Assembly. The main purpose of this Bill was to enforce more regular working hours and to prevent miners from spending unduly long hours underground. The Bill sought to prohibit the employment of any person in a mine for more than 12 hours in any consecutive period of 24 hours, and to make it compulsory for mineowners working their mines for more than 12 hours in any day to adopt a system of shifts so arranged that not more than one shift of persons employed in work of the same kind shall be at work in the mine at the same time. The Bill, on being circulated, met with no serious opposition and was passed by both Chambers of the Legislature in 1928. It was considered necessary to allow mineowners a period of grace in order to enable them to make the necessary adjustments in their mines and the main provisions of the amending Act do not therefore come into force until the 7th April, 1930. A proposal was made in the Select Committee and in the Legislative Assembly for the introduction of a compulsory 8-hour day in mines but was rejected. The Select Committee, however, expressed the view that the eight hours' shift should be gradually worked up to in Indian mines and it accordingly recommended that Government should re-examine the position in this respect after the Bill has been in force for a period of three years. Some mines have already introduced an eight hour shift and although the daily hours may be excessive in mines which do not work under a system of shifts, it will be seen from the table printed on pages 88 and 89 of the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for 1927 that the average hours worked in a week in the major coalfields do not exceed 48 in the case of underground workers and 52 in the case of surface workers.

*Exempting Provisions and the Use made of Them in Mines.*—As in the Indian Factories Act, the provisions in the Indian Mines Act relating to hours of employment\* do not apply to persons who may by rules be defined to be persons holding positions of supervision or management or employed in a confidential capacity. Under section 46 of the Act, the Governor-General in Council is empowered to exempt any local area or any mine or group or class of mines or any part of a mine or any class of persons from the operation of all or any specified provisions of the Act. The exemptions† granted by the Governor-General in Council are as under:—

Exempted from all the provisions of the Act:—

1. Mines of *kanhar, murum, laterite, gravel, sand, clay* (not including kaolin, china clay, or white clay), fire clay, ochre, stone, earth, fuller's earth, bauxite, slate, and lime-stone:

Provided that the depth of the excavation measured from the level of the adjacent ground nowhere exceeds 20 feet and that not more than 50 persons are employed at any one time in or about the mine: Provided further that this exemption shall not apply to:—(a) Slate mines in the province of the Punjab and in the Monghyr district of the province of Bihar and Orissa. (b) Limestone mines in the districts of Shahabad and Jubbulpore. (c) The Danapahari fire-clay mine situate in Bonjamuri village in the Asansol sub-division of the Burdwan district.

2. Borings and oil wells.
3. Mines or parts of mines in which excavation is being carried out for prospecting purposes only and not for the purpose of obtaining minerals for use or sale:

Provided that—

- (i) not more than 20 persons are employed in or about such excavation;
  - (ii) no part of the excavation extends beneath the superjacent ground; and
  - (iii) the depth of the excavation measured from the level of the adjacent ground nowhere exceeds 20 feet or, in the case of an excavation for coal, 50 feet.
4. Iron-ore mines worked without mechanical power, the whole of the ore from which is supplied locally to village smelters and blacksmiths.
  5. In the North-West Frontier Province:—
    - (i) Salt mines in the Kohat district.
    - (ii) Carbonaceous clay pits in the Hazara district.

\* Section 23.

† The provisions of the notification are printed in a slightly abridged form.

6. In the Province of Burma :—
- (i) Steatite mines in the Kyaukpyu, Chin Hills, and Minbu Districts and the Pakokku Hill Tracts and native precious stone mines in the Katha district.
  - (iii) The ore-dressing plant of the Burma Corporation, Limited, at Namtu, Northern Shan States.
7. In the Province of Bihar and Orissa :—
- Five specified coke factories.
  - (vi) Open excavations for coal in the Rajmahal coalfields in the district of the Santhal Parganas, provided that not more than 20 persons are employed in or about the mine at any one time.
8. In the United Provinces :—
- Certain specified stone quarries in the Mirzapur district.
9. In the Presidency of Bombay :—
- (i) Kharkhada stone quarry in the Kaira district.

Exempted from the provisions contained in sections 23 and 28 :—

All mines in the Federated Shan States, and such mines in the Tavoy and Mergui districts as are worked under the tribute system.

The exemptions are from all the provisions of the Act, except in the case of the mines in the Federated Shan States and in the Tavoy and Mergui districts worked under the "tribute" system, where it is necessary to grant exemptions only from the provisions of sections 23 and 28 of the Act. In these mines the management deal only with the "tributaries" who are paid for the quantity of ore which they produce. The "tribute" workers come with their "tributary" and work in the mine whenever they please. They are paid by the "tributary" and the management exercise no control whatsoever over them.

Section 46 of the Indian Mines Act also confers a similar power on local Governments but this power can only be exercised on the occurrence of a public emergency. In addition, the Act authorizes the manager of a mine to employ persons for longer hours than is permissible under the Act in case of an emergency involving serious risk to the safety of the mine or of persons employed therein, but on each occasion in which this power is exercised by the manager a record of the fact must be made immediately and shown to the Chief Inspector or the Inspector of Mines at his next inspection of the mine.

#### Chapter XL.—Women and Children in Factories and Mines.

*Employment of Children in Factories.*—The revision of the Indian Factories Act in 1922 raised the minimum age of children from nine to twelve and the maximum age from fourteen to fifteen. No child can be employed in a factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted by a certifying surgeon showing that he is not less than twelve years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate. A child cannot also be employed during a period of ten and a-half hours during the night and his hours of work are limited to six in any one day.

The number of children employed in factories during the years 1921-27 is shown in the following table :—

Year.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1921	56,926	11,187	68,113
1922	56,552	11,106	67,658
1923	61,841	12,779	74,620
1924	60,240	12,291	72,531
1925	57,199	11,526	68,725
1926	50,015	10,079	60,094
1927	40,028	9,534	49,562

The decrease since 1921 in the number of children employed in factories has been a little over 27 per cent. whilst the total factory population has risen during the period from 1,266,395 to 1,533,382, i.e., an increase of 21 per cent., and the total number of factories has increased from 4,059 to 7,515, i.e., by 85 per cent. The reduction in the number of children would have been considerably greater but for the fact that the revision in 1922 also brought within the scope of the Indian Factories Act a number of seasonal factories which employ a larger percentage of children than perennial factories. Thus the large increase in the number of children in 1923 is explained by the fact that the tea factories in Assam employing no less than 11,000 children were now brought within the scope of the Act.\* Further, the amendmen

\* Cf. Section 3 (1) (d) of the old Act.

of the Act in 1922 did not apply to children who were lawfully employed in a factory on or before the 1st July, 1921\*, and it was not until 1924 that full effect was given to the new age restrictions for children. The effect which the amendment of the Act in 1922 had on the employment of children is seen more clearly from the following table which gives the number of children employed in jute mills and in cotton spinning and weaving mills during the years 1921-27:—

Year.	No. of children employed in jute mills.	No. of children employed in cotton mills.
1921 .. .. .	29,372	23,828
1922 .. .. .	24,428	20,451
1923 .. .. .	28,612	18,087
1924 .. .. .	28,046	16,111
1925 .. .. .	26,671	14,140
1926 .. .. .	21,212	12,830
1927 .. .. .	19,803	12,128

According to the Chief Inspector of Factories, the reduction in recent years of the number of children employed in jute mills is due principally to the gradual introduction of the single shift system in place of the multiple shift system, to which reference has been made in an earlier chapter. The credit for the large reductions in the number of children employed in textile mills must be given to the strictness of inspection and to the increasing efficiency of the arrangements for the certification of children which have, to a large extent, reduced the possibility of the employment of children in two mills on the same day.

The double employment of children in factories was an abuse which it was by no means easy to check particularly in Ahmedabad where it was associated with the system of recruitment known as the *sathi* system. Under this system children are brought from the villages to work in mills under an agreement whereby they are maintained by others who take in return the wages earned by them. An enquiry which was made in 1925 by the Inspector of Factories and the Certifying Surgeon showed, however, that only a very small percentage of the children employed in factories were not living with their parents or relatives. The *sathi* system was not therefore the main cause of the double employment of children at Ahmedabad. In order to strengthen the hands of the Inspectors of Factories in stamping out this abuse, a section† was added to the Indian Factories Act by the Amending Act of 1926 providing for the punishment of parents and guardians who allowed children to be employed in two mills on the same day. Eleven convictions, all in Ahmedabad, were obtained under this new section in 1926 and the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, reports that these prosecutions had a beneficial result and that no such cases were detected in the following year.

The Indian Factories Act does not prohibit the admission in factories of children who cannot by reason of their age be lawfully employed therein, but if a child over the age of six years is found inside any part of a factory in which children are employed, the onus of proving that such a child was not actually employed in the factory is thrown on the employer.‡ The Inspectors of Factories are also empowered to prohibit the presence or children below the age of twelve years inside any part of a factory where any risk is involved to their health or safety.§

*Employment of Women.*—The number of women employed in factories during the years 1921-27 is shown in the following table:—

Year.	Number of women employed.
1921 .. .. .	187,596
1922 .. .. .	206,887
1923 .. .. .	221,045
1924 .. .. .	235,332
1925 .. .. .	247,514
1926 .. .. .	249,669
1927 .. .. .	253,158

There has been a steady increase in the number of women employed in factories and the rate of increase has been even greater than that of the total factory population. The number of women employed in factories in 1927 was 35 per cent. higher

\* Section 14 (3) of Act II of 1922.

† Section 44A of the Indian Factories Act.

‡ Section 46 of the Indian Factories Act.

§ Section 19A of the Indian Factories Act.

than in 1921, whereas during the same period the total factory population rose by 21 per cent. only. The large increase in the employment of women is due partly to the restrictions imposed on the employment of children and partly to the inclusion within the scope of the Act in 1922 of quasi-agricultural factories (e.g., in tea gardens which are dependent on woman labour to a larger extent than other factories).

An important change that the revision of 1922 made in regard to the employment of women was the repeal of the provision\* of the 1911 Act which permitted the employment of women at night in ginning factories. In view of this amendment, the Government of India considered that they were in a position to ratify the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919 without undertaking any further legislation. But the Indian Factories Act secures a night period of rest of only ten and a-half hours as against eleven hours provided for by Article 3 of the Convention. At the time of ratification it was thought that, though the Indian Factories Act was not in strict conformity with the Convention, advantage could be taken of the provisions of Article 7 which allows a shorter period of rest during the night in countries where the climate renders work by day particularly trying to the health of the operatives, provided compensatory rest is accorded during the day. But Article 7 of the Convention has not been formally applied to any part of India and the Government of India were under the impression that in practice a rest period of full eleven hours, as required by the Convention, was being secured for women operatives. Recently, however, it has come to notice that this is not the case in the jute mills in Bengal which were working under the multiple shift system. As will be seen from the diagram,† some of the shifts in which women are employed, commence work at 5.30 a.m. and are not free till 7 p.m.; the night interval in their case being thus reduced to 10½ hours only. On an enquiry made from the local Government, it was discovered that about 80 per cent. of the women employed in the jute mills are given the shorter period of rest during the night. The Indian Jute Mills Association, whose attention was drawn to the matter, represented that the existing arrangements in the jute mills were "in the best interests of the workers themselves" and that there was no contravention of the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night, as Article 7 of that Convention was particularly applicable to Bengal. The local Government did not, however, agree that the shorter rest period during the night was in the best interests of the women concerned and pointed out that the mills were not closed during the hottest part of the day. A similar difficulty has arisen in connection with the Convention concerning the night work of young persons which has also been ratified by the Government of India. The Committee appointed by the Conference in 1929 to examine the summary of the reports submitted under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles pointed out in regard to this Convention that in India "the eleven-hour night rest period did not appear to be expressly secured by legislation and it would be useful to know whether it is secured in practice." From the diagram† it is clear that in jute mills working under the multiple shift system children employed on one of the shifts are actually given a shorter period of rest during the night than is provided for by the Convention.

*Use made of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act.*—Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act was inserted in 1922 mainly to protect children employed in factories which would not, except for their notification by the local Government, come within the scope of the Act. In 1922 only one factory situated in the United Provinces was notified by the local Government, but the number has been increasing steadily, as shown below :—

Year.	No. of factories notified.
1923 .. .. .	11
1924 .. .. .	60
1925 .. .. .	100
1926 .. .. .	122
1927 .. .. .	160

The power vested in local Governments by this sub-section has been utilized in all provinces except Burma. In 1924 the Government of the Central Provinces discovered that small ginning factories were being constructed in the province with a view to escape the restrictions imposed by the Indian Factories Act, but these

\* Section 27 of Act XII of 1911.

† Not printed: the diagram is reproduced in the memorandum of the Indian Jute Mills Association.

factories were promptly notified by the local Government. In Bombay the local Government have notified small match factories where children of tender years were being employed in large numbers under dangerous conditions. In Bihar and Orissa the local Government have notified some saw mills employing less than 20 persons which were in a dangerously unfenced condition. In Burma the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories indicates that there are a number of rice mills and saw mills employing less than 20 persons in which the machinery is not properly fenced. The question of the notification of such factories has been under the consideration of the local Government for some time.

In one important instance a local Government has not considered it advisable to make use of this provision of the Act for the protection of children employed in factories which do not automatically come within the scope of the Indian Factories Act. In 1927 it came to the notice of the Government of India that children of tender age were being worked for unduly long hours in the carpet factories at Amritsar, which are outside the scope of the Act as they do not use any mechanical power. The attention of the Government of the Punjab was drawn to the matter and the suggestion was made that the factories might be notified under section 2 (3) (b) of the Act. The local Government pointed out, however, that the question of notification had been considered in 1924 but the conclusion reached was that no useful purpose would be served by bringing these carpet factories within the scope of the Indian Factories Act. The carpet factory owners at Amritsar do not employ children, but pay the master-weavers a fixed sum for work done by measurement. The children in the factories are employed by the master-weavers and are paid by them. In the opinion of the local Government any attempt to bring the carpet factories within the scope of the Factories Act would lead to the erection of single looms in the homes of the workers where the children would be employed under infinitely worse conditions than those prevailing in the factories. The local Government, however, exerted its influence privately with the carpet factory owners and the master-weavers in order to secure an improvement in the conditions in which children were employed in such factories. As a result, the carpet factory owners agreed to the immediate exclusion of children under eight years of age from their factories, and to the appointment of a qualified medical practitioner who in addition to looking after the health of the children would be required to certify the age of each child employed in carpet factories. A higher minimum age for children was not acceptable to the industry because it was argued that, unless boys are employed on this work from their childhood, they would not be able to learn the art. In regard to the working hours of children nothing could be done by the local Government on account of the opposition of the master-weavers, who maintained that a reduction in the hours of employment would make it impossible for them to get the work done on the terms fixed by the carpet factory owners. The number of children under 12 years of age employed in the carpet factories at Amritsar as reported to the local Government is about 500, which represents 23 per cent. of the total number of operatives employed therein, and the hours of work, according to the Inspector of Factories, are from sunrise to sunset with a break of an hour at midday in the winter and two to three hours in the summer. The Government of India were unable to acquiesce in the continuance of the existing conditions and they pointed out to the local Government that the existence of more or less similar conditions in the carpet factories in Persia had led to the intervention of the International Labour Office, with the result that orders were issued by the Persian Government to the carpet manufacturers in Kerman, which is one of the principal seats of the carpet industry in Persia, whereby an eight-hour day was enforced and the employment of children under 10 was prohibited. The local Government was accordingly asked to consider the lines on which legislation might be undertaken to secure adequate control over the conditions of employment of children in carpet factories. The Government of the Punjab pointed out in reply that there were carpet weaving factories in Agra, Mirzapur, and in the Indian States and if the proposed legislation were applied to the Punjab alone it would place the Amritsar industry at a distinct disadvantage and would drive most of the labour from Amritsar to other places in India to the ruin of the Amritsar industry. An enquiry has been addressed to the Government of the United Provinces regarding the conditions under which children are employed in the carpet factories situated within the province and the reply of the local Government is being awaited before any further action is taken by the Government of India.

*Control over the System of Shifts in Factories.*—After the revision of the Indian Factories Act in 1922, the Government of Bengal suggested that a further amendment should be made which would enable the local Government to regulate the working of shifts in the case of any class of factories or in any area. The necessity for this control arose out of the difficulty which had been experienced by the local Government in enforcing the provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to the employment of children in the jute mills which were working under a system of

multiple shifts. The proposal was supported by the Conference of the Chief Inspectors of Factories which was held in 1924, but the Government of Bengal subsequently decided not to press for the amendment until they had satisfied themselves that effective control over the working hours of children could not be exercised by means of a special employment register which they had recently prescribed for jute mills under Section 35 of the Act. The proposal for the control of shifts in factories was accordingly excluded from the Amending Bill which was passed in 1926. The local government have since reported that the special employment register in jute mills has failed to achieve its object, but the Government of India are awaiting a further communication from the local government on the subject.

*Prohibition of the Employment of Children in Mines.*—In the Mines Bill, which was introduced in the Indian Legislature in September, 1922, a provision was included prohibiting the employment of children (a child being defined as a person under the age of 13 years) in mines and also prohibiting their presence underground in mines. When the Bill was framed it was not considered practicable, owing to the floating nature of the labour population, to insist on each person employed in a mine having a certificate of age, but a provision was inserted which would empower local governments to prescribe a certification system in cases where they consider this to be practicable. In case of dispute between the inspecting staff and the management of a mine as to the age of a child, the Bill provided that the matter was to be referred to a qualified medical practitioner whose decision was to be conclusive evidence as to the age of the child. In the Joint Committee of the Indian Legislature, to which the Bill was referred, proposals were made for raising the maximum age of a child to 14 and even 15, but without success, and the provisions in the Bill relating to the employment of children were passed by the Legislature without any modification.

The Indian Mines Act of 1923 came into force on 1st July, 1924, but both in 1924 and 1925 children continued to be employed in a number of mines. This was due to a misunderstanding of the provisions of the Act on the part of the managers of mines,\* which was promptly removed by the Chief Inspector of Mines. So far, criminal proceedings have been instituted in three cases only, all of which ended in convictions. Instances have occurred of disputes between mine-owners or managers and the inspecting staff as to the age of a child employed in a mine, but the medical examination prescribed in such cases by the Act† has generally failed to confirm the inspector's suspicions.

*Prohibition of the Employment of Women in Mines.*—Soon after the passing of the Indian Mines Act of 1923, the Government of India, in accordance with the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee, addressed local governments on the subject of the prohibition of the employment of women in mines. On receipt of the replies and after a careful consideration of the question they came to the conclusion that the summary exclusion of women in the main coalfields would result in a very serious dislocation to the industry and that the only solution was to adopt a method of gradual exclusion. Accordingly in 1927 revised proposals were referred for opinion to the Mining Boards and the provincial governments mainly concerned, and after their views had been received draft regulations on the subject were published for criticism in June, 1928. These regulations under Section 29 (j) of the Act, which were finally promulgated on 7th March, 1929, prohibit the employment of any woman underground in the coal mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces and the salt mines in the Punjab, with effect from 1st July, 1939, and in all other mines, with effect from 1st July, 1929. In the coal mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, and in the salt mines in the Punjab, women may still be employed underground up to 30th June, 1939, provided that the total number of women so employed at any time in any mine does not exceed a gradually decreasing percentage (i.e., 29 per cent. in the case of coal mines decreasing by 3 per cent. each year and 40 per cent. in the case of the salt mines decreasing by 4 per cent. each year) of the total number of both men and women employed underground in the mine. These regulations do not apply, and under the existing law cannot apply, to coal quarries or open workings, which are largely owned by the railways. With a view, however, to meet the criticism that these regulations will give the railway collieries an unfair advantage over privately owned collieries, the railway board has issued orders introducing, with effect from 1st July, 1929, a similar system of gradual reduction in the numbers of certain classes of women workers employed in open workings in railway collieries.

\* Pages 40 and 41 of the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year ending 31st December, 1925.

† Section 27 of the Act.

‡ The correspondence with local governments is published in Bulletin No. 35 of Indian Industries and Labour.



## Chapter XII.—Wages.

*Lack of Accurate Statistics.*—The first attempt to collect wage statistics in India was made in 1873, when instructions were issued to district officers to submit half-yearly returns showing the average monthly wages of certain classes of skilled and unskilled labour. These returns were based on information collected by subordinate revenue officials and in some cases by police officers, and from these returns a series of comparative figures for selected districts in each province were published annually in the publication "Prices and Wages," issued by the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics. For the reasons given by Mr. Datta in his report on an enquiry into the rise of prices in India,\* these statistics were wholly unreliable, and by 1910 the half-yearly returns were discontinued throughout British India except in British Baluchistan. In their place a quinquennial wage census was adopted in all provinces except in the Central Provinces, where an annual return was obtained from district officers. The first quinquennial wage census was taken in 1911-12 and the second in 1916-17. The statistics regarding wages continued to be published in "Prices and Wages," which gave the results of the quinquennial wage census in respect of a few urban and rural occupations. As the statistics were still far from satisfactory, the third wage census, which was due in 1921-22 was abandoned, except in Madras and the Punjab. In 1921 an attempt was made by the Government of India to hold an All-India census of industrial wages with the "active and voluntary co-operation of employers," but nothing could be done partly because a number of employers either failed to submit returns or submitted incomplete returns, and partly because neither the central nor the local governments were able to provide the staff required for the purpose owing to financial stringency. In the circumstances the Government of India came to the provisional conclusion that "the question must be allowed to remain where it is for the present." But in communicating this conclusion to local governments they expressed the view that it might be necessary at some future date to take steps by legislation to secure statistics of this kind. The annual issues of "Prices and Wages" were also suspended in 1923 as a result of retrenchment, and no regular official wage statistics are now published for British India as a whole.†

*Rates of Wages and Earnings in Certain Industries.*—Three enquiries into the wages of operatives in the cotton mill industry in Bombay Presidency have been held since 1921. The last of these enquiries was held in 1926, but its results have not yet been published. According to the enquiry which was held in 1923, the average daily earnings of the millhands were as shown in the following statement, which is reproduced from the Report of the Labour Office, Bombay.

## Average Daily Earnings (August, 1923).

Centre.	Men.	Women.	Big lads and children (a)	All work- people. (a).
Bombay City .. .. .	1 7 2	0 12 5	0 12 3	1 4 2
Ahmedabad .. .. .	1 6 2	0 12 9	0 11 4	1 3 10
Sholapur .. .. .	1 0 0	0 6 4	0 9 1	0 12 9
Baroda State .. .. .	1 0 6	0 10 10	0 8 0	0 15 3
Other Centres .. .. .	1 0 1	0 8 2	0 8 8	0 14 0
Bombay Presidency .. .. .	1 5 9	0 11 7	0 11 4	1 3 6

(a) Counting two half-timers as one full-timer.

These earnings are the actual earnings including monthly bonus and special allowances which are regarded as of the nature of wages, but excluding overtime pay, and the annual bonus, if paid, and all remuneration in the form of grain or clothing or accommodation at rates below market prices or rentals

\* Paras. 42-44 of the report.

† Para. 67 and Appendix 6 of the Report of the Indian Economic Enquiry Committee, 1925.

The average monthly earnings of the same workers in 1914, 1921 and 1923 are shown in the following table\* :—

Centre.		Monthly earnings per head in		
		May, 1914.	May, 1921.	August, 1923.
Bombay City ..	Men .. .. .	Rs. a. p. 18 6 8	Rs. a. p. 34 15 2	Rs. a. p. 35 10 7
	Women .. .. .	10 0 10	17 6 6	17 5 5
	Big lads and children (a) ..	9 6 7	18 0 10	17 14 0
	All workpeople (a) ..	16 6 3	30 10 0	30 10 0
Ahmedabad ..	Men .. .. .	15 7 1	34 2 11	33 0 9
	Women .. .. .	9 15 11	19 9 4	18 2 7
	Big lads and children (a) ..	7 2 3	18 6 6	17 3 11
	All workpeople (a) ..	13 9 9	30 2 11	29 7 0
Sholapur ..	Men .. .. .	14 3 11	25 13 9	22 3 10
	Women .. .. .	5 13 11	10 15 9	8 9 7
	Big lads and children (a) ..	6 9 6	14 12 0	12 7 11
	All workpeople (a) ..	10 9 4	20 9 4	17 10 6
Baroda State ..	Men .. .. .	13 8 7	28 12 4	24 0 1
	Women .. .. .	6 13 4	16 6 11	14 14 11
	Big lads and children (a) ..	7 3 8	14 7 4	11 7 3
	All workpeople (a) ..	11 14 1	25 1 10	22 0 8
Other Centres ..	Men .. .. .	13 8 7	28 12 4	24 7 4
	Women .. .. .	6 13 4	16 6 11	11 14 7
	Big lads and children (a) ..	7 3 8	14 7 4	12 8 8
	All workpeople (a) ..	11 14 1	25 1 10	21 6 5
Bombay Presi- dency.	Men .. .. .	17 0 8	33 6 10	33 1 10
	Women .. .. .	9 0 1	16 9 1	16 3 10
	Big lads and children (a) ..	7 13 4	17 3 7	16 9 6
	All workpeople (a) ..	14 11 11	28 14 4	28 9 1

It should be noted, however, that the monthly earnings for a full working month of 27 days, i.e., the earnings of a worker who is not absent on any working day in the month are appreciably higher, as will be seen from the following figures for August, 1923 :—

*Average Monthly Earnings of Full-time Workers.*

	Average monthly earnings for a month of 27 working days for—			
	Men.	Women.	Big lads and children.(a)	All work- people.(a)
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Bombay City .. ..	39 1 6	20 15 3	20 10 9	34 0 6
Ahmedabad .. ..	37 6 6	21 8 3	19 2 0	33 7 6
Sholapur .. ..	27 0 0	10 11 0	15 5 3	21 8 3
Baroda State .. ..	27 13 6	18 4 6	13 8 0	25 11 9
Other Centres .. ..	27 2 3	13 12 6	14 10 0	23 14 6
Bombay Presidency ..	36 11 3	19 8 9	19 2 0	32 1 0

In the enquiry which was made in 1921, the Bombay Labour Office attempted an estimate of the trend of nominal and real wages and came to the conclusion that real or effective wages for men operatives in Bombay City were 14 per cent. higher

(a) Counting two half-timers as one full-timer.

\* Report on an Enquiry into the Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry, published by the Bombay Labour Office in 1925, pages 9-11.

than in 1914. But in the second enquiry in 1923 a similar estimate was not attempted owing to certain limitations of the cost of living index numbers and other practical difficulties.\*

Accurate statistics of wages in the jute mills of Bengal are not available, but the following figures obtained in 1925, from the Chairman, Indian Jute Mills Association, may be of some interest :—

	Per week consisting of 4 working days.	Per day.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Male daily workers .. .. .	3 10 0	0 14 6
Female daily workers .. .. .	2 9 0	0 10 3
Male piece-workers .. .. .	6 9 0	1 10 3
Female piece-workers .. .. .	5 10 0	1 6 6
Children .. .. .	1 12 0	0 7 0

Since 1922 it has been the practice in the jute mills to work only for four days in the week. During the remaining three days a large majority of the workers are employed in the fields and in agricultural work generally. As stated in Chapter X, the Indian Jute Mills Association have now decided to introduce a 60-hour week in the jute mills.

In the coal mines, wages are paid on the piece-work system, i.e., at a fixed rate per tub of coal and the average out-turn of the miner is three tubs of coal per working day. The regulations under the Indian Mines Act require mine owners to submit returns regarding the wages paid to the various classes of labour employed in mines. On the basis of these returns the Chief Inspector of Mines in India, compiles statistics of the average daily earnings in each important mining field in British India. These statistics are reproduced in the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India.‡

In the tea gardens in Assam, wages are mostly paid on the piece-work basis. In addition to the standard daily task which the worker must execute in order to earn his wages (called *hariva*), the labourer is given an opportunity at certain seasons to supplement his earnings by the performance of a second task, the payment for which is known as *ticca*. In Darrang, Sibsagar and the Lakhimpur districts, the unit system is in force under which wages are paid at the rate of 1 anna per unit in the case of hoeing and pruning and of 1 pice per unit for plucking. In some cases where it is impracticable to prescribe a definite task as in leaf plucking at the beginning and end of the season, payment is made by time.§ The annual reports on immigrant labour in the province of Assam, published by the Government of Assam, give statistics of average earnings of labourers separately for the Assam Valley Division and for the Surma Valley Division. The average monthly cash earnings calculated on the average daily working strength for the months of September, 1927, and March, 1928, in the Assam Valley Division was Rs. 13-2-1 pice for men, Rs. 11-6-11 pice for women, and Rs. 7-0-6 pice for children. The corresponding figures for the Surma Valley Division are Rs. 10-4-7 pice, Rs. 8-6-4 pice and Rs. 5-4 annas respectively. In addition to the cash wages, the labourers are allowed certain concessions, such as the supply of tea, rice and cloth at less than the market rate, private cultivation, free housing, free medical attendance, free fuel and grazing. The nature and extent of these concessions are discussed in Chapter III of the Report of the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22. In Assam, importance has always been attached to the necessity of taking into account joint family earnings in the case of tea garden labourers. The Assam Labour Enquiry Committee adopted Mr. Melitus' standard of an average working family as consisting of one working man, one working woman, and three-tenths of a working child. On this basis the figures tabulated below show the average family earnings calculated

\* The reasons for not attempting to publish index numbers of real wages are explained in detail in paragraph 58 of the report.

‡ For the figures for 1927, see table on page 5 of the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year ending 31st December, 1927.

§ For details see Chapter IV of the Report of Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22.

on the average daily strength in 1914, 1922 and 1928. For 1914, the figures are based on the average earnings of September, 1913, and March, 1914; for 1922, on the average earnings of September, 1921, and March, 1922; and for 1928, on the average earnings of September, 1927, and March, 1928. Column 5 of the table shows the percentage of increase in 1922 as compared with 1914, while column 6 shows the percentage of increase in 1928 as compared with 1922:—

District.	1914.	1922.	1928.	Percentage of rise in 1922, since 1914.	Percentage of rise in 1928, since 1922.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1. Darrang Sadr ..	14 14 10	18 15 8	24 13 5	27	31
2. Mangaldai ..	15 11 5	18 15 4	28 4 2	21	49
3. Nowgong ..	16 11 9	18 8 10	23 2 7	11	25
4. Jorhat ..	15 7 7	18 0 11	23 4 4	17	29
5. Sibsagar ..	15 15 11	20 1 0	24 12 1	26	23
6. Golaghat ..	14 0 11	17 7 4	22 0 5	25	26
7. Lakhimpur Sadr ..	18 2 4	21 15 2	30 11 3	21	40
8. North Lakhimpur	15 13 10	20 4 3	24 4 2	28	20
9. Cachar Sadr ..	13 13 6	15 0 4	19 2 8	9	28
10. Hailakandi ..	13 11 7	15 8 10	19 10 8	14	26
11. North Sylhet ..	13 0 4	14 2 10	20 11 7	9	46
12. Karimganj ..	13 7 7	15 14 1	19 11 4	18	24
13. South Sylhet ..	13 15 0	15 13 8	21 7 11	13	36
14. Habiganj ..	14 12 1	16 8 9	21 5 6	12	29

In the absence of index numbers for Assam it is not possible to frame any reliable estimate of the movement of real or effective wages in the tea gardens. Mr. Datta, in the "Enquiry into the rise of prices in India," stated that in 1912 the *real* wages of tea garden coolies in Assam had fallen 5 per cent. *below*, while those of agricultural labourers in India had risen 38 per cent. *above* the level of the standard period (1890-1894). The Assam Labour Enquiry Committee also came to the conclusion that the family earnings in 1922 did not keep pace with the increase in the cost of living since 1914. From the table above it will be seen that there has been a substantial increase of wages since 1922. The percentage of increase is even higher than what is shown in column 6 as the figures for 1914 and 1922 include diet and subsistence allowances, whereas these items are being excluded from the statistics of wages since 1923. As it is unlikely that the cost of living has risen appreciably since 1922 in Assam, it may be inferred that real wages in the tea gardens are also tending to rise. This is due to the difficulties which are being experienced by the tea industry in securing an adequate supply of labour owing to the competition of other industries, e.g., the coal and the steel industries in Bihar and Orissa, and the textile industries in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces.

*Extent of Standardisation.*—Wages are now paid mostly in money, except in the tea gardens in Assam, where certain concessions to which reference has already been made are allowed to the labourers. But no attempt has hitherto been made to standardize wages. Thus the report of the Bombay Labour Office on an enquiry into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry in 1923 refers to the fact that in one muster roll there were seven oilers doing exactly the same work for exactly the same length of time who received wages varying from 9 annas to Re. 1-6 annas per day.\* The question of standardization was considered by the Bombay Industrial Disputes Committee in 1922 and by the Textile Tariff Board in 1927. The Industrial Disputes Committee remarked that "employers' associations have not yet evolved any standard scales of wages and individual employers are usually ignorant of how their rates compare with the wages given by others," and that "the uncorrelated raising of wages in one factory is almost invariably seized upon as a grievance in other factories of the same class." The Textile Tariff Board also recommended for the consideration of the Millowners' Association the adoption of a system of standardized wages for the same class of work as between mill and mill. As a result of this recommendation the Millowners' Association prepared in 1928 a

\* Paragraph 30 of the report.

standardization scheme which was examined in detail by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29.\* It appears from the report of this committee that the Millowners' Association propose to introduce their standardization scheme in October, 1929.

*Effect of higher Wages on Indian Labour.*—Compared with European standards, the Indian worker lives in a vicious circle of low wages, low standard of living and low efficiency. To increase his efficiency it is necessary to raise both his wages and his standard of living. There is, however, a consensus of opinion among employers in India that an increase in wages does not effect an improvement in the standard of living of the Indian worker and does not, therefore, result in increased efficiency. It is argued that an increase in wages is either wasted on useless expenditure, e.g., on drink, or leads to greater idleness on the part of the labourer. Thus the Indian Industrial Commission made the following observation :—

" All authorities who are qualified to speak on the subject agree that Indian labour is content with a very low standard of comfort. This secured, the Indian workman, speaking generally, takes advantage of the greater earning power given to him by increased wages to do less work, and shows no desire to earn more money by working more regularly or by improving his own efficiency. In the case of Bombay, witnesses have stated that since the 10 per cent. rise in the wages of mill operatives given during the rains of 1917 there has been an actual falling off in output."†

Similarly, most of the witnesses who appeared before the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22, were of opinion that any appreciable rise in the rates of wages would result in the labourer doing just sufficient work to enable him to earn the same amount as before. But the committee were not disposed to accept this view without qualification and made the following observation :—

" If the increase in the rate of wages corresponds more or less to the rise in the cost of living they (the committee) think it probable, unless the standard of living has fallen, that the average coolie will be inclined to do as much work, while some may be encouraged by the higher wage to do more. If the rise in wages is in excess of the increased cost of living, many would probably do less work."‡

The Indian Coal Committee, 1925§, also remarked " that the standard of comfort of the labourer in the Indian coalfields is so low that the only effect of an increase in wages is a decrease in output, as he can obtain the amount which he needs by working fewer days in a week." The immediate effect of higher wages may be less work, but it has not been proved conclusively that this is the permanent effect or that the out-turn of the worker does not tend to rise after he has adjusted himself to the higher rate of wages. In any case, the remedy for this lies in education and in the improvement of the conditions of employment. So long as the worker is compelled to live in unhealthy and insanitary surroundings, an increase in wages must necessarily be a temptation for him to spend longer periods in his village. And it is not the Indian worker alone who is apt to dissipate his extra income in forms of pleasure which are positively harmful.

*Minimum Wages.*—The International Labour Conference at its eleventh session, held at Geneva in 1928, adopted a draft convention and a recommendation concerning the creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery. The convention contemplates the creation of such a machinery only in the case of trades or parts of trades (and in particular in home-working trades) in which no arrangements exist for the effective regulation of wages by collective agreement or otherwise and in which wages are exceptionally low. The obligation which the convention imposes on a State member ratifying it is to create such a machinery and to communicate annually to the International Labour Office a general statement giving a list of the trades or parts of trades in which it has been applied and certain other particulars; questions such as the nature and form of the machinery and the trades to which it is to be applied are left entirely to the discretion of the state concerned. In view of the fact that labour in India is for the most part unorganized, the acceptance of the Convention, if it is to be applied in a reasonable manner, would present many difficulties and the Government of India therefore came to the conclusion that it would not be possible to enter into any commitment or to give any indication of possible ratification until a thorough enquiry was held into the practicability of establishing Wage Boards in India. The question of minimum wages was new to India and had not been considered in any province except in Bengal, where a resolution for the statutory fixation of

\* Chapters IV and VI of the report.

† Paragraph 235 of the Report.

‡ Assam Labour Enquiry Committee Report, 1921-22, paragraph 133.

§ Paragraph 40 of the Report.

minimum wages was moved on the 7th July, 1921, by Mr. K. C. Roy Chaudhry in the local council. The resolution was lost on the opposition of the local government which considered that it would not be practicable to give effect to such a proposal.\*

*Deductions from Wages.*—In June, 1926, the Government of India made an enquiry from local governments as to the extent to which fines and other deductions were being realized by employers in India from their workpeople. The views of the local governments were also invited on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise, to counter any abuses which might be found to prevail. The replies received indicated that :—(1) Except in the tea gardens of Assam and the coalfields of Bihar and Orissa, the system of fining is common throughout India ; (2) in addition to the fines imposed for breaches of discipline or for bad or negligent work, or injury to materials, deductions are made in the Bombay Presidency in respect of supply of materials and tools, rents for housing, supply of medicines, medical attendance, food grains and water, contributions to provident funds, use of reading rooms and libraries, education and compulsory contributions to charity and entertainments provided by the employer ; (3) in a number of cases the fines collected are credited to a fund mainly devoted to the benefit of the workmen.

All the major local governments, except Bombay, were of opinion that the system of fining had not led to any serious abuse and that legislation was unnecessary. The Government of Bombay, on the other hand, after an exhaustive enquiry into the subject by its Labour Office,† came to the opposite conclusion. A copy of the correspondence with local governments on the subject is contained in Appendix XII to this memorandum.

*Periods of wage-payment.*—In 1924 the Government of India collected information for the leading branches of organized industry in India regarding the periods by which wages are paid and the time which elapses between the end of the period for which wages are earned and the date of payment, *i.e.*, the waiting period. This information was published in Bulletin No. 34 of Indian Industries and Labour. Briefly, the enquiry disclosed that, in the case of skilled workers, the most general system is that of payment on a monthly basis, the most important exceptions to this rule being the jute mills in Bengal, where payment is made on a weekly basis, and the Ahmedabad cotton mills, where payment is made by *haptas* (a period varying from 14 to 16 days). Unskilled labour is frequently paid on shorter periods. The waiting period varies widely. As a general rule it lies between one-third and one-half of the period of payment, *i.e.*, the monthly payments are normally made ten to fifteen days after the close of the month, fortnightly payments within five days to a week after the close of the fortnight, and weekly payments in two to four days. Wide variations in the date of payment are common only in the smaller and less organized industries, while in the larger establishments regularity of payment is the rule.

In September, 1924, Dewan Chaman Lall introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly known as the "Weekly Payments Bill." The object of this Bill was to provide for the payment of wages on a weekly basis, but it allowed employers to continue payments on any other system provided wages were not withheld for more than a week. The Bill which was circulated for opinion, met with general opposition, particularly in regard to the proposal to interfere with the existing periods of payment. When it came before the Assembly for the second reading in February, 1926, it was opposed by Government, and on an assurance being given that the question of legislation to secure the prompt payment of wages would be considered, the Bill was withdrawn by its sponsor. In July, 1926, the Government of India accordingly invited opinions from local governments on the advisability of legislation. The correspondence with local governments is reproduced in Appendix XIII. It will be observed that most of the local governments are opposed to legislation, but in view of the contemplated appointment of a Commission to enquire into various problems connected with labour, the Government of India decided not to formulate, at present, any definite conclusions in the matter.

*Treatment of unclaimed wages.*—The question of the forfeiture of unclaimed wages was raised in connection with the question of the prompt payment of wages. The practice of forfeiting wages which are not claimed within a certain time is common in the mills in Bombay. In some cases it is the rule that the wages of a worker absent without leave for over a month should be forfeited, unless a medical certificate is produced. In others wages are not forfeited until six months have elapsed. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29,‡ considered this question, and recommended that in future unclaimed wages should be paid at any time on their being claimed by the operative or his legal representative, subject to the operative being sufficiently identified.

\* Bengal Legislative Council Proceedings, Vol. III, No. 1, pages 316—334.

† See Report of an enquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines, 1928.

‡ Para. 91 of the Report.

*Indebtedness.*—Indebtedness is as much a feature of town life as of village life in India. The results of the enquiries conducted into the family budgets of the working classes in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Rangoon show that indebtedness is generally prevalent among the operatives in all these centres. In Rangoon the labourer from India is generally indebted to the *maistry*, who advances him money in order that he may be able to come to Burma. The report of the Officer-in-charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Burma, indicates that the labourer generally remains indebted to his *maistry* for the rest of his life.\* In the important industrial centres of the Bombay Presidency, the prevailing indebtedness of the operatives is attributed chiefly to the social and religious customs of the people which necessitate an expenditure on marriages, funerals, etc., quite out of proportion to the income of the family. The Ahmedabad Report † shows that the millhand at that centre is generally heavily indebted, while in Bombay City ‡ and in Sholapur § it is estimated that the percentage of the millhands who are in debt is 47 and 60 respectively. The average indebtedness extends to an equivalent of 2½ months' earnings in Bombay City, while in Ahmedabad it varies from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. The rates of interest charged are heavy. In Bombay the usual rate is 75 per cent. per annum, while the rates in Ahmedabad vary from 12 to 24 per cent., but higher rates are not uncommon.

*Bonus and profit sharing schemes.*—Bonuses are granted to workers in India for different reasons. In some cases a bonus is merely an allowance for dearness of food, which is granted to the operatives in order to avoid the necessity of raising wages. For instance, a war bonus of 10 per cent. was granted in the cotton mills in Bombay in July, 1917. This was raised to 15 per cent. in January, 1918, and to 35 per cent. in January 1919, when it was termed a special allowance on account of the high prices of foodstuffs. The allowance was further increased on 24th January, 1920, and on 30th November, 1920, till it stood on the latter date at 70 per cent. for operatives on fixed wages and for winders, and at 80 per cent. for pieceworkers other than winders. Again, a bonus is also sometimes granted for regular attendance. This bonus is paid in cash in the textile mills in the Bombay Presidency, except in Sholapur, where it is given in the form of a grain allowance to all workers who are present on 22 days in the month. There is another form of bonus, called the efficiency bonus, which is granted by several concerns in the Bombay Presidency. During the boom period the cotton mills in Bombay were paying an annual bonus of one month's wages, but this was discontinued at the beginning of 1924. Similar bonuses were also paid by the cotton mills in Ahmedabad and Sholapur.

Profit sharing schemes have been tried by very few concerns in India. In April, 1928, the Tata Iron and Steel Company introduced such a scheme for their workers under which a monthly bonus based on production is paid to all men drawing less than Rs. 300 per mensem or Rs. 10 per day whose work contributes to the production obtained and who have been in the Company's employ for at least six months. The bonus is based on the total monthly finished production from each producing unit, and the works as a whole. It is reduced if the production falls below a certain figure and increased if it rises above that figure. For the standard figure of production, the total amount of bonus is fixed at Rs. 10 lakhs per annum. The men on lower rates of pay receive a higher bonus in relation to their wages than those on higher rates. Another interesting scheme is in operation in the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills where half-yearly bonuses are paid to the workmen on a basis relative to the dividend declared. Thus, if the Company pays a dividend of 10 per cent. on the ordinary shares, the bonus is paid to each workman at the rate of 10 per cent. on the total pay he has earned during the half-year.

*Annual leave.*—No information is available with regard to the extent of annual leave taken by workers or the extent to which it is countenanced or assisted by employers. There is probably no regular system for the grant of leave to operatives, except in rare cases. The Empress Mills, Nagpur, have fixed rules for the grant of leave to their employees. The apprentices, assistants and clerks serving in the mills on fixed salaries are allowed privilege leave to the extent of two days for every month of active service, but in the case of the other operatives leave on full pay is allowed only for 12 days in a year to those whose period of service with the Company exceeds

\* Report of an Enquiry into the Standard and Cost of Living of the Working Classes in Rangoon, 1928, para. 196.

† Report of an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1928, para. 59.

‡ Report of an Enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay, 1923, para. 44.

§ Report on an Enquiry into Family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Sholapur City, 1928, page 25.

20 years. From the Report of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29,\* it appears that the Bombay Millowners' Association have under consideration the question of framing a new rule regarding the grant of leave to the operatives in the textile mills.

#### Chapter XIII.—Trade Combinations.

*Growth of the Trade Union Movement in India.*—The trade union movement in India is of comparatively recent origin, and the period during which it may be said to have taken root in this country is from the year 1918 to 1920. Organizations intended to promote the interests of workers were in existence before 1918, but the primary function of trade unionism, viz., the organization of wage-earners with a view to promote collective bargaining, had not been developed until 1918, when the economic, social and political conditions obtaining in India as a result of the Great War were decidedly favourable to the growth of the trade union movement. As early as 1884 an organization known as the Mill-hands Association was formed in Bombay under the chairmanship of Mr. N. M. Lokhanday, but its main purpose was to agitate for a revision of the first Indian Factories Act of 1881.† Similarly the Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha and the Social Service League, Bombay, which were both started in 1911, and also the Servants of India Society took an active interest in the welfare of the working classes, but these organizations were not, and in fact did not claim to be, trade unions. The lateness of the trade union movement in India was due partly to the slow progress of the industrialization of the country, and partly to the special difficulties arising out of the illiteracy of the workers, their migratory habits and the heterogeneous composition of the labour force in industrial centres. It is significant, however, that the period which marked the birth of the movement synchronised with the period of unprecedented boom in trade and industry which immediately followed the Great War. The movement was essentially an economic one, though it was given a political complexion owing to the fact that a number of its supporters were politicians. During this period there was a steady rise in the cost of living without a proportionate increase in wages and the growth of labour unrest was therefore only natural. A series of successful strikes demonstrated to the workers, as nothing else could have done more successfully, the importance of organization. Trade unions were formed either immediately before or immediately after a strike. Many of them were more of the nature of temporary strike committees than proper trade unions, and they ceased to exist as soon as the grievances of the men were remedied. But the trade union movement had come to stay. A number of important unions which had been established during this period, e.g., the Madras Labour Union (started in 1918), the G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union (started in 1919), and the Ahmedabad Textile Workmen's Union (started in 1920) are still functioning.

In 1920 an important development took place in the trade union movement of the country. In that year the All-India Trade Union Congress came into being, and held its first session at Bombay under the presidency of the late Lala Lajpat Rai. The object of the Congress as laid down in its constitution was "to co-ordinate the activities of all the labour organizations in all the trades and in all provinces in India, and generally to further the interests of Indian labour in matters social, political and economic." The Congress has established provincial committees in most of the important provinces, and has so far held nine annual sessions. A factor of some importance in the formation of the Congress was the establishment of the International Labour Conference to which, according to the Treaty of Versailles, it is incumbent on the Government of India to nominate to each session of the conference a non-official delegate in consultation with the industrial organizations which are most representative of workpeople. The object of the promoters of the All-India Trade Union Congress was to ensure that the Workers' delegates to the International Labour Conferences would be duly elected representatives of the organized workers in India.

*Extent of Trade Unionism in India before 1926.*—Accurate and reliable statistics are not available of trade unions in India, except in Bombay, where information regarding the trade unions in the Presidency is given in the *Labour Gazette* published by the Bombay Labour Office. In the report of the first annual session of the All-India Trade Union Congress in 1920, it was stated that 60 unions were affiliated to the Congress while 42 more unions expressed their sympathy with its objects, and it was estimated that the Congress represented no less than 5,00,000 workers. But in 1926 the General Secretaries' Report to the Sixth Annual Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress showed that the number of affiliated unions was only 52, and the total membership a little over 1,25,000. The All-India Trade Union Congress does not, however, include all the trade unions which are in existence in the country. The Ahmedabad Labour Union, which is one of the best organized unions in India,

\* Page 28 of the Report.

† Clow, Indian Factory Legislation, page 15.



has not yet been affiliated to it and from the Directory of Trade Unions, which was prepared in 1925 by Mr. R. R. Bakhale, Assistant Secretary of the All-India Trade Union Congress, it appears that there were in that year no less than eight federations and 167 unions. But all these unions are not equal in strength and vitality, and about half of them are organizations either of Government servants or of persons connected with Government employment. Trade unionism has made substantial progress among railway, postal and telegraph employees, but on the whole it is still weak in the great organized textile and mining industries, though rapid progress is being witnessed in some important centres like Ahmedabad and Bombay. The movement embraces only a small fraction of the workers in India, and considerable progress remains to be made before it can be said to have attained the level of other industrial countries.

*Registration of Unions under the Indian Trade Unions Act.*—The Indian Trade Unions Act \* came into force on the 1st June, 1927, and it is yet too early to pronounce any judgment as to the effect of this Act on the trade union movement of the country. The total number of unions registered under the Act up to the 31st March, 1928, was 29, with a total membership of 1,00,619; no less than 12 of these unions with a total membership of 52,559, were registered in the Bombay Presidency. In Bengal only two unions were registered under the Act, while in the Punjab out of the six unions registered during the year only one union, viz., the North Western Railway Union, with a membership of 5,000, is of any importance. The total membership of the remaining five unions was less than 800, and one of them, viz., the Homeopathic Association, with a membership of only 19, can hardly be said to be a trade union in the ordinary sense of the term. An explanation given for the slow progress of registration in the first year of the working of the Act is that the constitutions of the existing unions had to be revised in order to comply with the provisions of the Act, and this took a little time. The total receipts during the year in the general fund of all the 29 registered unions amounted to about Rs. 1,63,600, which gives an average of Rs. 5,641 per union and Re. 1 and annas 10 per member. Only one registered union† constituted a political fund, but the income during the year in this fund was only Rs. 340 as against an income of Rs. 7,785 in the general fund. No federations were registered in the year 1927-28. The returns for the year ending 31st March, 1929, have not yet been received, but the progress of registration during the two years of the operation of the Act is shown below :—

*Employees' Unions registered during the years 1927-28 and 1928-29.*

Serial No.	Province.	No. of trade unions registered during the year ending 31st March 1928.	No. of members of trade unions in column 3 on the 31st March 1928.	No. of trade unions registered during the year ending 31st March 1929.	No. of members of trade unions in column 5 at the time of registration.
1	Madras .. .. .	3	9,557‡	7	6,003§
2	Bombay .. .. .	12*•	52,559	24	34,792
3	Bengal .. .. .	2	2,029	7	18,163† †
4	The United Provinces .. .. .	1	3,119	3	112
5	The Punjab .. .. .	6	5,799	7	190
6	Burma .. .. .	1	216	—	—
7	Bihar and Orissa .. .. .	1	25,203	1	15,000
8	The Central Provinces .. .. .	3	2,137	—	—
9	Assam .. .. .	—	—	—	—
10	The North-West Frontier Province .. .. .	—	—	1	1,960
	Total .. .. .	29	100,609	50	76,220‡ †

\* For an account of the circumstances leading to the passing of this Act, see Clow's "The State and Industry," pages 158-159.

† The Madras Labour Union for Textile Workers.

‡ For two unions only; the third union is defunct, and it is proposed to cancel its registration.

§ For six unions only.

•• Two of these unions have since amalgamated.

†† For five unions only.

‡‡ For 47 unions only.

The importance of registration as securing a special status for a trade union became apparent during the general strike in the Bombay textile mills which commenced in April, 1928. Before the strike, the two important unions consisting of employees in the textile mills were the Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal. But owing to differences among the labour leaders, two other associations, viz., the Bombay Mill Workers' Union and the Girni Kamgar Union, under the control of extremist labour leaders, and decidedly communist in character, came into being. The Millowners' Association which had hitherto refused to recognize any union of textile workers in Bombay City, gave an assurance to His Excellency the Governor that it would be prepared to receive representatives of registered trade unions with a view to opening negotiations for a settlement of the dispute. The Bombay Textile Union was then the only trade union registered under the Act, but it had arrived at an agreement with the other unions whereby a Joint Strike Committee, consisting of representatives of the four unions, mentioned above, was appointed to negotiate with the Millowners' Association. The latter, however, refused to enter into any discussion with the Joint Strike Committee unless all its members were representatives of duly registered trade unions. The deadlock thus created was removed by the action of the President of the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal which resulted in the registration of this union on the 21st May, 1928. Two days later the Girni Kamgar Union, a rival union controlled by the extremist labour leaders of the Workers' and Peasants' Party, also obtained registration, and the Bombay Mill Workers' Union followed suit on the 1st June, 1928. Thus all the members of the Joint Strike Committee were members of registered unions, and the ground was prepared for a round table conference. In referring to the events of the general strike in his report for the year ending 31st March, 1928, on the working of the Act, the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, observed as follows:—"In the six months that have elapsed since the 31st March, 1928, it has become abundantly clear that registration will be sought by every union of any importance." The table of the principal trade unions in the Bombay Presidency, which is published in the Bombay Labour Gazette for April, 1929, bears testimony to the correctness of this observation. By April, 1929, no less than 35 unions with a total membership of about 1,57,000, were registered under the Act; the number of unregistered unions was 60, but their total membership less than 44,000. In this connection it is interesting to note the progress made by the Girni Kamgar Union in Bombay City. At the time of registration (23rd May, 1928) this union consisted of only 174 members, but the membership has since risen to 54,000, which is six times the aggregate membership of the other three unions of the textile workers in Bombay City.

*The Trade Unions Act and unregistered Unions.*—The question of legislation for the protection of Indian Trade Unions arose out of a decision of the Madras High Court in 1920, granting an injunction restraining the leader of a local labour union from influencing the employees of a mill to break their contract with their employers. The object of the Indian Trade Unions Act was to give trade unions in India the necessary protection from civil suits and from the criminal law relating to conspiracy in order to enable them to carry on their legitimate activities. The Indian Act however, differed in one important respect from similar legislation in Great Britain and the Dominions. The privileges which it proposed to confer were only for those unions which accepted registration, and the legal position of unregistered unions was left unaltered. As registration is not compulsory, the immunity from civil suits and from prosecutions for criminal conspiracy does not extend to all trade unions, but registration involves no obligation which a reputable and well-conducted union should not be willing and indeed anxious to accept. An attempt was made when the Act was under consideration in the Legislative Assembly to extend to unregistered unions the privileges which it proposed to confer on registered unions, but without success. In February, 1928, Mr. Joshi introduced a Bill to amend the Indian Penal Code, the object of which was to extend immunity from criminal prosecution to other combinations of workmen. The Bill, on circulation, received little support, and was rejected by the Legislative Assembly in September, 1928. The fact that unregistered trade unions are still in the same position as before the passing of the Indian Trade Unions Act, was shown by a case in Sholapur which was decided shortly after Mr. Joshi's Bill was rejected by the Legislative Assembly. On the application of three of the mills at that centre an interim injunction was granted against certain members of an unregistered union, restraining them from inciting the workers of these mills to strike work or to continue to be on strike.

*Attitude of Government towards Associations consisting of its Employees.*—Before 1919, it was not the policy of Government to accept any representation from an association consisting of its employees or even a joint representation from its employees. The Government Servants' Conduct Rules did not prohibit Government employees from forming themselves into associations, but disciplinary action could be taken against a Government servant if his membership of an association involved

a breach of the Government's Servants' Conduct Rules. The right of association for all lawful purposes by the employed as well as by the employers was recognized in Article 427 of the Peace Treaty, which was signed in 1919, as a principle which the High Contracting Parties regarded as being of special and urgent importance. In view of the assertion of this principle, the Government of India found it necessary to consider the circumstances in which they would be prepared to accord recognition to Associations of their own employees and rules for the recognition by Government of associations formed by its employees were accordingly framed and issued in 1921. To obtain recognition an association must ordinarily consist of a distinct class of Government employee, and every Government employee of the same class must be eligible for membership. No representation or deputation will be received except in connection with a matter which is, or raises questions which are, of common interest to the class represented by the Association. Outsiders are not definitely excluded from being office-holders of the Association, but Government reserves the right in particular cases of refusing recognition to associations of which all the office-holders are not either in the active service of Government or honourably retired officers belonging to the same class of employees as the Association represents. Government can also require the regular submission for their information of copies of the rules of the Association, and the annual statement of its accounts and of lists of its members. It was also provided that in the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered. The Recognition Rules do not apply to employees subject to military law or to the Indian Army Act, 1911, and more stringent conditions are laid down for the employees in the police and prison departments.

The passing of the Indian Trade Unions Act has created certain difficulties in its application to Government servants, as both the Government Servants' Conduct Rules and the rules for the recognition of associations consisting of Government servants are in certain respects inconsistent with its provisions. Thus, the following activities permitted by the Act are forbidden by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules:—(i) The payment of expenses of a political candidate (Section 16 (2) (a)); (ii) the holding of a meeting and the distribution of literature or documents in support of a candidate (Section 16 (2) (b)); (iii) the maintenance of a member of a legislative body (Section 16 (2) (c)); (iv) the registration of electors or the selection of a candidate (Section 16 (2) (d)); (v) the holding of political meetings of any kind or the distribution of political literature or political documents of any kind (Section 16 (2) (e)).

The Government Servants' Conduct Rules are statutory rules framed or confirmed under Section 96-B (2) of the Government of India Act and in so far as they are inconsistent with the Trade Unions Act they override it. But these rules regulate only the actions of individual Government servants; there is nothing forbidding them to form themselves into an association, and once an association is formed the corporate body cannot be controlled by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules or by any rules framed under Section 96-B of the Government of India Act. With regard to the rules for the recognition of associations consisting of Government servants the difficulty arises from the fact that these rules enforce the principle of homogeneity while the Indian Trade Unions Act contains no such restriction. The position is thus somewhat anomalous. Government servants are free to form themselves into a registered association which can indulge in activities forbidden to Government servants. Such an association may, under the Indian Trade Unions Act, include outsiders in its membership, and it may consist of different classes of Government servants, but, in accordance with the Recognition Rules, Government will not have any dealings with it.

The reconsideration of the principles which should govern the recognition of associations of Government servants in the light of the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act has presented numerous difficulties, and the Government of India have not yet formulated their final conclusions. On the one hand, it is necessary that Government, which is the largest employer of labour in the country, should not adopt too conservative an attitude in the matter of the recognition of associations consisting of its employees, particularly those who belong to the artisan class: on the other hand, it is necessary for Government to take adequate precautions against such activities on the part of associations consisting of its employees as would be subversive of reasonable discipline. It is clearly impossible for Government to promise that recognition will be given or continued to every registered union of their servants, for there are many actions open to a union which would amply warrant a withdrawal or refusal of recognition but which would in no way impair the union's right to registration. For example, in the past it has been necessary to withhold recognition from a union whose officers indulged in scurrilous attacks on the officers of the department with which the union was concerned. Pending the consideration of this difficult question, Government have relaxed the provision contained in the existing rules for the recognition of associations consisting of its employees which requires them to register under the Act.

*Trade Combinations among Employers.*—There are numerous organizations in India which protect the interests of employers. First of all are the chambers of commerce, which are mostly either preponderantly European or entirely Indian. The Indian Chambers of Commerce are under one federation known as the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, while the European chambers are federated as the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon. In addition to these chambers are the associations representing particular branches of trade. The Bombay Millowners' Association, the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Indian Jute Mills Association, Calcutta, represent the textile interests in India, while the Indian Tea Association with its branches in Assam, Surma Valley, Darjeeling and the Dooars represent the tea planting interests in these areas. There are two other important planters' associations, viz., the Bihar Planters' Association, which is, however, gradually losing its importance since the decline of indigo cultivation, and the United Planters' Association of Southern India, which represents the interests of organized plantations in Madras and the neighbouring Indian States. The mining interests are looked after by the Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation; the former includes all European employers and a number of Indian concerns in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa, while the latter represents only Indian capital in the coal-mining industry of these two provinces. There are also a number of smaller local organizations, such as the Delhi Factory Owners' Federation, Delhi, the Factory Owners' Association, Central Provinces and Berar, and the Mills and Factories Owners' Association, Beawar.

Generally speaking, the employers' organizations in India are concerned more with the promotion of business interests than with labour problems. Comparatively little has been done to standardise wages or to secure uniformity in the conditions of employment. But the growth of labour unrest in recent years has in some cases, e.g., in the textile industry in Bombay, and the jute industry in Bengal, compelled employers to take collective action in dealing with their workpeople. The Indian Trade Unions Act applies to employers' as well as employees' organizations, but so far no employers' organization has registered itself as a trade union under the Act.

#### Chapter XIV.—Administration.

*Labour Questions in the Central Legislature.*—In the Central Legislature a number of labour measures have been passed in recent years. These include (i) three Acts amending the Factories Act of 1911, one of which constituted a radical revision of that Act in almost every direction; (ii) a new Mines Act passed in 1923 and an amending Act passed in 1928; (iii) the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, with two amending Acts passed in 1926 and 1929 respectively; (iv) the Trade Unions Act, 1926, with a minor amending Act which was passed in 1928; (v) an Act regulating child labour in ports\*; (vi) an Act repealing certain provisions of the law relating to criminal penalties for breach of contract by workmen; (vii) the Trades Disputes Act, 1929.

All these were Government measures, but in some cases action by Government followed on proposals made in the Legislative Assembly. For instance, the Trade Unions Act was the outcome of a private member's resolution adopted in the Assembly and a private member's Bill (i.e., the Workmen's Freedom Bill, introduced by Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly on 23rd September, 1924) influenced Government in connection with the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act. In addition, two other Bills were introduced by private members, viz., Diwan Chaman Lall's Weekly Payments Bill and Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefits Bill, an account of which has already been given in previous chapters. Of the Resolutions on labour matters discussed in the Central Legislature, the majority were moved by Government in connection with the proceedings of the International Labour Conferences.

The interest of the Legislative Assembly in labour questions was at the outset small, but, with the growing importance of economic questions, labour measures now occupy the attention of the House to a very much larger extent. The radical revision of the Factories Act in 1922 went through with a fraction of the discussion that a similar measure would evoke to-day. In the debates on the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 Government were able to carry through a large and detailed measure without a single amendment being made to which they were opposed. The Indian Trade Unions Bill did not, however, have such an easy passage in 1926, and a number of amendments were made by the Legislative Assembly in the Select Committee and in the House. The most important of these amendments was the introduction of a clause permitting registered trade unions to maintain a separate fund for political purposes. In the case of the Trade Disputes Bill, the

\* The Indian Ports (Amendment) Act, 1922.

Assembly made itself felt to a very much larger extent. Although all the three parts of this Bill were accepted by the House, important amendments were made in the Select Committee. The period during which the Act was to remain in force was limited to five years, and the scope of the provisions relating to strikes in public utility services and general strikes was curtailed considerably. The attitude of the Legislature towards this Bill was, however, to a large extent influenced by political considerations. The Council of State has generally devoted less attention to labour matters. All the Acts referred to above were passed in this Chamber without much discussion.

*Labour Questions in the Provincial Legislatures.*—Provincial Legislatures are competent to enact labour legislation, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General. But their output has been small. The only labour measures which have been passed up to the present are (i) an Act\* repealing the Madras Planters' Act, which included provisions for criminal penalties for breach of contract; (ii) the Coorg Labour Act, 1926, which was a step in precisely the opposite direction as it made provision for the criminal punishment of breaches of contract; (iii) the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act, 1929, which provides for the grant of maternity benefits to women employed in factories.

The first two were Government measures but the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act, 1929, was introduced by a private member and was passed by the local council in spite of the initial opposition of the local government. Certain other labour measures have been introduced in local councils but have not passed into law. Mr. R. W. Fulay, a non-official member of the Central Provinces Legislative Council, introduced two labour measures in January, 1929. One was a Maternity Benefit Bill and the other a Workmen's Welfare Bill, which would make it compulsory for all factory owners employing more than 100 persons to provide free of charge dining sheds and rest rooms for their workers and creches or day nurseries for the infants of the female employees. A Bill known as the Bengal Tea Gardens Public Health Bill, which was designed to set up a Board of Health for the tea-producing areas of Bengal and to replace the Jalpaiguri Labour Act of 1912, was introduced in the first Bengal Legislative Council in 1923, but lapsed with the dissolution of that Council. A Statistics Bill, which was designed mainly to overcome the difficulties experienced by the Bombay Labour Office in collecting labour statistics was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council in 1924, but was eventually abandoned by the local government owing to the vigorous opposition with which it was received. Of the resolutions on labour matters moved from time to time in local councils, the majority related to the investigation of the problem of unemployment, particularly amongst the educated classes, an account of which has already been given in Chapter IV. A resolution was moved in the Bengal Legislative Council in 1921 recommending the statutory fixation of minimum wages and a resolution was moved in the Bihar and Orissa Council in 1926 regarding the payment of maternity benefits. The former resolution was rejected, while the latter was adopted, but no legislative action has yet been taken to give effect to it.

*India and the International Labour Conference.*—The preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles refers to the fact that "the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries." In order to establish universal peace based on social justice the Peace Treaty not only laid down general principles in regard to questions affecting labour which were recognised by the High Contracting Parties to be "of special and urgent importance," but also brought into being an organization to which was entrusted the task of securing, as far as practicable, the observance of these principles. The Conventions and recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference are not automatically binding on the members of the organization, but they have to be submitted to the legislature of each country, and this secures the regular examination both by the executive and the Legislature of schemes which international opinion considers necessary and desirable for the amelioration of labour conditions. The International Labour Organization has thus been able to exercise a considerable influence on recent labour legislation in India. Eleven sessions of the International Labour Conference have been held between 1919 and 1929, and no less than 26 draft Conventions have been adopted by the Conference. Of these, eleven Conventions have been ratified by India, while the question of ratifying certain other Conventions is still under consideration. But the progress achieved in India as the result of the deliberations of the International Labour Conference cannot be judged solely by the number of ratifications. Account must also be taken of the extent and nature of the legislation which has resulted from

\* Madras Planters (Repealing) Act, 1927. The Madras Planters' Labour Act, 1903, ceased to have effect from the 1st January, 1929.

the decisions of the Conference. As was stated by Sir Louis Kershaw, the Government delegate to the tenth session of the International Labour Conference, "if a Government, whose legislation is already in conformity with the provisions of a Draft Convention, ratifies that Convention, it is clear that no tangible benefit follows to the worker; but if, on the other hand, ratification involves new obligations and fresh legislation, then the workers benefit."

The action taken by India on each of the Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference is indicated below. The Conventions marked with an asterisk are those which have been ratified by the Government of India.

*First Session. (Washington, 1919).*

(i) \**Draft Convention limiting the Hours of Work in Industrial Undertakings.*—This Convention required India to adopt the principle of a sixty-hour week for all workers in industries covered by the Indian Factories Act, in mines and in such branches of railway work as may be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. The Indian Factories Act of 1911 contained no provisions for limiting the weekly hours of work. It placed a daily limitation on hours of work, but that too, so far as male workers were concerned, applied only to textile factories. The position under the Indian Mines Act of 1901 was still worse; it contained no provisions for regulating the hours of work. The ratification of the Convention accordingly led to a radical revision of both these Acts. In the case of railways, orders were issued in September, 1921, that the sixty-hour week should be adopted for workshop staff and station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. These orders were, however, modified in January, 1922, so as to exclude from their operation the following classes of electrical workers on railways (i) running and maintenance staff of power house; (ii) maintenance staff in shops who can be classed as millwrights; (iii) maintenance staff on outside work who are required to work on maintenance of electric installation, distribution mains, etc.

The question of extending the application of the sixty-hour week on railways has been for some time under the consideration of the Government of India. The matter was referred to the Indian Railway Conference Association, which, at a meeting held in October, 1927, adopted a resolution approving of certain rules on the subject. These rules have also been approved of by the Railway Board in respect of the State-managed railways and by the several boards of directors concerned in respect of company managed railways, but the question of their enforcement is still under consideration.

(ii) \**Draft Convention concerning Unemployment.*—An account of this Convention has already been given in Chapter IV.

(iii) *Draft Convention concerning the Employment of Women before and after Child-birth.*—As already explained in Chapter VI, this Convention was not intended to be applied immediately to India.

(iv) \**Draft Convention concerning the employment of Women during the Night.*

(v) \**Draft Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.*—The position in regard to both these Conventions, which have been ratified by the Government of India, is explained in Chapter XI.

(vi) *Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.*—This Convention required India to prohibit the employment of children under twelve years of age in (a) manufactories working with power and employing more than ten persons; (b) mines, quarries and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (c) the transport of passengers or goods or mails, by rail or in the handling of goods at docks, quays and wharves but excluding transport by hand.

The Indian Factories Act as it stood at the time when this Convention was under consideration applied only to factories using power and employing more than 49 persons. The Government of India proposed to amend the definition of "factory" in the Act so as to cover factories using power and employing not less than 20 persons, and to empower local governments to bring within the scope of the Act any factory employing not less than 10 persons. But they were not prepared to go so far as was required by this draft Convention, as they realized that, without an efficient inspecting staff, legislation would prove nugatory, and it was quite impossible to provide for the large and sudden increase of staff that would be required to deal with the numerous small industrial establishments employing 10 or more persons. The Government of India therefore expressed their inability to ratify this draft Convention unless the two following reservations were accepted (i) that it shall not apply to factories employing more than 10 but less than 20 persons unless the local

Government so direct; (ii) that transitional regulations should be made regarding children between the ages of nine and twelve already lawfully employed in factories.

Although the Draft Convention was not ratified, provisions were included in the Indian Factories and Mines Acts prohibiting the employment of children under the age of twelve years in factories and under the age of thirteen years in mines. An amendment was also made in the Indian Ports Act of 1908 so as to make it obligatory on a local government to make rules prohibiting the employment of children under the age of twelve years upon the handling of goods at piers, jetties, landing-places, wharves, quays, docks, warehouses and sheds.

#### Second Session (Genoa, 1920).

(vii) *Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.*—This Convention was designed to prohibit the employment of children under the age of fourteen years on all ships and boats of any nature whatsoever engaged in maritime navigation, except ships of war, school ships, training ships and vessels in which members of the same family are employed. It further provided that every shipmaster should be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of 16 years employed on board his vessel and of the dates of their birth. The ratification of this Convention presented two difficulties. In the first place, under the existing Indian Shipping law, agreements with seamen are obligatory only in respect of engagements for service on foreign-going ships and home-trade ships of a burden exceeding 300 tons, and it is only where agreements are obligatory that the Government of India could undertake to enforce this Convention. Secondly, a practice exists in India whereby Indian seamen are allowed to take with them on boardship their young sons and nephews. These boys serve as deck-hands on nominal wages and are, in fact, apprentices. The practice is regarded in the light of a privilege, and it was not possible to interfere with it. The Government of India were, therefore, unable to ratify the Draft Convention, but they decided to give effect to it subject to the following reservations (a) that it shall apply only to foreign-going ships and to home-trade ships of a burden exceeding 300 tons; and (b) that nothing in the Draft Convention shall be deemed to interfere with the Indian custom of sending young boys to sea on nominal wages in the charge of their fathers or near relatives.

No legislation has as yet been undertaken, but the question of introducing a single Bill dealing with all the maritime Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference is at present under the consideration of the Government of India.

(viii) *Draft Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship.*—This Convention required the owner of a vessel, or the person with whom the seamen had contracted for service on board the vessel, to pay to each seaman employed thereon an indemnity against unemployment resulting from loss or foundering of the vessel. This indemnity was to be paid at the same rate as the wages payable under the contract for the days during which the seaman in fact remained unemployed, but the Convention provided for the limitation of the total indemnity to two months' wages. The Government of India anticipated great difficulties in giving effect to this Convention in the circumstances obtaining in India, where no labour exchanges or employment offices exist with whom shipwrecked seamen on their return to India could be registered for employment. The Draft Convention was not ratified, but the resolution which was adopted by the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State recommended to the Government of India that enquiries should be undertaken to ascertain whether the law should not be amended so as to provide (1) that any Indian seaman whose service is terminated before the period contemplated in his agreement by reason of the wreck or loss of the ship should be entitled to his wages until he is repatriated to the port of his departure from India; and (2) that he should be paid compensation for loss of his personal effects up to the limit of one month's wages. No legislation has yet been undertaken.

(ix) *Draft Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen.*—The Legislature did not recommend the ratification of this Convention but suggested that an examination should be undertaken of the methods of recruitment of seamen at the different ports in India in order to ascertain whether abuses existed and, if so, whether they were susceptible of remedy. A Committee was accordingly appointed in 1922 to enquire into the whole system of recruitment of seamen in India, and, as a result of its investigations, administrative action was taken to prevent certain serious abuses which were found to exist at Calcutta.

#### Third Session (Genoa, 1921).

(x) *Draft Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture.*—This Convention was designed to prohibit the employment of children under the age of 14 years in any agricultural undertaking, except outside the hours

fixed for school attendance. The wording of this Convention was somewhat ambiguous and the Government of India had some correspondence with the Director of the International Labour Office with regard to the exact intention of its provisions. According to the interpretation of the Director, the obligation imposed by the Convention upon a State member ratifying it is confined to securing that those children who are compelled by law to attend school should have no obstacle placed in their way by reason of their employment in agriculture. But in that event, while the ratification of the Convention involved no legislative action so far as India was concerned, it became virtually devoid of meaning. On the whole, therefore, the Government of India decided not to ratify it.

(xi) *\*Draft Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.*—This Convention has been ratified, but it involved no legislative action on the part of the Government of India. The Convention required a State member ratifying it to secure to all those engaged in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as to industrial workers. There was nothing in the law in force in India at the time when this Convention was ratified which discriminated between these two classes of workers and this position has been maintained by the Indian Trade Unions Act, which was passed in 1926.

(xii) *\*Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.*—This Convention required each State member ratifying it to undertake to extend to all agricultural wage-earners the provisions of its workmen's compensation laws. It was obviously impossible to bring agricultural labourers within the scope of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, and the Convention was not, therefore, ratified.

(xiii) *\*Draft Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.*—The action taken on this Draft Convention has already been indicated in Chapter VI.

(xiv) *\*Draft Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.*—This Convention, which has been ratified, applies in India to factories as defined by the Factories Act, mines and to such branches of railway work as may be specified for the purpose by the competent authority. The ratification of this Convention was made possible by the amendment of the Factories Act in 1922 and by the Indian Mines Act of 1923. In the case of railways a weekly rest-day is granted by railway administrations for practically all classes of employees except train staff, certain men working on stations and yards, those engaged in light intermittent duties, such as gatemen and men employed on maintenance of way and bridges, but in all these cases periods of rest are arranged which, although not strictly in accordance with the Convention, approximate to the principle involved. The application of the weekly rest-day on railways has in some cases led to certain practical difficulties. For instance, on one railway, where, under the existing arrangement, station staff are employed on work for eight hours a day throughout the week, an arrangement to allow a day for rest once a week by increasing the working hours on other days, without raising the total hours beyond 60 in the week, was objected to by the staff. On another railway, gangmen employed on the permanent way objected to a weekly day of rest which was proposed to be substituted for two days' leave every fortnight now given to the men to enable them to go to their homes. The whole question is still under examination by the Railway Board, in consultation with the railway administrations.

(xv) *\*Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.*—This Convention stipulated that young persons under the age of 18 years shall not be employed on vessels as trimmers or stokers, but in the case of vessels exclusively engaged in the coastal trade of India it permitted young persons of not less than 16 years of age to be so employed. The Convention was ratified by the Government of India and instructions were issued to the shipping officers not to permit any young person to be signed on as a trimmer or stoker in contravention of the terms of the Convention. It is proposed to undertake legislation for giving statutory effect to this Convention.

(xvi) *\*Draft Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea.*—This Convention stipulated that no child or young person under the age of 18 years shall be employed on any vessel, unless he produces a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work. It also provided for the periodical medical examination of young persons employed at sea. This Convention was also ratified and its provisions have been enforced by means of executive instructions. It is also proposed to undertake legislation for giving statutory effect to this Convention.

*Seventh Session (Geneva, 1925).*

(xvii) *\*Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.*—The provisions of this Convention went much beyond the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and its application in India involved a radical revision of that Act,



which had then been in force only for little over a year. The Government of India considered it impracticable to undertake any such revision at that time and the Convention was not, therefore, ratified.

(xviii) \**Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.*—The ratification of this Convention led to the amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Act already provided for the grant of compensation for such diseases, but a slight amendment was made in order to bring the Act into conformity with the Convention. It was also necessary for the Governor-General in Council to issue a notification under section 3 (3) of the Act adding mercury poisoning to the list of occupational diseases for which compensation can be claimed.

(xix) \**Draft Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.*—This Convention has been ratified but it necessitated no legislative action on the part of the Government of India, as foreign workers in British India are equally eligible with nationals for the benefits conferred by the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act.

(xx) *Draft Convention concerning night work in bakeries.*—This Convention was designed to prevent the making of bread, pastry or other flour confectionery during the night. It was not suited to conditions in India, where the night is normally the more healthy time for such work than the day. The Convention was accordingly not ratified.

#### *Eighth Session (Geneva, 1926).*

(xxi) \**Draft Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship.*—The ratification of this Convention led to the amendment of the Indian Emigration Act of 1922. The term "emigrant ship" was defined and the Governor-General in Council was empowered to make rules for the appointment of Inspectors for the voyage should circumstances require such action. But no Inspectors were actually appointed for the inspection of emigrants, as it was considered that, in view of the short duration of the voyages concerned in Indian emigration, and the fact that the peculiar complications of European emigration did not arise, the guarantees afforded by the existing system of port inspection were sufficient to protect the emigrant.

#### *Ninth Session (Geneva, 1926).*

(xxii) *Draft Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement.*

(xxiii) *Draft Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen.*

The ratification of both these Conventions would have involved the amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act. The resolution adopted by the Legislature recommended that the question of the ratification of these Conventions should be considered at a later date when the amendments necessary to bring the existing law into conformity with these Conventions had been further examined in consultation with the parties interested.

#### *Tenth Session (Geneva, 1927).*

(xxiv) *Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and for domestic servants.*

(xxv) *Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers.*

These Conventions have already been dealt with in Chapter VI.

#### *Eleventh Session (Geneva, 1928).*

(xxvi) *Draft Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery.*—A reference to this Convention has already been made in Chapter XII.

Thus out of the eleven Conventions ratified by India only three involved no further legislation, viz., items (ii), (xi) and (xix) above. Two Conventions [items (xv) and (xvi) above] have been ratified but the necessary legislation has not yet been undertaken. In some other cases [e.g., items (vi), (ix) and (xviii) above] some action has been taken, though the Conventions have not been ratified by the Government of India.

*Relations between Central and Local Governments.*—Under the existing constitution, industrial matters included under the following heads, namely :—(a) factories; (b) settlement of labour disputes; and (c) welfare of labour, including provident funds, industrial insurance (general, health and accident) and housing, are provincial reserved subjects but subject to central legislation. The provincial legislatures are not debarred from initiating legislation on these matters but they can only do so with the previous sanction of the Governor-General. The actual administration of the Acts passed by the Central Legislature under the above heads falls on the local governments which have to bear the entire cost of administration, as it is not permissible under the constitution to incur any expenditure from central revenues on the administration of provincial subjects. This constitutional position is perhaps, to some extent, responsible for the opposition shown by some of the local governments to labour measures on which their opinions have recently been invited by the Government of India. The Governor-General in Council exercises control over the administration of the Acts passed by the Central Legislature falling under the above heads in two ways. In the first place he is vested by statute with the general power of superintendence, direction and control, and, secondly, these acts in most cases either specially reserve certain powers to him or make the exercise of the powers conferred on local governments subject to his control. Thus, the Indian Factories Act confers power on the Governor-General in Council to make rules requiring occupiers or managers of factories to furnish returns and for the adequate disinfection of wool used in factories which may be infected with anthrax spores (Sections 38 and 38A) while Section 57 of that Act also empowers the Governor-General in Council to exercise any power conferred upon the local government by the Act. Again, the exercise by local governments of the powers to make rules under Section 37 and to grant exemptions from the provisions of the Act under Sections 30 (1), 32 and 32A, is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, reserves the following powers to the Governor-General in Council :—(1) to extend the scope of the Act to persons employed in any occupation, which may be declared to be a hazardous occupation (Section 2 (3)); (2) to add to the list of occupational diseases contained in Schedule III (Section 3 (3)); (3) to direct persons employing workmen to furnish returns relating to the amount of compensation paid and the number of injuries in respect of which compensation has been paid (Section 16); and (4) to make rules to carry out the purposes of the Act (Section 32). The power conferred by Section 33 of this Act on local governments to make rules is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The general principle observed by the Government of India has been to grant to the provinces as free a hand as possible in the administration of these Acts. Where interference is found to be necessary, the general policy has been to tender criticisms in the form of advice and to avoid the issue of direct orders.

Under the Devolution Rules "Regulation of mines" and "Inter-provincial migration" are central subjects. The Indian Mines Act of 1901 conferred large powers on the local governments, but these were curtailed considerably by the Act of 1923. The technical administration of the latter Act is vested in the Governor-General in Council, while minor matters of administration are left to be dealt with by local governments. Here again the power to make rules conferred on local governments can be exercised by them only subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. In the matter of inter-provincial migration the part played by local governments is that of an agent of the Central Government. There are four embarkation depots\* in Bengal and two emigration hospitals in Assam† which are maintained at the expense of the Central Government. In Burma, there is a whole-time officer called the Assistant Protector of Emigrants and Immigrants under the control of the officer in charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Rangoon.

*Work of Special Labour Offices or Officers.*—There are only four provinces in India in which there are special labour offices or officers to deal with labour questions. In Madras there is a Commissioner of Labour and in Calcutta a Labour Intelligence Officer. Both of these officers were appointed in 1920. The former is also Protector of Depressed Classes, in which work most of his time is occupied, while the latter also acts as a deputy secretary to the local government. The Bombay Labour Office, which is organized on an elaborate scale, was established by the local government in April, 1921. This office has to its credit most of the statistical research into labour conditions done in India. It has conducted three enquiries at different times into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry in the Bombay Presidency and one enquiry into the wages of agricultural labour.

\* These embarkation depots are at Kharagpur, Naihati, Asansol and Goalando.

† At Gauhati and Tezpur.

It has also conducted a number of investigations in other directions, and has published monthly since 1921 a Labour Gazette containing information on questions concerning labour in Bombay. In Burma a Labour Statistics Bureau was set up in 1926. This Bureau has conducted an extensive investigation into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, the report of which was published in 1928.

A Labour Bureau was also established by the Government of India in 1920, but it was abolished in March, 1923, on the recommendation of the Indian Retrenchment Committee. It was intended to act as a Bureau for the collection of information, but its attention was mainly devoted to labour legislation, which was particularly heavy during that period.

*Effect of differences in Law in Indian States and British India.*—Few Indian States have any labour legislation but most of them are of little industrial importance. From an enquiry which was made on behalf of the International Labour Office, Geneva, it appears that there are only seven Indian States\* in which the number of persons employed in factories and mines is over 8,000. Most of these States have a Factories Act which is, however, much below the standard of the corresponding Act in British India. In recent years there has been a distinct tendency on the part of certain capitalists to endeavour to evade the provisions of the factory law of British India by establishing mills or factories in the territories of Indian States. The Inspector of Factories, Punjab, in his annual report on the working of the Indian Factories Act for the year 1924 reported as follows:—

"Factory owners in districts adjoining Indian States protest that the Amended Act, entailing the upkeep of registers and compliance with other regulations regarding working hours, Sunday closing, etc., places them at a disadvantage with those in Indian States, where the Factories Act is not in force. Their complaint is a genuine one and felt particularly during the busy ginning season, when there is an all-round demand for skilled and unskilled labour. Employment in factories in States situated within two or three miles of the British territory is always given preference by the workers as they know they are at liberty to work in State territory as long as they wish and thereby earn bigger wages. This is particularly applicable to child labour. During 1924, one factory in Multan district was removed to an Indian State for the purpose of avoiding the provisions of the Indian Factories Act, whilst another in Lyallpur district is expected to be removed next season. Unless the Factories Act is made uniform in both the British and Indian States territories, the tendency will be for factories to be erected in States where factory legislation does not exist and the objects of the Act will be defeated."

Another case was reported in 1928 in which a certain factory owner attempted to remove his factories from one Indian State, where recently a law had been adopted imposing restrictions on the hours of work, to another State, where no such law was in operation.

*Factory Inspection.*—The inspection of factories is entrusted to officers designated, Inspectors of Factories. They fall broadly into two classes, viz., (1) whole-time officers with technical qualifications who are specially appointed for the purpose by the local government, and (2) district magistrates who are ex-officio inspectors under the Act. In addition, the local government may appoint such other public officers, e.g., Sub-divisional Officers and Directors of Public Health, as additional inspectors for all or any of the purposes of the Act. At first, the inspection of factories in India was entrusted almost entirely to local officials, but this proved a complete failure, as the district magistrates were able to devote very little time to the inspection of factories owing to their other and more important duties. Besides, they were not in a position to deal with technical matters such as the adequate fencing of machinery. The tendency has therefore been to rely more on a regular staff and less on local officials for the administration of the Factories Act. Owing to the size of the country and to the fact that the smaller factories lie scattered over a vast area, it has not been possible to dispense with the inspection by district officers, but the responsibility for the efficient administration of the Act now rests primarily with the regular staff, which in each province is under the control of a Chief Inspector of Factories. In order to secure the necessary co-operation between the district magistrates and the inspecting staff the rules made by local governments provide that a copy of all inspection notes shall be sent by the one to the other for information. In addition to inspectors, the Act also provides for the appointment of qualified medical practitioners as certifying surgeons. The powers and duties of these officers are laid down in Section 7 of the Act; they are

\* Viz., Hyderabad, Mysore, Indore, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Gwalior and Travancore.

required ordinarily to visit every factory within their jurisdiction in which children are known to be employed at least once in every three or four months. At each visit the manager of a factory has to produce all the children employed by him before the certifying surgeon who has to satisfy himself as to their fitness for employment.

When the revision of the Indian Factories Act was under consideration the Government of India impressed on local governments the necessity of strengthening the whole-time inspecting staff in the provinces in order to secure the regular inspection of the numerous small concerns and seasonal factories which it was proposed to bring within the scope of the Act. The statement below shows the increase in the regular staff in each province since 1921.

*Strength of the Factory Inspection Staff in 1921 and 1927.*

Name of Province and year.	No. of Chief Inspectors.	No. of Inspectors.	No. of Assistant Inspectors.	Total.
Madras .. .. 1921	1	2	..	3
	1927	1	4	1
Bombay .. .. 1921	1	10	..	11(a)
	1927	1	4	3
Bengal and Assam .. 1921	1	5	..	6
	1927	1	6	3
The United Provinces 1921	..	1	..	1(c)
	1927	1	3	..
The Punjab .. .. 1921	..	1	1	2(e)
	1927	1	..	6(f)
Burma.. .. . 1921	..	1	1	2
	1927	1	2	..
Bihar and Orissa .. 1921	..	1	..	1
	1927	1	1	..
The Central Provinces 1921	..	1	..	1
	1927	1	2	..

(a) Combined staff for factory and boiler inspection.

(b) Staff employed solely for factory inspection.

(c) Also the Senior Inspector of Boilers.

(d) Combined staff for factory and boiler inspection.

(e) The staff in the Punjab also serves three Administrations, viz., the North-West Frontier Province, Ajmer-Merwara, and Delhi.

(f) The Assistant Inspectors in the Punjab are Industrial Surveyors who are appointed additional Inspectors of Factories.

In view of the fact that the number of factories has increased by about 85 per cent. and a large number of the new factories are situated at some distance from the main lines of communications, the increase of staff can hardly be regarded as adequate. In 1921 the Government of India drew the attention of local government to the desirability of appointing medical women as lady inspectors, but, so far, only one such appointment has been made.\* The only province which has not a separate staff is Assam where most of the factories are seasonal and there is not sufficient work for an Inspector of Factories during the off season. At the instance of the Government of India, the local government are now trying to recruit an inspector who will combine the work of factory inspection with that of electrical adviser to the local government. There are only four whole-time certifying surgeons in India of whom two are employed in Bombay and two in Bengal.

In spite of the fact that the increase of staff has not kept pace with the increase in the volume of work, considerable progress has been made in the number of

\* The only lady inspector in India is employed in the Bombay Presidency.

inspections, as will be seen from the table below. It should, however, be pointed out that the figures for 1926 and 1927 include inspections by ex-officio inspectors, which were excluded from the statistics of 1921 in some provinces.

Name of Province and year.	Total number of factories.	Percentage of factories inspected				Percentage of factories inspected.	Percentage of factories remaining un-inspected.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than three times.		
<b>Madras—</b>							
1921 ..	519	36	45	12	1	94	6
1926 ..	1,198	23	43	22	8	96	4
1927 ..	1,301	14	38	30	17	99	1
<b>Bombay—</b>							
1921 ..	926	43	7	4	34	88	12
1926 ..	1,398	29	32	17	20	98	2
1927 ..	1,426	26	34	19	20	99	1
<b>Bengal—</b>							
1921 ..	698	25	6	4	5	40	60
1926 ..	1,234	44	16	6	14	80	20
1927 ..	1,297	43	18	10	17	88	12
<b>The United Provinces—</b>							
1921 ..	201	33	22	7	3	65	35
1926 ..	313	38	21	15	15	89	11
1927 ..	332	54	22	7	4	87	13
<b>The Punjab—</b>							
1921 ..	261	57	26	6	4	93	7
1926 ..	548	73	18	2	..	93	7
1927 ..	546	77	13	2	..	92	8
<b>Burma—</b>							
1921 ..	729	57	1	..	..	58	42
1926 ..	923	80	9	..	..	89	11
1927 ..	940	79	8	..	..	87	13
<b>Bihar and Orissa—</b>							
1921 ..	88	43	6	2	..	51	49
1926 ..	242	63	15	..	1	79	21
1927 ..	255	36	5	2	2	45	55
<b>The Central Provinces—</b>							
1921 ..	459	34	16	6	5	61	39
1926 ..	677	43	34	16	7	100	..
1927 ..	704	39	33	15	12	99	1
<b>Assam—</b>							
1921 ..	22	55	..	..	..	55	45
1926 ..	589	43	4	..	..	47	53
1927 ..	591	46	9	..	..	55	45
<b>All India, including Administrations—</b>							
1921 ..	3,957	41	14	5	10	70	30
1926 ..	7,251	44	24	11	9	88	12
1927 ..	7,515	42	23	13	11	89	11

The best progress has been made in Madras, Bombay and the Central Provinces, while in Assam the percentage of uninspected factories continues to be high. The figures regarding convictions also show that substantial progress has been made in the enforcement of the Act. In 1921 the number of persons convicted was only 55, but in 1927 no less than 1,420 convictions were obtained against 432 persons. In some provinces\* the number of prosecutions for infringements of the Act has been comparatively small, and in one case† the attention of the local government was drawn to the fact that the small number of prosecutions accompanied by a high accident rate might give the impression that the Act was not being stringently enforced within the province.

A complaint which is often repeated in the factory reports is the inadequacy of the fines inflicted by magistrates for deliberate violations of the factory law. As the result of the action taken in some provinces there has in recent years been a marked improvement in this respect, but there are still a large number of cases in which the penalty imposed can hardly be regarded as deterrent.

*Inspection of Mines.*—The inspection of mines in India is entrusted to the Mines Department, which is directly under the Central Government. In the year 1901 when the first Indian Mines Act was passed, the department consisted of one Chief Inspector and two Inspectors. In 1905 an additional Inspector was appointed and in 1913 the department was further strengthened by the appointment of a junior Inspector. In 1919–20 two more officers were appointed, and in 1922, in view of the increasing use of electricity in mines, an Electric Inspector of Mines was added to the staff. In 1925 the department was further strengthened by the addition of two more appointments, viz., one of an Inspector and one of a junior Inspector. The inspecting staff now consists of one Chief Inspector, three Inspectors, five junior Inspectors, and one Electric Inspector. The Inspectors and junior Inspectors are all required to possess first-class certificates of competency to manage a coal-mine, while the Electric Inspector is a qualified Electrical Engineer with knowledge of electricity as applied to mines. For purposes of inspection, British India has been divided into two circles, the first circle consisting of the Provinces of Baluchistan, North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Ajmer-Merwara, the United Provinces, and a portion of the province of Bihar and Orissa, and the second circle of the rest of British India including Burma. Each circle is in charge of an Inspector of Mines who is assisted by junior Inspectors and is responsible for the inspection of mines within his jurisdiction.

The Indian Mines Act of 1923 involved a considerable increase in the work of the Mines Department as the definition of a mine was changed to include a large number of stone and other mines which are scattered throughout India. This increase has, to a certain extent, been countered by the large number of collieries which have been closed owing to the slump in the coal trade. The total number of mines in 1928 coming within the scope of the Act was 1,948, of which 982 mines were inspected during the year. Many of these mines were inspected several times, the total number of inspections being 2,410. The causes and circumstances of practically all fatal accidents and serious accidents of importance, and all complaints of breaches of rules are promptly investigated by the Indian Mines Department. It is not possible for the staff to inspect each mine annually or to inspect more than a part of a mine in the case of the larger mines, but, as will be seen from the statement below the number of inspections has nearly doubled since 1920.

*Inspection of Mines in British India.*

Year.	No. of mines within the scope of the Act.		No. of mines inspected.	No. of inspections.
	Coal-mines.	All mines.		
1919 ..	741	1,719	312	564
1920 ..	783	1,716	702	1,228
1921 ..	884	1,741	798	1,233
1922 ..	953	1,618	877	1,769
1923 ..	942	1,543	903	1,680
1924 ..	846	1,804	763	1,539
1925 ..	810	2,011	958	1,938
1926 ..	722	1,897	1,180	2,321
1927 ..	644	1,992	1,096	2,395
1928 ..	556	1,948	982	2,410

\* E.g., the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam.

† Bihar and Orissa.

The following table shows the number of prosecutions instituted in each year since 1919 and their results :—

Years.	Number of prosecutions.	Number of persons prosecuted.	Number of persons convicted.
1919 .. .. .	35	57	42
1920 .. .. .	53	62	47
1921 .. .. .	47	72	47
1922 .. .. .	59	76	50
1923 .. .. .	39	61	46
1924 .. .. .	68	97	72
1925 .. .. .	62	122	76
1926 .. .. .	75	123	70
1927 .. .. .	61	109	81
1928 .. .. .	88	122	93

## APPENDICES.

### APPENDIX I.

#### *The Assam Labour Recruitment Bill.*

#### *A Bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to recruitment to the Labour Districts of Assam.*

Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the law relating to recruitment for the labour districts of Assam ; it is here by enacted as follows :—

#### *Chapter I.—Preliminary.*

1. (i) This Act may be called the Assam Labour Recruitment Act, 19 ..
  - (ii) It extends—
    - (a) to the Presidencies of Madras and Bengal and to the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa (including the Santhal Parganas), the Central Provinces, and Assam ; and
    - (b) to such other parts of British India as the local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official Gazette, direct.
    - (iii) It shall come into force—
      - (i) In the territories mentioned in Clause (a) of Sub-section (ii), at once ; and
      - (ii) in any territories to which it may be extended by a notification under Clause (b) of the said Sub-section, on such day as may be specified in that behalf in the notification.
  2. (i) In this Act, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context—
    - (a) " Board " means the Assam Labour Board constituted under Chapter III ;
    - (b) " dependant " includes any woman (not being a labourer), any child and any aged or incapacitated relative or friend accompanying any labourer with the consent of a garden-sardar or recruiter or the local agent under whose control the garden-sardar or recruiter may be working ;
    - (c) " employer " means the chief person for the time being in charge of any estate ;
    - (d) " Estate " means land used for the purposes of tea plantation upon which labourers have been engaged to labour and may, if so notified by the Governor-General in Council, include land used for purposes other than of tea plantation ;
    - (e) " garden-sardar " means a person employed on an estate and deputed by his employer to recruit labourers ;
    - (f) " labour-district " means any of the districts of Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong, Darrang, Kamrup, Goalpara, Cachar and Sylhet in the Province of Assam ;
    - (g) " Labourer " means any person (not being a native of a labour-district) of the age of 16 years and upwards who is recruited, engaged, or assisted to proceed from any part of the territories in which this Act may for the time being be in force, to a labour-district for the purposes of performing manual labour for hire on an estate otherwise than as a domestic servant.
- Explanation.*—If any such person having proceeded from an Indian state into such territories is assisted to proceed therefrom for the purpose aforesaid, he shall be deemed to be a labourer within the meaning of this definition :
- (A) " local agent " means a local agent licensed under this Act ;

(i) "magistrate" means a District Magistrate or other person appointed by the local government to perform the functions of a magistrate under this Act ;

(j) "native district" in the case of a person who, having proceeded from an Indian State into territories in which this Act is in force, proceeds therefrom, includes such an Indian State ;

(k) "recruiter" means a person who is not a garden-sardar and is deputed by an employer to recruit labourers ;

(l) "recruiting-district" means a district in which this Act is for the time being in force, other than a labour-district.

3. (i) The local government may, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official gazette, prohibit either absolutely or subject to such exceptions, conditions and restrictions as may be prescribed in the notification all persons from recruiting, engaging or assisting any native of India, or any specified class of natives of India, to proceed from the whole or any specified part of the province, to any labour-district or any specified portion of any labour-district otherwise than through the agency of garden-sardars.

(ii) The local government may with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council by notification in the local official gazette, direct that garden-sardars shall work under the control of local agents duly licensed under this Act ;

Provided that a notification under this section shall not take effect until the expiry of six months from the date of its publication in the gazette, unless for any special reason the local government thinks it necessary to direct otherwise.

4. (i) The local government may appoint so many persons as it thinks necessary to be officers for the administration of this Act, and, with respect to any such officer, may declare the local area situate in the province within which he shall exercise the powers and perform the duties conferred and imposed upon him by this Act or any rule thereunder.

(ii) Every person so appointed shall be deemed to be a public servant within the meaning of the Indian Penal Code.

#### *Chapter II.—Garden-Sardars and Recruiters.*

5. The Government of Assam may prescribe by rules the conditions for and the procedure to be observed in the grant of a certificate of authority to a garden-sardar or recruiter by his employer for recruiting labourers in recruiting districts. The certificates shall be in such form and contain such particulars as may be prescribed.

6. (i) The local government may authorize any district magistrate to grant licences to suitable persons to be local agents, for the purpose of representing employers within a specified area and for a specified period, in all matters connected with the supervision of garden-sardars and recruiters under this Act.

(ii) Any employer, or on behalf of any employer, any association or firm duly authorized by general or special order of the local government for the purpose of this clause, may apply for a licence as aforesaid to be granted to a specified person.

(iii) A local agent shall furnish such information and make such returns as the local government may, by rules, prescribe.

7. (i) The district magistrate of any district within which a local agent acts as such may, by order in writing, cancel or suspend for a specified period a licence granted to a local agent :—(a) If he is satisfied that the conduct of the local agent justifies such a course ; or (b) on an application made for the cancellation or suspension of the licence by an employer, association or firm at whose instance the licence was granted under Section 6.

(ii) A local agent may, within three months from the date of any order of a district magistrate cancelling or suspending his licence under Clause (a) of Sub-section (i), appeal against the order to the local government, and the decision of the local government thereon shall be final.

8. The local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council prescribe by rules the procedure to be adopted and the duties to be performed by garden-sardars and recruiters working independently, and, by garden-sardars and recruiters working under the control of local agents, respectively, and by local agents, for the recruitment of labourers, their registration, medical inspection (if necessary), accommodation, removal to labour-districts, and provision of escort.

9. (i) Subject to any orders which the local government may make in this behalf, the district magistrate (or any other magistrate empowered by the local government in this behalf) may, if he thinks fit, detain and send back to his native district any



labourer found within the jurisdiction of the said magistrate, together with his dependants (if any), on the ground that the labourer was recruited by any coercion, undue influence, fraud or misrepresentation, or of any irregularity in connection with his recruitment.

Any expenditure incurred under this sub-section may be recovered from the employer on whose estate the labourer concerned was working or was proceeding to work.

(ii) The magistrate may provide an escort or make such other arrangements as he may think necessary for ensuring that the labourer or other person is actually conveyed to his native district. Any expenditure incurred under this sub-section may be recovered as part of the amount expended in sending the labourer or other person back to his native district.

10. (i) Every employer shall keep such registers of all labourers and other persons employed on the estate of which he is in charge, and of their dependants, in such form, and shall make to the district magistrate within the local limits of whose jurisdiction the estate is situate, such periodical returns in writing as the local government may, by rule, prescribe.

(ii) The district magistrate, or any other magistrate authorized by him, may examine the registers so kept and muster all labourers and other persons employed on any estate within the said local limits, and may verify the accuracy of the entries in the registers, or in any prescribed periodical return.

### *Chapter III.—Assam Labour Board.*

11. (i) There shall be a board, to be called the Assam Labour Board, for the supervision of local agents, and of the recruitment and engagement of natives of India under this Act.

(ii) The Assam Labour Board shall be a body corporate, and have perpetual succession and a common seal, and may by that name sue and be sued.

(iii) The Assam Labour Board (hereinafter called the Board) shall consist of nine members, including the chairman, who shall be an officer in the service of Government, to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council by notification in the Gazette of India. Four persons shall be nominated by the Governments of Madras, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, respectively, to represent the interests of labour. The remaining members shall be elected by the following bodies, namely :—(a) Two by the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, as representatives of that Association and of the Indian Tea Association, London ; (b) one by the Assam Branch, Indian Tea Association ; and (c) one by the Surma Valley Branch, Indian Tea Association.

(iv) The election shall be made in such manner as may be determined by the electing bodies subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council, and the name of every person so elected shall be published in the Gazette of India.

(v) If within the period prescribed by rules made under this chapter any of the aforesaid bodies fails to elect representatives or to elect the full number of representatives to which it is entitled, the Governor-General in Council may nominate persons to be members of the Board as representatives of the said bodies.

(vi) No act done by the Board shall be questioned on the ground merely of the existence of any vacancy in or any defect in the constitution of the Board.

12. (i) The Governor-General in Council may fix the salary of the chairman of the Board.

(ii) Such salary shall be paid in such proportions by the Governor-General in Council and the Board as the Governor-General in Council may from time to time determine.

13. (i) The Board may appoint so many persons as it thinks necessary to be supervisors, with such powers and duties in respect of the supervision of local agents, and the other matters mentioned in Section 11 as may be conferred and imposed on them by rules made under this chapter.

(ii) Subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, the Board may fix the salary to be paid to supervisors.

(iii) The local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, declare the local area in the province within which supervisors shall exercise the powers and perform the duties conferred and imposed upon them by rule under this chapter.

(iv) Every supervisor shall be deemed to be a public servant within the meaning of the Indian Penal Code.

14. (i) Subject to the provisions of rules made under this chapter, the Board may levy a cess on employers for the purpose of meeting expenditure incurred in carrying out its functions under this Act, and in particular for the payment of the salary of the supervisors and of such proportion of the salary of the chairman as may be determined under Section 12.

(ii) Such cess shall be payable on every garden-sardar or recruiter deputed by an employer to recruit or engage labourers and on every labourer assisted to proceed to a labour-district :

Provided that the rates at which the cess is levied shall not exceed the following rates, namely :—Rs. 5 a year on each garden-sardar or recruiter so deputed ; and Rs. 5 on each labourer assisted to emigrate.

(iii) On the failure of an employer for the space of one month after the receipt of a notice in such form and served in such manner as the Governor-General in Council may, by rule under this chapter, prescribe to pay any sum due under Sub-section (i), the same shall be recoverable from him.

15. (i) The Governor-General in Council shall, after previous publication, make rules to carry out the purposes of this chapter.

(ii) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power such rules may, subject to the provisions of this Act, provide :—

(a) For the powers to be exercised and the duties to be performed by the Board in carrying out the purposes for which it is constituted, and for the powers and duties of the chairman ;

(b) For the period within which elections to the Board must be made, and for the appointment of temporary or acting members of the Board during the absence of any member ;

(c) for the times and places of meeting and procedure of the Board ;

(d) for regulating the rate of the cess, the method of levying and collecting the cess, the purposes to which the cess may be applied, and the accounts to be kept and the audit thereof ; and

(e) for the powers and duties of supervisors appointed under Section 13.

#### *Chapter IV.—Rules.*

16. (i) In addition to the powers hereinbefore conferred, the local Government may make rules to carry out any of the purposes and objects of this Act in the province.

(ii) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such rules may :—

(a) Define and regulate the powers and duties of the several officers appointed by it under this Act ;

(b) prescribe the returns and reports to be made under this Act by any such officers as aforesaid or by any local agent within the province and the form in which they shall respectively be made ;

(c) prescribe the forms of all registers, licences, certificates, permits and notices required under this Act with respect to the province ;

(d) prescribe the fees to be paid for any licence granted under this Act and for the registration of labourers or their dependants in any district in the province ;

(e) regulate the provision of the accommodation, food, clothing, and medical treatment of all labourers and their dependants detained on account of sickness by order of a magistrate at any place within any district in the province.

(iii) Where any employer, local agent or other person fails to perform any act which he is by any rule made under Sub-section (ii) required to perform, the local Government may cause the act to be performed and the cost may be recovered from the employer, local agent, or other person, as the case may be.

(iv) In making any rule under this Act the local Government may direct that every breach thereof shall be punishable with a fine not exceeding in any case Rs. 500.

(v) All rules made by the local Government under this Act shall be published in the local official gazette, and, on such publication, shall have effect as if enacted by this Act.

#### *Chapter V.—Penalties and Procedure.*

17. Whoever knowingly recruits, engages or assists, or attempts to recruit, engage, or assist, or abets the recruitment, engagement or assistance of any person to proceed to a labour district in contravention of any of the provisions of this Act or of any

rule or notification for the time being in force thereunder, shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to six months, or with a fine which may extend to Rs. 500, or with both.

18. Whoever, being an employer, refuses or wilfully omits to keep such registers or to make such periodical returns in writing to the district magistrate as may be prescribed by any rule made under this Act, or knowingly keeps an incorrect register or makes an incorrect return, shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 500.

19. Whoever, being an employer, or acting under the orders or on behalf of an employer, wilfully obstructs any entry, inspection or inquiry, or omits to comply with any requisition made under Section 10 shall for every such offence be punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 500.

20. Whoever commits any offence under this Act or under any rule framed under this Act shall be triable for the offence in any place in which he may be found, as well as in any other place in which he might be tried under any law for the time being in force.

#### *Chapter VI.—Miscellaneous.*

21. Every sum recoverable under this Act from any person may be recovered on application to a magistrate having jurisdiction where the person is for the time being resident, by the distress and sale of any moveable property belonging to that person and situated within the limits of the magistrate's jurisdiction.

22. The Assam Labour and Emigration Act, VI of 1901, and of the Assam Labour and Emigration (Amendment) Acts, XI of 1908, VIII of 1915, XXXI of 1927, are hereby repealed.

## APPENDIX II.

### *Unemployment.*

*Letter from the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour, to all major local Governments, No. L.1378, dated 26th May, 1926.*

I am directed to forward, for the information of the local Government, a copy of the debate which took place in the Legislative Assembly on 28th January, 1926, on the subject of unemployment. A resolution was passed in the Legislative Assembly in the following terms:—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means; and that the said committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible."

2. A perusal of the debate will show that two different and, in the view of the Government of India, distinct problems came under discussion. A portion of the debate had reference to the question of unemployment in the sense in which it is understood in western countries, i.e., unemployment among industrial workers. The Government of India are aware that such unemployment occurs sporadically among particular classes of workers, and is possibly a regular feature in a few industries, such as shipping. They do not believe, however, that, either at the present time or normally, general unemployment, as it is known in Europe, is a feature of the Indian industrial system. It is certainly true that in a number of industries, at any rate, the demand for labour is generally greater than the supply. Widespread unemployment in the ordinary sense of the term is probably confined to seasons when the occurrence of scarcity or famine produces partial or complete stoppage of agricultural activity over considerable areas, and thus throws out of work not only agricultural labour but labour employed in industries subsidiary to agriculture. A situation of this character is met in India by a system of famine relief which probably has no parallel in other countries, but to which no reference was made in the course of the debate.

3. The Government of India do not desire to pursue this aspect of the question. For it is clear, both from the actual wording of the resolution and from the general course of the debate, that the majority of members who supported the resolution in the Legislative Assembly had principally in mind a problem of an entirely different

character, namely, the problem of unemployment among the educated classes. But for certain statements to the contrary made in the course of the debate, it would be unnecessary to say that the Government of India have never attempted to minimize the gravity of this problem, which they believe to be one of increasing urgency and importance. There is ample evidence of the fact that in almost every part of India the openings for employment in clerical and professional occupations are few in proportion to the numbers seeking such employment. The economic stress resulting from this state of affairs is responsible in no small measure for political discontent, and it is obvious that, even if the governments in India were, as some critics incorrectly alleged, indifferent to the humanitarian side of the problem, self-interest alone would impel them to do what they can towards securing an improvement.

4. It is no part of the intention of the Government of India to attempt in this letter either to analyse the causes of, or to suggest remedies for, this state of affairs. The present trade depression is an incident, possibly temporary and certainly by no means the most important, contributory to this form of unemployment. The root causes lie far deeper, and are far more complex. The educational system, the state of industrial development, the changes that are being slowly wrought in the social structure, such as the gradual disintegration of the caste system, which at one time operated to prevent middle-class unemployment by restricting admission to the clerical professions, and at the bottom psychological factors inherent in the habits and customs of the people are all contributory causes to a state of affairs for which, from the nature of the case, no Government can find a panacea. The people alone can produce a change, and the change must necessarily take time to accomplish.

5. These considerations, however, must not stand in the way of the adoption of any measures which would tend to alleviate the situation, and the opposition of the Government of India to the resolution in the Assembly was based not on these considerations, but on their conviction that the problem is one which must be tackled in the first instance by local governments and local bodies. It is not merely the case that the problem differs both in nature and extent in different parts of India, but it seems to the Government of India that such remedies as may be found practicable are remedies which only local governments, and more particularly the transferred sides of local governments, can apply. Industrial development and changes in educational policy are the direct concern of Ministers, and the immediate appointment of a committee by the Central Government could not, in the view of the Government of India, serve any useful purpose. The Government of India are, of course, fully aware of the fact that the subject is one which has not been neglected either by local governments or local legislative councils. On the contrary, it has already been discussed by legislative councils in the majority of the major provinces, and in some it has been, or is at present, the subject of investigation by committees appointed by the local governments. The deliberations of these committees should indicate the extent to which Government action can provide a means of ameliorating the existing situation. It is not apparent to the Government of India that there is any present need for a central committee to co-ordinate local efforts, and unless and until it becomes clear that such co-ordination would be of real value, the Government of India are not prepared to give effect to the resolution of the Assembly for the appointment of such a committee. They can only for the present ask that the problem, the gravity of which they fully recognize, should receive the most careful consideration of the local government.

### APPENDIX III.

#### *Ventilation and Humidification in Cotton Mills.*

*Letter to all Local Governments (except Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam) and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924.*

I am directed to address you regarding the regulation of ventilation and of humidification in cotton mills.

2. The question has been the subject of discussion for many years, and has been investigated on several occasions during that period. As early as 1891 local governments were empowered to make rules for the ventilation of factories and for the protection of the health of the operatives. In most factories the regulation of the atmospheric conditions has presented no great difficulty. But in the majority of cotton mills the necessity for the employment of artificial humidification has proved a serious obstacle. It is unnecessary here to recapitulate the history of the question, because in spite of the attention given to the subject by Governments and employers and by more than one committee, no satisfactory solution was reached. It has

hitherto proved impossible to introduce regulations which would adequately secure the comfort and health of the operatives in cotton mills and which would not injure very seriously the cotton mill industry and, in consequence, the operatives themselves.

3. The Government of India accordingly instituted a special enquiry in 1921. The investigation was entrusted to Mr. T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., who was instructed :—

(1) To obtain accurate observations regarding the method of humidification and ventilation employed in cotton mills and their effect on working conditions; and

(2) to evolve recommendations designed to effect a marked amelioration in conditions without serious detriment to the industry.

His enquiries covered a period of 18 months and the detailed results, together with his recommendations, were embodied in his report entitled "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills," which was presented to the Government of India in 1923. Printed copies of this report have now been in the hands of local governments, of employers, and of the public for some months, and the Government of India therefore trust that local governments are now prepared to give their views on the questions involved.

4. The need for improved ventilation and for the control of humidification in a number of cotton mills has never been seriously disputed. It has long been admitted that the conditions of work were the cause in many cases of serious discomfort, and occasionally of impaired health among the operatives, Mr. Maloney's general conclusion is that "while it has not been definitely proved that health is materially affected in every case, it is significant that the physique of the average cotton operative is much lower than that of workers of similar castes and wage-earning capacity in other trades, and that weight decreases after a few months' continuous service." He further adds, "There is also abundant evidence to show that when high temperatures were combined with a high degree of humidity, conditions were most distressing and uncomfortable, and on humanitarian grounds, even though health may not be permanently affected, something should be done to improve conditions." These conclusions do not differ from those generally held in the past, but, as a result of the investigations made, they now rest on full scientific enquiry. Mr. Maloney's report gives for the first time a detailed and accurate survey of conditions in all the important centres; it contains full statistics summarizing his observations in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Cawnpore, Madras, Coimbatore, Sholapur, the Central Provinces, Calcutta and Delhi. The conditions in each of the more important centres are discussed at some length, and local governments will no doubt devote special attention to those parts of the report dealing with centres for which they are responsible. The Government of India do not propose, therefore, to pass in review here the detailed analysis given in the report, but I am to add a few general conclusions that follow from the facts which have been ascertained.

5. It is clear in the first place that there are wide differences in working conditions between centre and centre. In view of the climatic variations some such differences were inevitable. Thus, in some centres there is no serious difficulty in maintaining comfortable conditions of work, and the report, while indicating the possibility of minor improvements, suggests that the operatives in such centres do not stand in pressing need of protection. In most centres, however, there appears to be considerable room for advance, and in some a strong case has been made out for insisting on radical alterations in the working conditions. For example, Mr. Maloney's description of conditions in Ahmedabad weaving sheds on page 16 of his report reveals a state of affairs which cannot be regarded with equanimity.

6. It is evident, however, that in addition to the inevitable variations between centre and centre, there are unexpectedly wide differences in conditions in different mills in the same centre. For example, in Bombay Mr. Maloney shows that the conditions in one weaving shed in December approximate to those in another in May—the worst month of the year—and that between the two mills there is an average temperature difference of 6° all the year round. In Ahmedabad the statistics show equally large differences; it is clear that both here and in the Central Provinces, where climatic conditions must be regarded as unfavourable, there are individual mills where conditions are markedly superior to the average. In practically every case in which comparisons are possible, conditions vary considerably from mill to mill. This conclusion is especially significant, as it indicates that conditions in the mills, while they are not, of course, independent of the climatic conditions, do depend to a large extent on factors lying within the control of factory owners and managers.

7. The problem can thus be reduced to one of standards. But there are two difficulties to be surmounted before standards can be laid down. In the first place, a system must be selected which will render possible a fairly accurate measurement

of the air conditions in any factory, viewed from the standpoint of the health and comfort of the operatives. These conditions must be expressed in some numerical form which will enable the inspector, employers and all who are concerned to compare without undue difficulty conditions in one mill with those in another, and conditions on one day or at one period with those on another day or at another period. The scale or scales evolved must be such that a movement in one direction or the other does correspond more or less accurately to a change for the better or for the worse in the conditions under which the operatives work. In the second place, if such a scale can be successfully constructed, there remains the difficulty of determining in the light of the needs of the operatives and the requirements of the industry the actual standards to be fixed, i.e., the minimum position or positions on the scale to which mills or departments are to be required to conform.

8. The method of measurement proposed in Section 15 of the report has as its basis the cooling power of the air, as ascertained by the kata-thermometer. A full description of this instrument is given in the report, with clear instructions for its use. It is sufficient to say here that it is an alcohol thermometer graduated from 95° F. to 100° F., and that the cooling power of the air is measured by observing, subject to certain precautions, the time taken for the temperature of the thermometer to fall from 100° to 95°. The cooling power is obtained by dividing the fixed number recorded on the instrument by the number of seconds of time occupied by the thermometer to fall. The kata-thermometer can be used either "dry or wet," i.e., the bulb of the thermometer may be either exposed in a dry state to the air or it may be covered by a small thread bag which is moistened with water before an observation is taken. It is the latter method which Mr. Maloney proposes to employ.

9. The theory underlying the use of the kata-thermometer is that, by registering the cooling effect of the air on the bulb when that bulb is approximately at blood heat, it indicates the cooling effect which the air conditions exercise upon the human body. The dry kata-thermometer gives an approximate measurement of the cooling power of the air on a person who is not losing heat by evaporation, i.e., who is not perspiring. When heat is being lost by evaporation the wet kata-thermometer gives a more reliable index. The measurement is always approximate, for the effect of clothes has to be considered, but where, as in Indian cotton mills, the workers are very lightly clad and the temperature is high, the wet kata-thermometer should give a very reliable estimate of the index of comfort. For other reasons, also, the dry kata-thermometer cannot suitably be used in Indian mills. It would be out of place here to enter into a technical discussion of the theory of the subject; reference may be made to the results of recent researches as given in such publications as the two Reports of the Medical Research Council on "The Science of Ventilation and Open-air Treatment" and the more recent report entitled "The Kata-thermometer in Studies of Body Heat and Efficiency." The Government of India observe that the conclusions reached independently by various researches in England and elsewhere have been confirmed by Mr. Maloney's extensive observations in India. In particular, to quote from the last of the reports, cited above, "In the judgment of all observers in all parts of the world, atmospheric conditions classified by one of us on the objective basis of kata-thermometric readings as unsatisfactory are, when tested by the subjective sensations of the observer, hard to endure."

10. The basis proposed—the cooling power of the air as measured by the kata-thermometer—is not as yet statutorily employed in any country in the world. But the existing standards in other countries date from a period before the recent researches were undertaken, and, in fact, before the kata-thermometer had been designed. Further, in addition to the strong case for the use of this method, there are serious objections to the use of any other method which has been suggested. The first method proposed in India was the prescription of the size of lateral openings in the factory walls or roof; an attempt to enforce such standards in Bombay more than thirty years ago was abandoned almost at once. The mere existence of openings of a certain size affords no guarantee to the workers of suitable conditions, while it may make the continuance of some processes impossible at certain seasons. The measurement of the content of carbon dioxide which has been used in England and other countries and which was contemplated by the Textile Factories Labour Committee of 1907 is now generally admitted to be thoroughly unsatisfactory; such a standard gives no measurement of comfort of the operative. The prescription of standards depending on the dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures and the difference between them is of more value, but it fails, like the standards just mentioned, because it takes no account of the vital factor of air movement. The adoption of wet and dry bulb scales on the lines of those laid down in Great Britain as necessary for the protection of the operatives would practically extinguish the cotton mill industry in India. Even if full allowance were made for the fact that the Indian operative does not undergo discomfort in conditions in which an English operative would find it difficult to work, any such system would act arbitrarily in preventing humidification when its

use was not objectionable, and in permitting its use when it should be forbidden. A system so prepared would, in fact, show little correspondence to the actual needs of the operative or to the legitimate requirements of the industry.

11. If the method of measurement is approved, the remaining question is the standard of cooling power to be adopted. Mr. Maloney suggests that the standard of cooling power as measured by the wet kata cooling power should be 11 (milli-calories per sq. cm.) at head level. He notes that a considerably higher standard would be advantageous, but, as a result of his observations, he considers that the standard proposed if applied, would prevent danger to health and serious discomfort among mill operatives. The standard is certainly a low one; it is far below the minimum suggested by Dr. Leonard Hill for sedentary work (18) and still further below the standards suggested for manual work (25 and 30). But Mr. Maloney has given grounds for the conclusion that standards regarded as suitable in Europe should not be applied unaltered to Indian conditions. And it is evident that the attainment of this standard would mean a vast improvement in existing conditions; it would probably fail to eliminate discomfort, but it would certainly prevent the continuance of conditions seriously detrimental to the operatives. While, therefore, this standard need not be regarded as an ideal one, its attainment would go far towards the solution of the problem. I am, therefore, to suggest that efforts during the next few years should be concentrated on making its enforcement practicable.

12. There remains the important question of the reconciliation of the demands of the industry with the standards to be introduced. Unfortunately, it is only too clear from Mr. Maloney's observations that the immediate introduction even of the low standard discussed in the preceding paragraph is impracticable at present. In some centres, e.g., Madras, the standard is exceeded for most of the year, and there would probably be no great difficulty in conforming to the standard continuously. But it is evident that in most of the mills in Ahmedabad and Bombay the cooling power seldom remains above the standard for the whole day, and frequently fails to attain the standard at any time in the course of the day. In some centres, such as Cawnpore, the standard is maintained only when the weather is cold. Mr. Maloney therefore proposed to allow the mills a period of about two years to enable them to introduce adaptations and arrangements capable of producing the required standard of cooling. Assuming that the standard is generally approved, the Government of India doubt if the period suggested will prove adequate for the purpose, and on this question I am to request that in reply an opinion may be expressed.

13. I am now to invite attention to the regulations proposed by Mr. Maloney for immediate application. These will be found on pages 87 to 90 of the report; they are designed to effect as much improvement as is immediately practicable in existing conditions and to enable millowners to prepare for the introduction of the standard of cooling power already discussed. Mr. Maloney's proposal, in essence, is to permit, as a temporary alternative to a standard of cooling power, a standard based on the difference between the wet bulb and dry bulb temperatures. The schedule of temperature suggested by Mr. Maloney naturally allows much wider latitude than the schedule at present in force in England. Mainly in order to meet monsoon conditions, Mr. Maloney further proposes to allow humidification so long as the wet bulb temperature inside the mill does not exceed the corresponding temperature outside in the shade by more than a small fixed amount. The result would be that artificial humidification would only be prohibited if the conditions in a mill violated each of three different standards. If the mill satisfied the regulations either by maintaining an adequate difference between the dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures, or by preventing the wet bulb temperature inside the mill from rising by more than a fixed amount above the wet bulb temperature outside, or by providing the necessary standard of cooling power, no restriction would be placed on artificial humidification. It is further proposed that where steam is used for the purpose of artificial humidification its introduction should cease when the dry bulb temperature of the room exceeds 85° F. There is abundant evidence to prove that the most distressing conditions are associated with use of live steam for humidification. As Mr. Maloney observes, the great objection to its use is that "it increases the wet bulb temperature, but unlike cold water humidification does not at the same time decrease the dry bulb temperature." The evidence which Mr. Maloney has adduced, affords, in the opinion of the Government of India, strong support for the immediate introduction of a regulation of the type proposed.

14. Mr. Maloney's examination of the application of his rules to existing conditions in the mill suggests that these regulations could be introduced without much difficulty. The existence of the alternative standards he suggests appears to afford considerable latitude, and as steam humidification when used in mills appears to be invariably supplemented by water humidification, the prohibition of steam humidification when a temperature of 85° is reached should not prove impracticable. It is, of course, obvious that the present unsatisfactory conditions cannot be improved

without placing a certain initial burden upon some millowners. The Government of India are reluctant, more especially at a time when the industry is not in a particularly flourishing condition, to impose any unnecessary burdens, but they feel that the existence of conditions disclosed by Mr. Maloney's investigations justify them in demanding that, in a number of cases, measures shall be taken to effect material improvements in working conditions. No factory should be permitted to conduct its work in conditions which constitute a serious menace to the well-being of its workers, and if the conditions regarded as objectionable are eliminated in other mills working under exactly similar climatic conditions, the argument for bringing pressure on the mills in which the worst conditions are found is extremely strong.

15. There are, however, reasons for believing that the benefits which will accrue from an improvement in working conditions will not be confined to the operatives. Researches in England and elsewhere have shown that an improvement in cooling power results in an increase of efficiency, and the experiments described on pages 60 to 73 of Mr. Maloney's report indicate clearly that similar results may be anticipated in India. It is indeed only natural to expect that, where the operatives have to carry on their work under conditions involving extreme discomfort, their efficiency should be temporarily, if not permanently, impaired, and there is every hope that an improvement in atmospheric conditions will be accompanied by an increase in output which may compensate for the extra expense incurred.

16. Mr. Maloney further proposes to insist on (a) the provision of an adequate number of hygrometers in departments where humidity is likely to be excessive, and (b) the maintenance of humidity registers containing records of the wet and dry bulb temperatures. The regulations requiring the maintenance of a number of hygrometers and the corresponding regulations for their proper care are obviously necessary. It is also evident that if accurate registers can be maintained in the form prescribed by Mr. Maloney, the data provided will be of great value. The statistics so collected would not merely provide information regarding any particular mill; they would furnish material for estimating the effect of any regulations introduced, and for enabling Government to modify unsuitable rules and to introduce fresh rules when required. There is considerable fear, however, that the entries in the register will be inaccurate, more especially in mills where the prescribed standards are being contravened, and it is clear that the register, if maintained, cannot be expected to provide a check on breaches of the regulations, or to take the place of adequate inspection. But the better mills may be expected to maintain reliable records, and in all mills the maintenance of the registers will ensure that the hygrometers are kept in working order; the work of the inspectors may be largely nullified if no such precaution is taken. On the whole, therefore, the Government of India are inclined to support Mr. Maloney's proposals.

17. Finally, it is proposed to empower inspectors to insist on the adoption of methods designed to reduce temperature and to place restrictions upon the methods of construction in the case of new mills. Rule 8 of the draft rules framed by Mr. Maloney contains certain proposals of this nature, and a number of other suggestions are made on pages 74 to 84 of the report. So far as existing mills are concerned, it may be advisable to empower inspectors to insist on the whitewashing of roofs or on spraying them with water when temperatures are excessive. It is also worth considering whether inspectors should not be empowered to insist on the introduction of suitable devices, where these are necessary, to mitigate unusually high temperatures. It should not be difficult for the inspector to select the mills or departments where abnormally high temperatures prevail, and general orders might then be applied to these cases.

18. As regards new mills, there appears to be no reason why effective control should not be maintained over their construction. As Mr. Maloney points out, a considerable amount of the discomfort suffered at present is due to the faulty construction of mills. Municipalities have usually the power to control the construction of new buildings in certain respects, but the considerations which weigh with such authorities in granting or refusing permission to construct are usually unconnected with the internal temperatures likely to prevail in the mill after it has been built. The Government of India are inclined to the view that, subject to the control of the local government, the sanction of the factory inspector should be necessary to the construction of a new factory or the conversion into a factory of an existing building used for some other purpose. The factory inspector would thus be able to prevent the erection of mills in which, by reason of the details of their construction, the operatives would be unable to work under humane conditions. This principle, if adopted, might apply equally to cotton mills and to other types of factories. If this suggestion is adopted, it will be necessary to ensure that industrialists are not subjected to unavoidable delay or unnecessary interference. It might be advisable for the local Government to issue and to publish for general information



instructions for the guidance of factory inspectors, specifying the particulars, e.g., as regards class of building, roof material, height, etc., which should render a proposed building above question.

19. In conclusion, it may be convenient to set down the main questions upon which the Government of India desire the views of the local Government.  
your views.

These are :—

(1) Should cooling power, as measured by the kata-thermometer, be adopted as the most satisfactory basis for ultimate control of the humidification and ventilation in cotton mills ?

(2) If so, should the standard suggested by Mr. Maloney be approved ?

(3) What period must be allowed to elapse before a standard of this kind can be enforced ?

(4) Is it advisable to introduce immediately the alternative standards suggested in Rules 1 and 2 on page 87 of Mr. Maloney's report ?

(5) Should the use of steam be prohibited when the temperature of a department exceeds 85° F. ?

(6) Should mill managers be required to maintain humidity registers ?

(7) Should inspectors be empowered to insist on whitewashing, roof-spraying, or other measures to reduce excessive temperatures ?

(8) What measures should be taken to control the construction of new factories with a view to ensuring healthy conditions of work ?

*Letter to all Local Governments (except Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam) and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, No. L.843, dated 11th December, 1925.*

The Government of India have considered in detail the opinions expressed on their circular letter No. L.843 of 26th April, 1924, and I am to forward for the information and guidance of the local Government their provisional conclusions.

2. In respect of one of the proposals put forward by Mr. Maloney, there is practically complete unanimity. This is the suggestion that the use of steam for the purpose of humidification should be prohibited when the temperature in a department exceeds 85° F. It is generally admitted that the worst conditions are associated with the use of steam for humidification at high temperatures, and the Government of India consider that prohibition of this practice will be attended with little difficulty and will constitute an important reform. They desire, therefore, that rules should be issued by local Governments to secure this end after allowing such period as is considered reasonable to enable the management of the mills affected to make the necessary alterations. Suggestions have indeed been made that a lower temperature standard might reasonably be insisted on and, if the local Government consider that it is feasible and wise to insist on a more stringent standard than is suggested by Mr. Maloney, the Government of India have no objection to their so doing. I am to request that copies of the draft rules and of the rules as finally framed may be forwarded to the Government of India after their publication.

3. On the first four questions formulated at the close of this department's previous letter, there is some divergence of opinion. The importance of effecting an improvement in conditions is generally recognized and the method of regulation suggested by Mr. Maloney has not been seriously questioned by competent critics. But there is in many quarters some reluctance to adopt the definite standards suggested without further investigations. In at least one province further inquiries are being conducted by the local Government. Considerable stress has been laid on the wide climatic differences prevailing between province and province; and, while the Government of India are anxious that advance in one province should not be delayed by inaction in another, they recognize that it is probably impracticable, at present at any rate, to prescribe minimum standards applicable to the whole of India.

4. They therefore approve the suggestion that further inquiries and experiments should be made, and they consider that the scope and nature of these inquiries can best be determined by local Governments with full regard to local conditions and local needs. They believe that in nearly all cases the maintenance of humidity registers in the more important mills will be an essential preliminary. And they are inclined to think that in most cases it will be necessary to proceed as Mr. Maloney has suggested, by the introduction of intermediate standards before final standards can suitably be prescribed. The Government of India consider that the necessary steps should now be taken by the local Government to obtain any further information which they require to enable them to formulate final conclusions. I am to request

that a special report embodying the results of any inquiries made, together with an account of the working of any rules, experimental or otherwise, which may have been introduced in the period, may be submitted to the Government of India not later than 31st October, 1927. The Government of India consider that the period allowed should be sufficient to permit of a full investigation, and it may then be possible, by examining the results obtained in different provinces, to secure some co-ordination in the rules relating to the subject.

5. Paragraph 17 of this department's previous letter raised the question of the control of temperature in factories generally. The Bill to amend the Indian Factories Act, 1911, introduced in the Legislative Assembly in September, 1925, contains clauses which, if adopted, will place inspectors in a position to secure that reasonable temperatures are maintained. This Bill has been separately circulated to local Governments for their opinions, and no further reference to this question is necessary here.

6. The question of the control and inspection of new factories, which were discussed in paragraph 18 of this department's previous letter, will form the subject of a separate communication.

## APPENDIX V.

### *Sickness Insurance.*

*Letter to all local Governments, No. L. 1518, dated the 20th September, 1928.*

The following resolution was adopted by the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly on the 20th and 27th March respectively :—“ That this Council/Assembly having considered the Draft Conventions and Recommendation adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should not ratify the Draft Conventions nor accept the Recommendation.”

2. The Government of India are satisfied that the introduction in India of any comprehensive scheme on the lines of the Conventions is not a practical proposition in existing conditions. The reasons for this conclusion were indicated in the course of the debates in the Legislative Assembly and Council of State, and the Government of India do not think it necessary to enlarge upon them. They are of opinion, however, that the possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance requires further examination. Sickness insurance laws are now in force in nearly every leading country, and the Government of India are in entire sympathy with the ideals that underlie these laws. They are satisfied that the need of Indian workers for some provision is in no way less than the need of workers in other countries, and the problem as it presents itself to them is one of determining the extent to which the serious practical difficulties that must attend the introduction of any scheme can be overcome. I am to request that this matter may kindly be investigated by the local government, and I am to suggest for their consideration that it might be advisable to entrust the examination to a small and informal committee including a few representatives of employers and employees.

3. The Government of India do not desire to put forward any particular scheme for consideration at this stage. They recognize that conditions differ widely throughout India, and they would prefer to await suggestions from those who are familiar with the working conditions in different centres. Certain features, however, are common to practically every scheme of compulsory sickness insurance. These include the provision both of medical attendance (including medicines, etc.), and of a regular allowance to the worker who is prevented by sickness from earning a regular wage. Ordinarily benefits are withheld from persons who have not contributed for a specified minimum period before falling sick and a minimum period of sickness is necessary to qualify for benefit.

4. Laws relating to sickness insurance are generally national in their application ; but the workers covered are ordinarily distributed for the purposes of insurance among a number of groups, each of which is responsible, under State control, for its own fund. These groups may be organized in various ways ; they are commonly formed on a regional or an industrial basis, i.e., they may cover the workers in a particular local area or the workers in a particular division of industry. The benefits due to the workers in any group are met from the fund pertaining to that group ; and to this fund insured workers are required to contribute regularly ; their contributions almost invariably provide at least one-half of the income required. The remainder of the income is ordinarily met by a contribution from the employer,

supplemented in a considerable number of cases by a contribution from the State. The levy of a contribution from the employer is justified both by the extent to which the conditions of employment contribute to produce sickness, and by the benefit which the industry derives from a healthy and regular labour force.

5. It will be evident therefore that in any consideration of the problem there are certain factors which must receive attention. These include :—(1) the extent to which it is possible to provide medical facilities ; (2) the extent to which medical facilities are likely to be acceptable to the persons insured ; (3) the extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate ; (4) the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme ; (5) the extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them ; (6) the extent to which State assistance can be granted.

6. The Government of India anticipate that an examination of the questions will lead to the conclusion that if sickness insurance schemes can be successfully introduced, they must, in the first instance at any rate, be applicable only within well defined limits, either regional or industrial, or both. If this anticipation is fulfilled and if the local government consider that the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance is practicable, they will doubtless consider whether legislation should be provincial or central. On this and the other questions raised in this letter, the Government of India are anxious to receive the views of the local Government, and they will be prepared to consider sympathetically any constructive proposals that may be put forward.

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, No. 5131-D., dated the 15th February, 1929.*

In the opinion of the Government of Bombay a scheme of sickness insurance is not a practical proposition at the present time, and assuming it were, if it involved contributions from the funds of the local Government, the latter would be unable to find them. If the Whitley Commission, after hearing evidence in all parts of India, comes to the conclusion that a scheme of sickness insurance is desirable and is practicable, and indicates the lines upon which such a scheme can be started, then the Government of Bombay will give the scheme its hearty support to the extent of the resources which may be made available.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 1719-Com., dated the 6th March, 1929.*

In view of the impending appointment of a Royal Commission on Indian labour, the Government of Bengal propose to take no further action in the matter until the subject is dealt with by the Royal Commission.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. 903-L., dated the 19th March, 1929.*

The Commissioner of Labour was asked to entrust the examination of the question to a small and informal committee as suggested by the Government of India, but the Committee so formed has not been able to suggest any satisfactory method of introducing a scheme of sickness insurance, and is of opinion that actual experiment is the only way to arrive at a definite appreciation of the practical difficulties involved and possibly a solution. This Government doubts whether any committee could within a reasonable time arrive at any result reasonably conclusive. A survey would have to be made of the wages paid in a large number of industries. Some knowledge also would have to be gained of the profits which those industries make in order to ascertain how far any particular industry would be able to bear the cost of the contribution which the employers would have to make. Extensive enquiries would also be necessary amongst the labourers themselves as to their willingness to contribute a portion of their wages for the scheme. All this would take time, and the Government do not consider it either expedient or necessary to have such an experiment made.

2. His Excellency the Governor in Council has carefully considered the question, and entertains grave doubts whether compulsory sickness insurance is at present feasible in the existing conditions in India. In the first place, the most authoritative opinion amongst those consulted is to the effect that the labourers themselves would be unwilling to share the cost which the scheme would entail, and the Government concur in this view. In a large proportion of the tea and coffee plantations and in

all well-organized industrial concerns, medical attendance is now given free, and in such cases in particular labourers would object to pay a contribution for what they now get for nothing. Secondly, in a large number of industries the labour population is floating, and the Government anticipate great difficulty in applying a compulsory scheme of sickness insurance to such men. This is particularly the case in the tea and coffee plantations in this Presidency, where labourers leave the estates for several months in the year and return to their villages in order to cultivate their own lands or often merely to revisit their own homes.

As regards medical facilities to work the scheme, it might be possible to provide them, but the real difficulty would be that the labourers who are mostly illiterate would very often look askance at the allopathic system of medicine, and would prefer to be treated by those who have a knowledge of the indigenous systems. This factor will greatly increase the difficulty of introducing any compulsory scheme, for the number of persons qualified in the indigenous systems who could reasonably be trusted would be quite inadequate to meet the demand, and the Government are opposed to the idea of allowing workmen coming under the scheme to be treated by people who in the large majority of cases may be little more than quacks.

Further, it is almost impossible on the data available to calculate what the cost of the scheme would be, particularly in reference to that portion of it which the State would have to bear. This Government have no funds at present to finance any such scheme, and the resources of the province are required to provide more important services such as elementary education and increased medical facilities and sanitary measures which would benefit the whole population, and not privileged sections of it. This is essentially an agricultural province, and the Government see no reason why they should go further to confer more privileges on the small section of industrial labour which already enjoys far greater amenities in respect of education, medical attendance, water supply and other sanitary requirements than the general taxpayer in the rural tracts, whose equipment in those respects lags behind that of those in towns. Illiteracy, which generally elementary education alone can break down, would be a fatal obstacle to the working out of any general scheme of sickness insurance, and even if a scheme restricted to industrial labour alone were attempted, the Government see no reason why they should bear the financial burden in respect of the large volume of industrial labour employed in undertakings in this Presidency directly or indirectly under the control of the Government of India, such as railways under company management. This Government also see no reason to suppose that the local legislative council would assent to the additional taxation required to meet the expenditure from provincial funds, nor would it agree to funds which are required for other general purposes being diverted to such a scheme, which attempts to impose on India measures which ignore Indian conditions, and are based on Western practice and conditions.

3. In the above circumstances, this Government are opposed to the introduction of any scheme of sickness insurance in this province.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. Immgn. 320-1674-G.J., dated the 23rd March, 1929.*

In the opinion of the Governor in Council no compulsory sickness insurance scheme would be practicable in Assam at present. The tea and mining industries already provide free for their employees all the benefits that could be obtained by any such scheme, and the introduction of any compulsory insurance to which the employees must contribute would be greatly resented by the labour force. The labour employed in these industries is illiterate and excitable. The labourers would not understand the merits of such insurance. They would certainly regard the contribution levied from them as an impost by their employers, and their resentment might lead to serious trouble and violence.

Outside the tea and mining industries labour in Assam is casual and migratory, and it would be impossible to bring such labour within any scheme of sickness insurance.

2. The question might be examined by the Royal Commission which is to be appointed to investigate labour conditions in India, but the Governor in Council sees no chance of success in Assam for any compulsory sickness insurance scheme on a contributory basis, until the spread of education and the general uplift of the labour population have changed the conditions now prevailing.

3. If conditions in other provinces are so far different as to justify such a scheme, and it is decided to introduce central legislation, the Governor in Council must urge that such legislation should not at present be applied to Assam.

*Letter from the Government of the United Provinces, No. 110-C., dated the 28th March, 1929.*

This Government appointed a small committee to examine the problem of sickness insurance.

The terms of reference of the committee and a copy of its proceedings are attached. It will be observed that the committee's views recorded in the proceedings represent those of employers of labour and Government officials only.

2. In 1927 the number of operatives in factories in the United Provinces under the Indian Factories Act was 88,319. Of these 19,331 were employed in Government and local fund factories. The number of perennial factories was 206, and of seasonal factories 126. The number of employees in the latter was about 12,000. There is little or no immigration of labour from outside the province to the provincial factories, so that provincial arrangements might be self-contained in regard to medical treatment as far as workers insured in this province are concerned. There is, however, considerable emigration of labour to other provinces, and the questions of transfer of insurances from province to province, and of provision here of benefits for men insured in other provinces would cause difficulty.

3. The Government agree with the committee that any legislation on the subject should be All-India rather than provincial. They also agree that at first, at any rate, a scheme could only be applied to factories under the Indian Factories Act; and that its application to domestic servants and other employees would be impracticable. They further agree that if it is decided to apply such a scheme to factories of a certain class only, as an experiment, the application should be an All-India one rather than local, in order that the factories in one locality may not be penalized in competition with those in others. The Government consider that if such a scheme is to be introduced at all, experiments should first be made; and they think that the Government and local fund factories, and particularly the railway workshops, offer a suitable field. They are further of opinion that it will be difficult to finance any part of such a scheme from provincial finances, and more especially so as the committee consider that Government will have to make a direct contribution as well as bear a share of administration expenses.

4. As regards the provision of medical facilities, they consider that it will be possible to arrange medical facilities for factory workers in this province in the places of their employment in view of the small numbers affected; but quite impossible to do so if they leave those places and return to their homes. If the payment of benefit is made contingent on acceptance of medical treatment, it is possible that there will be less tendency to such migration. The question of certification will present great difficulties. The provincial scheme for subsidizing medical practitioners to settle in the rural areas has so far proved a failure, and those areas are still very scantily provided with medical aid. The popularity of the various indigenous systems of medicine will add another complication. It will hardly be possible not to provide treatment by such systems for those who prefer it.

5. The Government can give no estimate of the expenses of administration. The figure in England is stated by the committee to be 1-9th of the total subscriptions. In the opinion of the committee, with which the Government agree, the funds must at the start be administered by a Government organization, even though separate accounts and separate funds may be maintained for the workers in separate industries or in smaller units. The committee could not come to clear finding on the point whether the separate funds should be on a basis of industries, or of locality, or both, but apparently they prefer a basis of industries. The Government think that a scheme should allow some flexibility in this matter.

6. The opinion of the committee that in the case of workers, drawing under Rs. 40 p. m., the burden would be shifted to the employers by a demand for increased wages is important. A 3 per cent. contribution from the workers, as in Japan, would mean six pies in the rupee, and might well produce a demand for an increase in the case of workers on daily or piece rates of Re. 1 per day or less. The committee in general consider that the introduction of sickness insurance is likely to be burdensome to the provincial industries in present circumstances and to hamper their expansion. The Government do not consider that there is yet any strong demand for such a scheme among the workers or the public of the province; and they think that its introduction is surrounded with such difficulties as to make it doubtful if it is worth while making an attempt at present to do so. Any such attempt should be on a small scale.

7. The Director of Industries put before the committee an outline alternative proposal of his own for a compulsory provident fund system as opposed to compulsory insurance. The idea has certain attractions in view of the industrial conditions of the country. It lends itself easily to extension for provision for old age, maternity,

unemployment and so forth ; and its administration would be easier ; since the risk of fraud is less. A person who draws from his provident fund under false pretences is at any rate only damaging himself, and not defrauding others. The disadvantages are that such a scheme cannot provide the same protection for an equivalent contribution, and would not entail compulsory medical treatment, and thus encourage the extension of facilities for medical relief. The Government do not therefore endorse the committee's approval of this scheme.

*Copy of Terms of Reference.*

To consider the practicability of introducing some provision for sickness insurance for industrial workers and to make recommendations. In particular, and without detracting from the generality of the above, the committee should examine the following questions :—

(i) should such insurance first be made applicable to all industries or to certain selected industries only, and if so to which ;

(ii) should it first be made applicable all over the province or only in certain local areas (whether to all industries or only to some) and if so in which ;

(iii) should separate insurance funds be formed for the workers in certain industries or groups of industries ; or for those in certain local areas ;

(iv) the extent to which medical facilities (a) can be provided and (b) will be acceptable to the insured ;

(v) the extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate ;

(vi) the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme ;

(vii) the extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them ;

(viii) how far the existing industrial structure of the province can afford to bear the burden involved without being seriously handicapped ;

(ix) the extent to which State assistance can be granted ;

(x) how far certain practical difficulties, e.g., in connection with the obtaining of medical certificates, the extent of the reliability of such certificates, compulsion to undergo medical treatment, the administration of the insurance funds, etc., can be met.

*Proceedings of the Committee appointed by the United Provinces Government to consider the practicability of introducing Sickness Insurance for industrial workers.*

*Date of Meeting, 4th February, 1929.*

*Present :*

- (1) Mr. S. P. Shah, I.C.S., M.L.C., Director of Industries, United Provinces—  
*Chairman.*
- (2) Mr. E. M. Souter, M.L.C., *Member.*
- (3) Mr. W. R. Watt, M.A., B.Sc., *Member.*
- (4) Lala Padampat, *Member.*
- (5) Sardar Kirpal Singh Majithia, Sarava Sugar Factory, Gorakhpur, *Member.*
- (6) Lieutenant-Colonel H. Ross, I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Cawnpore, *Member.*
- (7) Mr. W. G. Mackay, M.B.E., Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers, *Secretary.*

1. Mr. W. Vernon, of the Elgin Mills, could not attend, as he had to go away from Cawnpore. Mr. Ganesh Shanker Vidyarthi, President of the *Masdoor Sabha*, too, could not attend, but sent a written note. This note was read out to the committee at the very outset. The committee thought it was a case based on the same arguments as Messrs. Joshi and Chaman Lal had used in the debates in the Assembly, and contained very little original matter needing special attention.

2. Before the committee proceeded further, Mr. Souter raised the question whether in view of the announcement by His Excellency the Viceroy of the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the problems relating to industrial labour, it would be desirable for this committee to proceed. The chairman explained that he had already ascertained that the United Provinces Government did intend the committee to examine the problem as defined in the terms of reference to it. The committee thereafter proceeded with its work.

The question whether in the present industrial structure of the province sickness insurance was needed at all was raised. The chairman explained that a consideration of this question would be outside the scope of the reference to the committee.

3. The chairman explained in brief outline the history of the case and the scope of the terms of reference. The ten particular terms were, he said, intended to be a fairly exhaustive detailed analysis of the first sentence, which was the basic term of reference. The members present were asked if any of them had any other particular points to suggest. No member had any. The chairman, however, said he had two such points for the committee's consideration, viz. (i) whether any other more practicable scheme for insuring against sickness can be suggested. He added that he had such a scheme in view, which he would bring up for the committee's consideration later on; (ii) whether such scheme as might be introduced should apply to all classes of industrial labour or to only certain selected ones. The committee proceeded to consider this second point.

4. The committee unanimously accepted the proposition, that it will be difficult to supervise the actual working of any scheme except in the case of labour employed in factories under the Indian Factories Act. Messrs. Watt and Souter further held that it would be unfair to introduce a scheme not applicable to non-factory labour. Colonel Ross proposed that the scheme should, in the first instance, embrace only skilled and semi-skilled but not unskilled labour. The reason for the restriction proposed by him was that unskilled labour would be more migratory (not only from factory to factory but from one industrial centre to another), and being normally in receipt of lower wages would not be able to bear the burden so well as skilled and semi-skilled workers. Mr. Souter said that in practice it would be difficult to define in precise terms the distinction between skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour. Mr. Watt said that being poorer the unskilled labourer was in even greater need for a provision against sickness than his skilled and semi-skilled confrere.

After some discussion, the committee could not arrive at a unanimous resolution. Sirdar Kirpal Singh was for restricting the scheme to only skilled labour, Colonel Ross and the chairman to skilled and semi-skilled labour, and the other three members were for applying it to all three classes simultaneously. Even Sirdar Kirpal Singh, Colonel Ross and the chairman made it clear that their proposal to restrict the operation of the scheme was conditional on satisfactory and generally acceptable definitions of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour being practicable.

The committee were unanimously of opinion that no industrial employee (i) whose engagement is on a genuinely temporary basis, or (ii) whose aggregate annual income as a wage-earner in a factory or factories exceeds a thousand rupees a year (or if his wages are regulated on a monthly, weekly, daily or other periodical basis, then such amount as represents a proportionate fraction thereof) should be brought under the operation of such scheme. The difficulty of defining the word "temporary" in (i) came up for some discussion. But the committee decided that it would not be possible for it to go into such details, and it preferred to leave the definition of this term to Government in the light of such material as the proposed industrial labour commission will, in all probability, make available. In connection with point (ii) the committee suggested that in case full annual income is not actually earned, the calculation for the purpose of ascertaining whether the scheme is applicable to that case or not, should be based on an estimate of what the aggregate annual income would, at the rates applicable and in force, be.

5. The committee then considered the terms of reference *seriatim*, but it desired, that its views on the question and especially on terms of reference Nos. 1 and 2 should be taken as an organic whole.

(i) In the committee's opinion it would not be quite fair to pick out certain industries and accord them differential treatment from the rest; this would amount to undesirable discrimination. On the other hand, some members emphasized that a universal application of the scheme to all industries was utterly impracticable, and indeed in some cases unnecessary and even undesirable. In this connection the distinction between seasonal and non-seasonal industries was discussed, and in spite of the difficulty of drawing it in every case, it was decided to adopt it on the ground that, generally speaking, it is well understood, and is already officially recognized. Ultimately the following resolution was adopted:—"In principle any such scheme should be applied to all industries and all areas, not only in the province but in the country. In the present stage of industrial evolution, however, it is impossible to apply it to seasonal industries." As to non-seasonal or perennial industries, Messrs. Souter and Watt were, for the reasons stated above, for bringing all of them under the operation of the scheme. All the other members of the committee, however, were in favour of restricting the scheme to selected non-seasonal industries. Consistently

with their view as just stated, Messrs. Souter and Watt would not specify the non-seasonal industries, which should, in the first instance, be put under the scheme. Colonel Ross thought that the workshops run by the State railways furnished "the most excellent places for experimenting with such a scheme;" he was not prepared to go further. The secretary explained that the railways already have got systems which provide *inter alia* some insurance against sickness. But Colonel Ross still thought that as regards any formal scheme of sickness insurance, the State should first experiment with the workshops. Sardar Kirpal Singh and Lala Padampat agreed with him. The chairman's view was that in the light of the secretary's remarks regarding the system already generally in force in the workshops, and also because the numbers of those benefited would in such case be a small fraction of the total industrial population of the country and even of the province, some other non-seasonal industry would also have to be brought under the scheme. He thought, that from the points of view of the organization of the industry, the stability of labour supply and the genuinely "industrial" character of the labour employed, the textile industry furnished another suitable field for experimenting. But he added that the application of the scheme to any private as distinguished from State industry should, in any case, be subject to similar industries in the other provinces being treated in an essentially similar manner; otherwise he thought there would be unfairness in the internal competition among the units of the industry or associated industries in the different provinces. To this the committee unanimously agreed.

(ii) The committee unanimously accepted the proposition that in the application of the scheme no discrimination between various local areas should be made, whether such application be merely experimental or substantive. In fact, as explained towards the close of the discussion on point (i) the committee agreeing with the chairman went a little further.

(iii) The committee felt that a decision on this question would to a large extent depend upon the character of the scheme adopted and the extent of its applicability. The chairman explained the various systems prevalent in European countries, and classified them into three groups. Colonel Ross explained in brief outline the scheme in operation in one of the Cawnpore mills. These formed the basis of the discussion that ensued. The propositions (i) that if and when reliable private enterprise (in the form of insurance companies or of associations of employers in general or in specific industries) is or becomes available, it should be utilized, but (ii) that for the present and subject to the above proviso the State should undertake the administration of all such insurance funds through a central organization located at Cawnpore, but with local representatives at important centres, were both unanimously agreed to. The committee thought that in the present circumstances of the country, especially of this province, this was the only sound way of securing stability, solvency and efficiency. The committee had, however, no objection to accounts and actuarial tables and other similar material and information being maintained industry-wise; in fact this was, in its view, the only way of securing a fair distribution of the burden of the scheme in force among the various component units, e.g., textiles, engineering, tanning, leather-working, etc.

(iv) and (v) Before the committee proceeded to discuss these points, the chairman remarked that terms Nos. (iv) and (v) would have to be taken together. He explained that the United Provinces Government had accepted, and to some extent even applied certain schemes for the extension of medical relief in the rural areas. Colonel Ross said he did not have the latest information or figures about these schemes. These schemes were kept in view throughout the discussion from the standpoint of their bearing on the practicability of sickness insurance. Colonel Ross had already made it clear that the question of surgical treatment would have to be dealt with separately from that of medical treatment as the problems and solutions were not identical. The committee felt that it could not advise in any precise terms on the extent to which medical facilities can be provided, unless it had much more material, especially that relating to provincial finances and Government's intentions in the matter of rural medical relief. Ultimately the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:—

(a) "Barring the towns, the existing medical facilities (even making an allowance for such schemes of expansion as Government have accepted) are in the committee's opinion utterly inadequate to deal with any scheme of sickness insurance. This is particularly so in the rural areas. It will not be possible to introduce and work any such scheme, unless and until such facilities are very greatly augmented."

(b) "In view of the facts, that the western scientific (or 'allopathic') system of medicine is not universally acceptable in this country, and that many other systems, e.g., homeopathy, bio-chemistry, unani, ayurvedic, etc., co-exist, and that some workers will prefer one or the other of these and will have a legitimate right to that which he prefers, such extension of medical facilities, as the province consistently



with its financial capacity is likely to be able to undertake in the near future, will still be utterly inadequate for the purpose of applying any scheme of sickness insurance on western lines. In the committee's opinion, however, it is possible, though not without difficulty, to work such a scheme in the more important towns."

(c) "It is impossible to state in precise terms the extent to which the insured persons suffering from sickness are liable to remain under continuous medical treatment. But the committee endorses Colonel Ross' view, that if any scheme is introduced, enabling workers to draw sickness insurance benefit for such time as they remain under medical treatment, it should considerably alter the normal workers present attitude towards (a) going to or remaining in hospital or other medical relief centre, and (b) going away to his own or to his friend's or relation's home."

"Beyond this it is impossible to know the extent to which such facilities as can be provided will be acceptable to the insured."

(vi) There was not sufficient material available for an adequate discussion of this question. The committee thought that it would be necessary to obtain relevant statistical information from other countries, especially Japan, where such schemes are in operation. In its opinion, any estimate or alternative estimates would involve considerable labour and would still be of very hypothetical value. It noted the secretary's statements that in Britain the cost of administration amounts to one-ninth of the total subscriptions, but that he was not sure whether this includes the expense of settling disputes.

(vii) The committee considered that all employees would be able to bear their share of the burden of sickness insurance. But it thought it likely that while industrial employees drawing approximately Rs. 40 per mensem and over will be willing to bear it, the great majority of employees drawing less than about Rs. 40 per mensem will not be so. In case a system of compulsory contribution is, as it should be, introduced, the committee thought that there will probably be a demand for increased wages. The incidence of the burden will, in the committee's opinion, be shifted to the employers. It was, however, emphatically of opinion that if any such scheme is introduced, compulsory contributions levied both from employers and employees should be its essential feature, the employers' contribution being equal to but in no case exceeding the employees'.

(viii) The committee reviewed the salient features of the industrial situation in 1929 and contrasted them with those during the period 1919 to 1922. The effect of the one-sixth ratio of exchange came in for a lively attack. The severe competition of foreign industries, especially continental ones with their depreciated currencies was reviewed. Ultimately the following resolution was unanimously adopted :—

"In the existing condition of the country's industrial system any burden, which the inauguration of any such scheme must necessarily entail, will be found intolerably heavy, and will aggravate the handicap already imposed by the one-sixth ratio. The committee does not consider this an appropriate time even for experimenting with such schemes."

(ix) The principle underlying State assistance towards the introduction of sickness insurance schemes was next discussed. The non-official members were unanimous in their view that the State must contribute. The chairman thought that the State in India had already so many schemes on hand that it could not in its present financial condition be legitimately expected to make a contribution other than the cost of administering the scheme as contemplated by the committee in sub-paragraph (iii), towards a scheme which would benefit the employer and the employee but not in any specific manner the general taxpayer. The committee did not accept his contention, and adopted the following resolution :—

"Some State assistance, not only administrative but also financial, is essential. Having considered the system in force in Japan the committee consider that this is just about the system which would suit the circumstances of this country."

(x) The committee considered it impossible to work any such scheme, unless a system for medical relief and other matters corresponding to the one which prevails in Britain (viz., "panel doctors"), is simultaneously introduced. Having regard to the existing circumstances, especially the failure of the scheme of subsidised medical practitioners settling in the rural areas to achieve even a modest measure of success, the committee thought it would be impossible to introduce any scheme for sickness insurance as such ; it could not see how more medical practitioners could or would settle for practice in the rural areas.

Holding this view the committee could not think of any practical scheme for rendering medical certificates, especially in respect of workers leaving the towns, more reliable. Yet the committee thought the reliability of such certificates would be the pivot of any specific sickness insurance scheme.

As regards compulsion to undergo medical treatment, the committee held that no scheme lacking this feature would be practicable, and yet in view of the co-existence of numerous medical systems, they could not devise or even think of any practicable and reasonably economical scheme whereby such compulsion can be enforced.

As to the administration of insurance funds, the committee had already in (iii) above held that at present and subject to a proviso therein stated, such funds should be administered by the State through a central organization located at Cawnpore. Even in case it was decided to make over their administration to private agency (other than regular insurance companies or associations), whether such agency be under the control of, and responsible to, employers or employees or both, the administering agency should be made subject to the effective supervisory control of the State.

6. The chairman then proceeded to explain his scheme for a practical solution of the problem of provision against sickness (see paragraph 3). The committee endorsed his views, that sickness insurance was only the thin end of the wedge and that the claim of accident, unemployment and old age insurance would, in all probability, be put forward by Geneva for India's acceptance. He thought that on actuarial principles every specific scheme for insurance must entail a certain proportion of dead loss to society, and he held it to be far more practicable and economical for India, in her present condition, to adopt a general scheme which would meet all reasonable needs arising from sickness, accidents not covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act, unemployment and old age. He thought a scheme for a general provident fund (based on compulsory deductions of certain proportions, whether uniform or progressive or declining) would not only provide general insurance but would eliminate the problem of the difficulty of obtaining medical certificates, the risk of corruption and chicanery, the need to apply compulsion, etc. It would also have the important elements of self-help and self-interest. He added that the railways and government and public bodies and some private firms have such system in operation already. It would also provide for expenditure on "social events," e.g., marriages, funeral and post-funeral ceremonies, religious rites, festivities, etc.

The committee unanimously agreed that this would be an easy, economical and practical solution, not only in respect of sickness but also accident, unemployment, old age and "social events." The committee did not think they were called upon to go into further details, and preferred to leave them to be worked out by Government with or without the assistance of any other general or expert committee.

7. Before declaring the meeting over the chairman thanked, on behalf of Government and himself, all the gentlemen, especially the non-official ones, for the valuable assistance and advice which, at personal inconvenience and sacrifice, they had given to the department.

*Copy of Note by Babu Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi, M.L.C., President, Mazdoor Sabha, Cawnpore, dated the 3rd July, 1929.*

The introduction of the sickness insurance benefit for the industrial workers in these provinces, if undertaken will not be a little bit too soon. Under the present circumstances, it will really be unmanageable to put the scheme in work as regards the workers who are in domestic and agricultural services. Some optional scheme can, however, be sketched out for these classes of persons, but as we have to take into consideration only the scheme of the sickness insurance for the industrial workers, I shall confine my remarks to that item only. The Honourable Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, while moving in the Assembly on 27th March, 1928, not to ratify the Draft Conventions and accept the recommendations of the International Labour Conference regarding the sickness insurance scheme for the workers of all sorts, raised certain objections against the scheme. He held that owing to the migratory nature of the labour in India, the absence of qualified doctors in the interior, and compulsory contribution to the insurance fund by the workers, the scheme for the sickness insurance for the workers could not work in this country. He was also very much afraid of the great expenses which would have to be incurred by the State if a sickness insurance scheme was put into practice. I think that the fears of Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra are too imaginary. He has not gone deeper in the matter, and had he taken the trouble to base his arguments on the data which were at his disposal in the form of the Health Insurance Act of Japan, he would have reached the conclusion that the things would be managed safely in the same way as they were being managed in that eastern country. The first objection that the labour in India is migratory, and a worker when ill is in the habit of leaving his place of work and going to his village, holds good as long as the conditions remain as they

are at present. The worker comes from the village. He works at the industrial centre. As soon as he falls ill, his income stops and expenses increase. He has no resources at the centre to fall back upon. He has to leave the centre and fly back to his village, where, of course, he has no good medical aid, but at least he finds his people and a sympathetic atmosphere. If there be a sickness insurance scheme working at the centres, the worker will have its benefit in full, partial wages for some weeks and good medical aid. Under these circumstances he will rather like to remain at the centre, when sick instead of going to his village where he will have no such benefits. The industry will also gain immensely thereby. They will have no longer to complain of the unstable character of the labour. Every worker will like to resume his duties as soon as he is cured. There is a dissatisfaction among the workers at present that when after illness they come back to their work they have to bribe the higher staff to be readmitted. But under the insurance scheme the worker will have the satisfaction that there is nothing to hold him back from his job, and this satisfaction will also contribute to the gain to the industry.

The main centres of industry at present in the provinces are:—Cawnpore, Lucknow, Gorakhpur, Jhansi, Allahabad, Agra, Aligarh, Firozabad and Hathras. There can be no difficulty of having proper medical aid for the workers at these places. The insurance societies can have the assistance from properly qualified vaidyas and hakims as well. Sir Bhupendra Nath's objection as regards the absence of a sufficient number of qualified medical men does not hold good as regards the industrial centres of our provinces, and I am sure that we shall have no difficulty on that account here.

There is a reasonable misgiving that the workers themselves will not like the insurance scheme when they will feel the pinch of compulsion of paying their contributions. Most of the workers are illiterate and ignorant, and it is possible that they may raise objections if the scheme is suddenly harnessed upon them. But if an earnest effort is made to get the workers to understand what the scheme will mean for them they will be very glad to come forward and offer their contributions. I had a talk with a number of ignorant and illiterate workers of Cawnpore, and after giving them to understand what the sickness insurance scheme would mean to them, I found each and every one of them ready to get a part of their wages cut for this purpose. Much depends upon the part of the wages to be cut, as well as the time after which the worker will be benefited by the insurance. In Japan they do not cut more than 3 per cent. of the wages of the workers. This works out to be half an anna per rupee. I found these men with whom I had the talk ready to get their wages cut at this rate for the benefits to be accrued from the sickness insurance.

Will it be a burden on the finances of the State if the scheme is put into action? I think not. At least not to any appreciable degree in these provinces. Here we have about 70,000 persons working permanently at the industrial centres of the provinces. The State in Japan contributes 10 per cent. to the funds of the workers' insurance. If we put Rs. 25 as average monthly wage of a worker—I think this amount is by no means a low estimate—we find that the monthly wages for the industrial workers amount to about  $70,000 \times 25 \text{ Rs.} = 17,50,000$ . Three per cent. of this amount  $\frac{70,50,000 \times 3}{100} = \text{Rs. } 52,500$ . A similar amount according to the

system in Japan will have to be contributed by the employers. The sum will then come to  $52,500 \times 2 = \text{Rs. } 1,05,000$ . The Government will have to contribute to this 10 per cent. of it which is  $\text{Rs. } 10,500 \times 12 = \text{Rs. } 1,26,000$ . It is a paltry sum for such a cause and I think that the local Government should have no objection to make this contribution for the welfare of the industrial workers. I do not know what made Sir Bhupendra Nath raise a false alarm of great expenses if Mr. Joshi's amendment to the main resolution was to be carried. Sir Bhupendra thought that the Government would thereby have a fresh burden of six crores annually. I think that his estimate was totally wrong and alarming. The Government of India while working on the line of the Government of Japan, would have to spend only Rs. 90 lakhs annually if they would have accepted the amendment of Mr. Joshi.

In the end I think that the sickness insurance will do much good to the workers, give stability to the migratory labour and benefit the employers too. The local Government will act wisely if they adopt a scheme of sickness insurance for the industrial workers of the provinces at once.

The replies to the questions sent to me with the agenda are as follows:—

- (1) Insurance should be made applicable to all the factory workers in the whole of the provinces. No particular industry need be selected.
- (2) It should be made applicable to the whole of the province.
- (3) Separate insurance funds be formed on the basis of locality. If the place is small, two such places be amalgamated for the formation of insurance funds.

(4) (a) I think that in all the industrial centres of the provinces we have a sufficient number of qualified medical men and if there is a dearth anywhere I am of opinion that proper qualified vaidyas and hakims should be asked to co-operate; (b) the medical assistance by the proper medical men will be acceptable to the insured worker. I cannot think of any hitch, and if there be any hitch, it will not be difficult to bring the worker round.

(5) The worker will not move out of the area to his village if he gets the benefits of the insurance. It is definitely advantageous to him to remain at his place of work at the time of sickness. If he moves he is bound to lose the advantage.

(6) I have no knowledge of the expenses of an insurance business and its administration. In Japan the insured person and his employer each bears one-half of the amount of insurance and sometimes the proportion of the insurance contribution to be borne by the employer is increased by the State in an undertaking of the kind in which danger occurs frequently to the insured employee. The State makes a contribution of 10 per cent. on the whole. It seems that the insurance machinery and its administration keep themselves well within the limits of this income and meet all their expenses and liabilities. However, I think that it is necessary to call for an experts advice on this item.

(7) All the classes of workers will be willing and able to meet the charges when they will be allowed to properly understand what insurance will be to them.

(8) I cannot say how far the existing industrial structures of the provinces can afford to bear the burden, but they should try to bear it as it is bound to prove beneficial to them as well.

(9) At least 10 per cent. of that which comes out from the employers and employees.

(10) They are minor details and can be worked out very easily when the Government earnestly desire to come forward with an insurance scheme for the industrial workers. Administration of insurance fund will need a very watchful supervision, and the State, with the co-operation of the employers and the representatives of labour, will always have to keep an eye on its proper working.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 2985-Industries, dated the 2nd April, 1929.*

In Delhi, for the purposes of the present reference, labour may be divided into two classes (i) factory labour and (ii) contractors' labour, i.e., labour employed by contractors in New Delhi.

2. As regards factory labour, about 33 per cent. of the workers in factories are said to live in Delhi with their families. Most of the remaining two-thirds come from outside the province, principally from the United Provinces. The biggest employer of factory labour in Delhi tells me that probably nearly 50 per cent. of the workmen in his employ at any given time have been with him for less than 12 months. These figures give some indication of the proportion of casual labour in Delhi factories.

3. Some of the Delhi employers are alive to the importance of making medical facilities available to their workmen. The management of the Delhi Cloth and General Mills has made arrangements with three neighbouring medical institutions for the treatment of their employees. In serious cases which necessitate medical attendance on patients in their quarters, the fees are paid by the employers in the case of the workmen who live in the quarters provided by the millowners. These number about 1,800 out of a total of about 5,500.

4. Wages stop as soon as a man goes off work, and the only sickness benefit the workmen get is that they are generally permitted to remain on in their quarters (provided they are living in the mill quarters) during temporary illness.

5. It seems to me impossible at present to provide either for adequate medical attendance or for sickness benefits in the case of workmen who live in the villages. No system of sickness insurance can be worked without adequate safeguards against malingering, and the first safeguard must be an adequate supply of doctors to tour the villages where the workmen live. I cannot think that a sufficient number of competent practitioners would be available at present.

Further, no system of sickness insurance would be worth maintaining for the 50 per cent. or so of casual labour.

6. It would seem, therefore, that the problem narrows itself down to a regional one, that is, whether any system of sickness insurance could be devised for the factory employees who live in Delhi or other areas where proper medical supervision is available. Even within these limits there will be a considerable number of casual workmen who will complicate the problem.

7. I am informed that the workmen are in favour of a compulsory system and the employers of a voluntary. It is hardly possible to imagine a system which would be voluntary as regards the employers, and I am disposed to agree with the workmen that if a system of health insurance is to be introduced, it should be compulsory, both for them and for the employers, within the regional limits suggested above. Within these limits I am in favour of the scheme being tried.

8. As regards contractors' labour, this is almost entirely migratory and casual, and is drawn from a very wide area in Northern India. I do not think that any system of health insurance could at present be applied to this class of labour, or would be appreciated by them.

9. The position will no doubt be thoroughly examined by the Labour Commission, and it is therefore hardly necessary for me to say more. I shall, therefore, deal very briefly with the questions set forth in paragraph 5 of Mr. Clow's letter of 20th September, 1928, to all local governments :—

(1) There will be no difficulty provided the regional scheme suggested above is adopted.

(2) It will probably be found necessary to put hakims and vaidas on to the panels, as many of the workmen are accustomed to employ them in preference to practitioners of western medicine.

(3) All those whose homes are in Delhi are likely to remain in Delhi when suffering from sickness.

(4) It is impossible to say what proportion the cost of administration is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme. In Great Britain, I understand, it is about 12½ per cent.

(5) Neither the workmen nor the employers would be willing to meet any heavy expenditure. There is a feeling against paying for medical relief in India, and it would be to the sick-pay that the employees would look for a return for their contributions. In England the average cost per head insured appears to be about 50 shillings, but I have not been able to ascertain how this is divided between the State, the employer and the employed. If the average cost in India were 25 shillings, and the cost were equally divided, the workers would, I think, be able and willing to pay their share.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 311.V.28, dated 28th March, 1929.*

The question has been subjected to a preliminary examination by a conference assembled for the purpose by the Financial Commissioner (Transferred Subjects). At this conference employers of labour were well represented, but owing to the almost entire absence of properly organized trade unions in Rangoon, only one representative of labour was present. The conference was also attended by the Inspector-General, Civil Hospitals, the Chief Inspector of Factories, the Labour Statistics Officer, and Professor Jevons, Professor of Economics in the Rangoon University. At this conference the various points raised in paragraph 5 of your letter were carefully discussed, but it is unnecessary to give in detail the conclusions arrived at on each point, for the general conclusion arrived at by a majority of the conference was that in present circumstances the immediate introduction even of a limited scheme of sickness insurance was not practicable, and the Financial Commissioner considers that action must be postponed until further progress has been made with the organization of workpeople in Burma. He points out that at present there is only one registered union. This union (the Motor Drivers Union) moreover is hardly concerned with sickness insurance. At any rate, it would be very difficult to apply any scheme of sickness insurance to motor drivers in Rangoon. And the final conclusion of Mr. Dunn, the financial commissioner, is that nothing should be done until the report of the Royal Commission on Labour has been received. He believes that this Commission's enquiries will ventilate a subject about which little is known—particularly among those for whose benefit it was raised—and will give us a clearer understanding than is at present possible both of the difficulties in the way of introducing even a limited scheme of sickness insurance and of the best way of surmounting those difficulties.

2. The opinion of the conference, however, was not unanimous. The representative of labour thought that a scheme should at once be introduced, but considered that the cost of the scheme should be borne by Government and the employers, and that wage-earners should not be required to contribute. Professor Jevons considers that a workable scheme of sickness insurance for skilled workers could be devised, and he has drawn up an outline of the sort of scheme he recommends, a copy of which is enclosed for the information of the Government of India.

As will be seen from the scheme itself, it is suggested that in the first instance this scheme should be applied only to skilled regular employees in a limited number of industries in specified towns, but that as experience is gained, it should be extended to other occupations and to unskilled workers.

3. The Government of Burma are disposed to take the same view as Mr. Dunn, though not altogether for the same reasons. They do not doubt the desirability of introducing some provision for sickness insurance for workmen, but they are impressed by the practical difficulties in the way and they believe that those difficulties are even greater in Burma than they are in India. Clearly if a scheme is to be introduced it can be made applicable in the first instance at any rate, only to certain well-defined areas, only to specified industries within those areas, and only to some of the workmen in those industries. These limitations themselves indicate the difficulty of the subject. The conference thought that any scheme which might be thought practicable should be introduced only in the ports of Rangoon, Akyab, Bassein and Moulmein, and Professor Jevons would omit Akyab. The Government of Burma would go further still. It seems to them obvious that any scheme which is introduced must be introduced by way of experiment, and that the experiment should be tried in the place where it has the best chance of success, where medical men are comparatively numerous, and where existing hospital accommodation is reasonably adequate. In other words they consider that in the first stage any experiment which may be tried under the auspices of the Government of Burma should be tried in Rangoon. But even in Rangoon the difficulties are very great. The principal one arises from the fact that labour in Rangoon is entirely Indian labour. Much of it indeed is purely migratory and seasonal, and even when the labourers are more or less settled in Rangoon they are constantly going back to India whether for a holiday or by reason of sickness or for other reasons. Any system which might be introduced would inevitably be a merely partial system and would leave large bodies of labour entirely untouched. And even in respect of those labourers to which it would be applied, the system probably would not work very satisfactorily. For periodically they would go off to India, and presumably they would thereby lose the benefit of payments made by them to the fund. The second difficulty arises from the fact already noted, namely, that the organization of labour into trades unions has hardly begun. This fact is no doubt due mainly to the different parts of India from which the Rangoon labour supply is drawn. Many come from Chittagong, many are Uriyas from Ganjam, and many are Telegus from Coconada. The different languages spoken by these three classes—which incidentally would complicate any system of medical attendance under a sickness insurance scheme—are a difficulty in the way of combination, but the fact that in spite of this handicap, there has been little attempt at combination indicates that the level of intelligence is not high, and lends point to the apprehension expressed by the conference that any contributory system of sickness insurance would be resented by the wage-earners. Whatever the cause may be, however, the fact remains that hardly any properly organized trade unions exist. Nor is there anything in Rangoon corresponding to the friendly societies of England, and the whole burden of organizing, supervising and working a system of sickness insurance would probably fall on the Government. Finally, there is the practical difficulty that in all probability no scheme can be introduced with any hope of success unless the Government, as Professor Jevons proposes, contributes to the cost. Professor Jevons, indeed, suggests that Government's share of the cost of the scheme outlined by him should be borne by the Government of India. But the Government of Burma do not suppose that the Government of India will accept this liability. Probably, indeed, there are constitutional difficulties in the way of their doing so, and the plain fact is that the Government of Burma are not in a position themselves to undertake the liability. It must be remembered that the liability is an indeterminate one. In the first place no information is available as to what the direct cost to Government would be of a scheme such as that outlined by Professor Jevons even if that scheme were confined in the first instance to Rangoon. Nor is it certain whether the inception of such a scheme would not necessitate the provision in Rangoon of additional hospital accommodation. Finally, the scheme is put forward merely as an experiment. If that experiment is successful, the idea is that it should be extended to other industries, to other places and to other classes of workers. And as it is extended obviously greater expense direct and indirect will fall upon the Government. And, as has already been stated, the Government of Burma are unable to face this expenditure.

4. These last remarks indicate what is a real difficulty—probably not only in Burma but also in other provinces—in the way of any scheme which proceeds on the basis that the local Government will bear part of the cost. At the conferences of the international labour organizations great pressure is put—quite naturally—on India to introduce measures for the amelioration of labour conditions which have been worked successfully in western countries. Those measures are usually

in themselves desirable, but apart from other differences between conditions in the west and conditions in the east, it is often forgotten, especially by those who speak for labour in the Central Legislature, that western countries are very much richer than India, and that they are able to finance measures which, however desirable they may be, are not practicable in India merely by reason of the fact that the local Governments cannot afford to pay for them. In the view of the Government of Burma it would serve little purpose to experiment with a modest limited scheme such as that proposed by Professor Jevons unless the Government were prepared to face the expenditure involved in extending that scheme in the event of the experiment being successful. And, apart from the difficulty of financing in present circumstances, even the limited scheme proposed by Professor Jevons, the Government of Burma are quite clear that an extended scheme would involve additional taxation, and they are equally clear that there is no hope of their Legislative Council agreeing to this additional taxation for the benefit of imported labour—particularly as that imported labour already commands much higher wages than it can hope to obtain in India. That, indeed, is the reason why there is such a continuous flow of labourers from India into Burma.

5. On the other hand, if Government does not contribute to the cost of sickness insurance, the prospect of the successful introduction of any scheme is diminished. Heavier contributions would be required from wage-earners, and already doubts are felt whether wage-earners would pay the contributions necessary under a scheme to the cost of which Government would contribute. Heavier contributions would also be required from employers of labour, and some industries are not in a position to bear this addition to the cost of production. The cotton mill industry of Bombay is one case in point. The rice milling industry of Rangoon is another.

6. Nor, again, are the Government of Burma satisfied that sickness insurance is the first subject that should be attacked in any comprehensive campaign for the amelioration of conditions of labour. Speaking for Rangoon indeed—and the same remark is probably true also of the cotton mill industry of Bombay and the jute mill industry of Bengal—they are inclined to think that the housing problem is more urgent. But it does not matter much whether this statement is correct or not. It will generally be admitted on the one hand that much remains to be done for the amelioration of conditions of labour, and on the other hand that the funds at the disposal of local Governments are strictly limited, and that there is also a limit to the burdens which can be placed on employers of labour in addition to those considerable burdens which have been placed on them by labour legislation in the course of recent years. These two last factors are the governing factors of the problem. It has now been decided that labour conditions in India should be subjected to a comprehensive survey by a Royal Commission specially appointed for the purpose. The Commission will no doubt have many recommendations for the improvement of those conditions, and it may be assumed that even if the Commission does not arrange its recommendations in order of urgency, it will stress some more than others. The subject of sickness insurance, as the Government of India themselves admit, is one of peculiar difficulty in India. As has already been pointed out, it is of little use to embark on limited schemes of partial application unless local Governments are prepared subsequently to extend those schemes in the light of the experience gained. In other words the introduction of a partial scheme must necessarily involve local Governments in a liability the extent of which it is impossible to foresee. It is a step, therefore, which should not be taken until the whole ground has been thoroughly explored. This exploration will be undertaken by the Royal Commission on Labour, and the Government of Burma consider that no further action should be taken on the subject of sickness insurance until the report of the Commission has been received. For it may well be that the Commission may report that there are other matters in connection with labour which should be taken up before the question of sickness insurance is attacked.

#### *A Scheme of Sickness Insurance for Skilled Workers drawn up by Professor Jevons.*

*General.*—This scheme is proposed as a workable system of assistance for skilled workers who may become ill for more than a few days. It is purposely limited in scope, the idea being to gain experience in administering a small scheme which could afterwards be extended to other occupations, and to unskilled workers. The figures of rates of wages, contributions and benefits are given merely for the sake of illustration, and would need adjustment on the basis of data to be collected.

*Persons to whom Applicable.*—Skilled regular employees paid at a wage-rate equivalent to Rs. 24 per mensem or more up to Rs. 80 per mensem in certain organized industries, e.g., rice mills, saw mills, engineering and contractors, workshops, printing, petroleum oil refining and packing, vegetable oil mills, flour mills, match factories

and aerated water factories in Rangoon, Moulmein and Bassein, and within five miles of municipal limits of these towns. After two or three years the scheme would be extended to all industrial establishments coming under the Factory Act.

*Contributions.*—The workers' contributions to be 4 annas per mensem for persons earning Rs. 24 per mensem and over up to Rs. 30 per mensem, 5 annas per mensem for those earning over Rs. 30 and up to Rs. 40 per mensem, and 6 annas per mensem for those earning over Rs. 40 per mensem. The contributions to be paid by affixing special insurance stamps to a card which lasts the year. Whilst a man is in employment the card will be with the employer, and the latter must deliver the card duly stamped to date to the employee on the latter giving notice of his intention to quit, or being dismissed.

The insurance fund will be made up of the workers' contributions and equal amounts paid in by the employers and by Government, i.e., each party pays one-third. Assuming for the sake of illustration that 16,000 persons would be insured in the above towns, and that the average rate of contribution be 5 annas, the income of the fund would be Rs. 15,000 per mensem from all sources.

*Benefits.*—An insured person will be entitled to free medical attendance and medicines, and to free treatment in hospital, including food for himself, or cost thereof, if supplied otherwise than by the hospital.

A person who does not go to hospital because he cannot be admitted must be attended at his home and receive a food allowance immediately. Should he be unwilling to go to hospital, or should the doctor consider the illness not serious enough to require it, he will be entitled only during the first seven days to an allowance in kind of milk or other invalid food which may be prescribed.

Should the illness continue, or the man be unfit for work after seven days, he will become entitled from the eighth day to a maintenance allowance at a rate equal to 64 times his monthly contribution. This will give Rs. 16 per mensem to the lowest class (up to Rs. 30 wages), and Rs. 24 to the highest class. The benefit at this rate to continue until the man is fit for work, or for six months, whichever is less.

For the protection of the fund at the commencement there should be a special rule that the total benefit which may be drawn during the first twelve months will not exceed 64 times the total of contributions paid by the insured before he fell ill, or six months, whichever is less. Thus, if he has paid contributions for four months he will be entitled to benefit for four months, and so on.

Maintenance allowances will be paid either through the employer or if employer or worker so demands, by an office maintained by the fund in each town. The worker should have an identification card besides his stamp card, and may send a relative for the money or have it delivered by postal money order.

*Medical Attendance.*—There will be a panel of doctors, amongst whom those employed by companies as wholetime medical officers will be included. Insured persons will be assigned to doctors; and if a company keeps a works doctor, all the employees of that company would be assigned to that works doctor, in the absence of any special reason to the contrary. Each panel doctor would receive Re. 1 per quarter (Rs. 4 per annum) in respect of each insured person assigned to him. In the case of employees of companies who maintain doctors, this payment, or most of it, would go to the company.

*Administration.*—The Government of Burma must make itself responsible for the administration of the scheme, though the Central Government should pay the Government contribution to the fund. There should be a board of control, consisting of three employers, and three employees' representatives, and three Government officers, one of the latter being chairman. There would be a wholetime superintendent of the scheme on about Rs. 1,000–50–1,500 per mensem, with necessary clerical assistance, and general supervision by the Labour Statistics Officer of Government.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 13,600-Rev., dated the 9th April, 1929.*

A small and informal committee, including two representatives each of employers and employees, was appointed by this Government to examine the question of sickness insurance, and also the difficulties that must attend the introduction of any such scheme. A copy of the report submitted by the committee, together with a note by Mr. Ghani, M.L.C., appended thereto, is forwarded herewith for the information of the Government of India.

2. The Punjab is not the home of any large industry excepting the seasonal cotton and ginning factories and the localised salt, coal and oil concerns. Accordingly the question of the introduction of provision for sickness insurance is not of



much practical importance for this province, for the present at any rate, and from a provincial point of view there is no need for any legislation on the subject. Should the Government of India, however, decide to take up central legislation, this Government will not oppose, provided that it is made elastic enough to leave this province sufficient powers to adopt any such legislation to suit its local conditions.

3. The Governor in Council commends for consideration the recommendation of the committee that the scheme should be applicable to all permanently employed workers, which term should include within its scope the classes specified by the committee, while he would at the same time suggest that primarily a beginning should be made only with the workers coming under the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Factories Act, and the Indian Trade Unions Act.

4. The Governor in Council would dissociate himself from any acceptance of the suggestions in the committee's report defining the measure of State assistance which should be given to any scheme affecting any class in the classification of permanently employed workers. On the other hand, he would have no objection to accepting liability for the cost of administration.

I am also to make it clear that this Government and the Punjab Legislature would be unwilling to make any direct contribution to a sickness insurance fund. They would be ready, however, to levy any rates that may be approved from the institutions and others concerned to spend on them.

5. The Governor in Council has no other comments to make on the recommendations of the Committee.

*Report of the informal committee appointed by the Punjab Government to examine the question of sickness insurance. The committee consisted of the following members :—*

1. Dr. R. C. Rawley, Chairman.
2. W. H. Abel, Esq., Inspector of Factories, Punjab.
3. N. A. Lillay, Esq., of the New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal.
4. Dr. Curjee Wilson, M.D., D.P.H.
5. R. B. L. Dhanpat Rai, M.L.C., Lahore.
6. M. A. Ghani, Esq., M.L.C., Bar.-at-Law, Lahore.
7. Jiwani Lal Kapur, Esq., Bar.-at-Law, Lahore.

1. The committee met in the office of the Director of Industries, Punjab, on the 12th February at 2.30 p.m. and on 2nd March at 11.30 a.m. All members except Mr. Jiwani Lal Kapur, who was absent on the 12th February, attended both the meetings. After a brief preliminary discussion, the chairman placed before the Committee the various points mentioned in the Government of India letter referred to above for consideration, and suggested that these points might be regarded as an agenda for the meeting. This suggestion was accepted by the committee, and the following items were discussed in detail :—

- (1) The extent to which it is possible to provide medical facilities.
- (2) The extent to which medical facilities are likely to be acceptable to the persons insured.
- (3) The extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate.
- (4) The proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme.
- (5) The extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them.
- (6) The extent to which State assistance can be granted.
- (7) Whether the scheme can be made applicable to either regional or industrial limits or both.
- (8) Whether legislation should be provincial or central.

2. The committee were definitely of the opinion that not only from the industrial or labour point of view, but also from the point of view of public health, it was necessary to introduce some system of Sickness Insurance in the Punjab.

3. Before proceeding with the principal items on the agenda, the committee considered it advisable to define the occupations to which the proposed Sickness Insurance Scheme should apply. The committee were of the opinion that all

permanently employed workers should come within the scope of the Sickness Insurance Scheme. As regards the terms "permanently employed workers" they decided that it should include the following:—

(a) All those workers to whom the provisions of Workmen's Compensation Act are applicable.

(b) All those workers to whom the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act are applicable.

(c) Permanent workers in educational institutions, in particular, women teachers, drawing salaries below the income tax limit.

(d) Domestic servants.

(e) Such other workers as are working for registered employers or are themselves licensed workers.

(f) All Government servants receiving a salary below the income tax limit.

*Item 1.*—As regards item 1 on the Agenda, it was felt that it would not be difficult to provide medical facilities for the workers. The committee held that the existing facilities were not complete and for this reason it was necessary to provide extended medical aid to all workers coming under the categories defined above.

*Item 2.*—The committee felt that there could be no two opinions on the subject of acceptance of medical facilities by workers. It was, however, difficult to determine the extent to which the insured workers were likely to take full advantage of the medical facilities provided under the new scheme. Past experience indicates that wherever adequate medical facilities were provided by the employers, the workers took reasonable advantage of these facilities.

*Item 3.*—The committee were of the opinion that the present tendency of the workers was to go to their homes during illness on account of economic reasons, that is, they could not support themselves away from their homes and friends when ill. This tendency was, however, not so very marked in the case of workers coming under the categories at (c) and (f). The committee believed that with the benefits accruing from Sickness Insurance Schemes this tendency on the part of the workers would gradually disappear.

*Item 4.*—The committee were unable to estimate the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) was likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme, as no concrete instances were before them from which they could draw conclusions. On consideration of the various heads under which this type of expenditure neighbourhood be incurred, the Committee felt that the proportion would be in the even roughly, the 5 per cent. It was impossible for the committee to estimate, staff in the setting expenditure involved in the entertainment of administrative staff to enforce the provisions of the law.

*Items 5 and 6.*—Both these items were taken up for consideration together, as at this stage the main dispute was between the workers, the employers and the State. Mr. Abul Kalam, in which he discussed the question of contribution on the assumption that the average wage of a worker employed permanently was Rs. 40 per mensem. If this assumption were to be accepted, he suggested, that the worker should have to pay five annas per month, the employer five annas and the State two annas six pies. Messrs. Kapur and Ghani considered this proportion much too high for the worker and suggested that the employer should contribute twice as much as the worker. Other members of the committee were of the opinion that any increased contribution required from the employer would make the scheme prohibitive, as the increased cost would be borne by the consumer or would be met by cutting the wages of the employee to the detriment of the concern. After a prolonged discussion the committee came to the conclusion that the contribution towards the Sickness Insurance funds should be borne equally by the employer, the employee and the State. This proportion would no doubt place an additional burden on the State as the State would have in any event to provide medical assistance and the administrative charges of the scheme.

The committee were of the opinion that the employer and the employee would be willing and were able to meet the charges falling upon them under the proposed scheme. It was also realized that the burden of the State's contribution would be rather heavy in the beginning; but it was felt that the advantage to the State would be the increase in health and working power of its industrial workers which would counterbalance the cost of administration and contribution by the State.

*Item 7.*—The committee decided to recommend to Government that the scheme should be made applicable to the whole of the Punjab with a central administrative authority in Lahore. All payments should be made through the Post Office on a certificate being presented by the worker and countersigned by the qualified medical authority appointed under the proposed law.

*Item 8.*—The committee were definitely of the opinion that for any scheme of Sickness Insurance to be a success the legislation should be central.

*Note by Mr. M. A. Ghani, Barrister-at-law, M.L.C., Lahore.*

I agree generally with the report of the Committee but I would like it to be modified in the light of the following :—

1. I think it will be better if to the list of the workers to whom the scheme is proposed to apply, the following may also be added :—

(a) All workers or employees who are members of a Trade Union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) All workers and employees who are employed in a factory or workshop coming under the Indian Factories Act.

(c) All workers and employees working in a mine to which the provisions of the Indian Mines Act are applicable.

(d) All workers and employees employed by the Government irrespective of their being "Government servants" or not.

(e) All workers and employees employed by a contractor in contract with the Government or some local body or some limited liability Joint Stock Company.

(f) All quasi Government servants, e.g., village servants and so forth.

(g) All Municipal and District Board employees.

(h) All workers and employees employed in a scientific, educational, or in a charitable institution registered under the Act, 1860.

(i) All workers and employees employed in an educational institution not registered under 1860 Act but recognized by the Government or some local body whether receiving any grant-in-aid or not.

I would, of course, limit the above workers and employees to those receiving a salary below the income-tax limit.

2. It will be readily seen that the above list extends the scope of the scheme of the sickness insurance so far as the different classes of workers are concerned. The list prepared by the committee is too limited and is too narrow. No reason has been given why the benefits of the scheme should be made applicable to a limited class of workers. Why should we favour certain classes of workers and deprive the others of the benefits of the scheme however deserving they may be; "what is good for the goose is also good for the gander" is an old aphorism, and in applying the scheme we should not overlook it. In preparing the list of workers, I have not lost sight of the principle so rightly cherished by the Committee, that the scheme should be applied to those workers only who are reasonably permanently employed and whose whereabouts can easily be known, and who belong to such organizations and institutions through whom the scheme can easily be worked.

3. The list as prepared by the committee is not quite clear and is open to objection in more ways than one. As regards (b) of the list I submit that the Indian Trade Unions Act as such is not applicable to the workers as such. It is applicable to the Unions of the workers only. Hence, I think it will be better if we apply the scheme to those workers who are members of a registered trade union. This will also help the labour leaders to organize the workers generally. It is of no use to particularly mention the women teachers in (c) of the list. They come under "workers in educational institutions." Similarly the use of the word "permanent" in (c) of the list seems to me to be merely redundant.

4. I think that it is not only "the more or less rigid atmosphere of an ordinary hospital," as the committee has rightly pointed out, but it is also the most unsympathetic and unkindly (demoralized to the verge of cruel) treatment that is meted out to the workers there that deters them to be treated there, and thus compels them to go to their homes. This is due to the beastly capitalistic mentality of the people generally and to the conservative indifference and repugnance to the poor workers and labourers. A little labour propaganda and greater sympathy of the Government with the cause of labour will surely change the atmosphere to the great success of the insurance scheme.

5. So far as the much vexed and most important question of the contributaries to the Insurance Fund is concerned, I agree that the State should pay one-third, but as between the employer and the employed I am strongly of the opinion that the contribution by the employer should be a little higher than that by the employee. For this, my reason is that the relevant advantages to the employer, are certainly and admittedly much greater than those to the employee. Moreover, even from the economical point of view, it is not right and just to place the rich capitalist and the poor wage-earner on the same footing. Moreover, the nature, extent and value of the sickness insurance are closely related to the progress of industrialism, and to the evolution of economic conceptions and of political and social forces. In this progress and evolution the employer is certainly more interested than the poor employee. Again, the State as guardian of public health and national prosperity should contribute liberally to the insurance fund. In times of sickness, wealthier classes can look after themselves. It is only the poor classes that suffer most. On account of their poverty, they are more exposed to the risk of sickness than their rich neighbours. The occurrence of sickness entails for the poor wage-earner and their dependents an increase of expenditure on the one hand (e.g., cost of medical treatment and drugs) and reduction and even cessation of income on the other. To their rescue, under the circumstances, the State must come and help. I would therefore suggest that the following proportion would meet the justice of the case :—(1) the State, one-third ; (2) the employer, five-twelfths ; (3) the employee, one-fourth. It is no concern of ours to consider from where the employer would get funds to pay the contribution. It is his concern. It is his look-out. He would bear the consequences if "the increased cost would be borne by the consumer or would be met by cutting wages of the employee," as remarked by the committee. No reasonable employer in his own interest as marked above would and should grudge to pay a little more than the employee.

6. I think we ought to insist on the compulsory form of insurance. It is true that the question was not referred to us but in order to make the scheme a success we should give our opinion on this point too. To my mind, voluntary insurance will be a mere farce. The workers are not organized. They are illiterate to understand the value of the scheme. Their conservatism, their fatalism, and the general apathy of the employers, will surely stand in the way of voluntary insurance. Nothing but compulsion will make the scheme a success. The Government as guardian and well-wisher of public health should, in duty bound, impose compulsion in sickness insurance. In almost every civilized country compulsory sickness insurance is in vogue. There is no reason why the same should not be in this poor country. Taking into consideration the chronic poverty of the masses and their proverbial illiteracy, the compulsion is all the more necessary here.

With the above remarks, I would respectfully urge on the Government to bring in a legislation promulgating a scheme for the compulsory sickness insurance of the labourers and workmen at a very early date.

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 1537—XL-5/29-Com., dated the 16th April, 1929.*

The local Government after careful consideration decided that the appointment of a committee was not advisable. Owing to the fact that labour is almost entirely unorganized, except at Jamshedpur, where serious trouble then existed between the workers and employers, it would have been impossible to represent labour properly on an informal committee. They considered further that in the present disturbed industrial conditions the operations of a committee would be likely to arouse false hopes and upset labour. They have, therefore, restricted themselves for the present to ascertaining the exact position in the principal industrial areas, as regards the provision of medical relief and sick pay, and to instituting an inquiry in the smaller industrial concerns scattered up and down the province to ascertain the extent of available medical facilities and the extent to which the labour of these factories is seasonal, migratory, or stable in character. Appended to this letter is a memorandum summarizing briefly the results of this examination up to date.

2. These investigations go to show that in the main industrial areas, medical relief is organized and, generally speaking, is fairly adequate. At Jamshedpur, Jamalpur and in the Giridih coalfields a complete system of medical relief with well equipped hospitals and an adequate staff of doctors is provided by the employers. In the main coalfields medical relief is organized under the statutory supervision of the Jharia Mines Board of Health ; it is as complete as the economic conditions of the industry permit and it is generally satisfactory. Some collieries have their own hospitals, a considerable number of them have dispensaries, and all of them except few specially exempted collieries employ either jointly or individually

qualified medical officers to look after their workers. Any individual deficiencies are supplemented by the public hospitals under the District Boards. In the factories lying outside the main industrial areas medical relief is less fully organized. But a general survey indicates that something over one-third of the workers receive medical relief from their employers and that public hospitals or dispensaries are available for the treatment of all except a very small percentage of the industrial population. It is clear that the smaller industrial employer cannot be expected to provide any considerable amount of medical relief directly; but the inquiry already made shows that factories are generally so situated that medical treatment can be provided for almost the whole industrial population at existing public institutions.

The local Government have not thought it necessary at present to investigate particularly the extent to which medical relief is likely to be acceptable to the workers. The prejudice against dispensaries and medical treatment is breaking down even among the aboriginal peoples who form a large part of the mining population, and there is no reason to believe that medical facilities, if provided, will not be generally acceptable.

3. The information collected by the local Government regarding the payment of sick pay and allowances is less complete. In the coalfields it is fairly common, though not at all general. In the Jharia and Raniganj coalfields, out of 214 working mines, 58 pay both sickness and accident allowances and another 10 pay sickness allowances only. Among the Indian owned mines a number of the owners pay a daily allowance or a *bhatta*, roughly equivalent to pay during short illnesses. But this is not paid during prolonged illnesses and in many cases is afterwards deducted from the earnings when the worker rejoins. The grant of sick pay is in fact mainly confined to the larger mines which give it regularly and on organized basis, while in the smaller mines it is sporadic and undefined. In Jamshedpur, accident pay is always given and the staff employed on a permanent basis is entitled to sick leave with pay; but coolie labour receives no sick benefits as it is all employed on a purely weekly basis. In the Jamalpur Railway workshops and the Giridih coalfields, which are owned by the East Indian Railway, sick pay is on a fully organized basis. In the first the employees receive sick leave, in the second the miners have a benefit fund from which allowances are paid. This is the only instance in the province in which a fully organized contributory insurance scheme on a self-supporting basis exists. It shows that the difficulty of making the worker contribute willingly is not insuperable. But in this case the conditions are unusually favourable, because the labour force is largely permanent and settled and the whole area is under the control of one employer. The persons affected, therefore, remain within the area within which the organization can effectively operate. These conditions are not found to anything like the same extent in other industrial areas.

4. The first essential in any investigation of the possibilities of industrial sickness insurance is to ascertain for every area the proportion of stable and unstable labour. The local Government have not attempted to do this for the major industries owing to the magnitude of the task. They have attempted to make a rough survey for the minor factories outside the main industrial areas. But the results obtained were entirely unreliable and have merely proved that before any useful investigation into the possibility of insurance schemes can be undertaken a detailed and expert investigation of the whole question of labour turn-over is necessary. This is a task which would take some considerable time and requires an expert agency. The local Government have material to show that the percentage of seasonal and migratory labour is generally high even in the biggest industrial areas. But they are unable, at present, to furnish any reliable data as to the extent of that unstable labour. In the mining areas in particular, a very high proportion of the workers are really agriculturists and follow a dual occupation. Large numbers also are seasonal workers and the labour force employed in the mines fluctuates within wide limits. Similarly at Jamshedpur the very large coolie force is fluctuating in character. In both South and North Bihar most of the factories are oil, sugar and rice mills, or indigo factories, which are themselves seasonal in character, and the greater part of the labour forces is employed only for a portion of the year. It can probably be said with safety, therefore, that throughout the province the stable labour force is distinctly in the minority. This in the opinion of the local Government adds enormously to the difficulties of propounding any insurance scheme. The only big industries in which conditions favourable to an insurance scheme exist already make some provision on their own account. There is, in the case of the coalfields, the further difficulty that the industry generally is in a state of depression from which it is not likely to recover for some years. The creation of an insurance scheme presumably involves a contribution from the employers, and a large number of the employers are, at present, not in a position to shoulder any additional burden. Many of the owners of small factories throughout

the province are probably in the same position. If, therefore, an insurance scheme were to be undertaken, the question of State assistance would inevitably arise, and the local Government must make it clear that in the present state of their finances they cannot undertake any liability whatever in this matter. Their revenues have ceased to expand and they are only able with difficulty to maintain their existing institutions and services. They have had to cut down increases in recurring expenditure to the very narrowest limits. Further, the local Government do not receive directly any revenue from the proceeds of industry. The District Boards are empowered to tax certain industries by the imposition of road cess. The duty of subsidizing insurance could not be laid upon the District Boards, while the provincial revenues derive no benefit from this cess. Lastly, the local Government do not consider that they would be justified in undertaking to subsidize insurance and medical relief for a small class of the community at the expense of the rest even if they could afford it, until such time as they are able to provide adequate medical relief for the population in general. If State aid is necessary for the creation of an insurance scheme, the local Government are of the opinion that the liability must fall upon the central Government.

5. In view of the results of this survey of the situation, the local Government consider that further investigation of the problem in Bihar and Orissa at the present stage is premature and is unlikely to be profitable. They have, therefore, not appointed a committee.

#### *Summary of Information collected.*

The result of the inquiries made to ascertain the present extent of medical relief provided by the employers in the industries of this province are summarized below.

#### *Major Industrial Areas.*

1. *Jamshedpur, Tatas and Allied Factories.*—Complete medical relief is provided for all employees free of charge both at the Company's hospital and at the worker's home. The company maintains a hospital with 144 beds, an isolation hospital with 36 beds and a segregation ward, 5 dispensaries and 2 first-aid stations. The medical staff consists of 27 doctors, 19 nurses, 31 compounders, 21 dressers and 40 sanitary inspectors.

Accident allowances are paid to all persons injured while incapacitated. Persons absent owing to sickness count their absence against leave under the company's rules. But no sick leave or allowances are paid to the coolie force. This force is engaged on a purely weekly basis, and is paid when actually working.

2. *The Imperial Tobacco Company's Factory at Monghyr.*—The company maintains an out-door dispensary. Medical treatment is given free to all employees. But there is no indoor hospital. No reports have been received regarding sick pay.

3. *Jharia and Mugma Coalfields, Manbhum.*—At present 214 collieries are working. The medical and public health organization of the collieries is under the statutory control of the Jharia Mines Board of Health appointed under the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlement Act of 1920. The collieries own 11 hospitals (owned by European firms), 72 equipped colliery dispensaries for outdoor and accident relief. All collieries which do not possess dispensaries keep a prescribed stock of drugs and medical equipment. There are, in addition, district board dispensaries and a central hospital at Dhanbad. The collieries maintain 68 qualified doctors and 5 principal medical officers. These doctors are employed by 156 collieries; 58 collieries are exempted from employing the medical officer as they employ a labour force of less than 30 persons.

Fifty-eight collieries pay sickness benefit regularly for both sickness and accident cases at rates varying from 2 as. to Rs. 1-8 annas per diem. Ten collieries pay accident benefit only at 3 as. to Rs. 3 per diem, and 7 others provide diet during illness. The Indian Mining Federation reports that it is the practice of its members to pay a *bhatta* roughly equivalent to daily wages during short illnesses. But nothing is done in cases of prolonged illness, as the labourers themselves leave the mines and return to their villages. Generally speaking organized sick benefits are paid principally by the big collieries, while the benefits in the smaller concerns are sporadic and not on any defined basis.

4. *Giridih Coalfields.*—The proprietors of the East Indian Company provide complete medical relief. There is also a self-supporting Miners' Benefit Fund which is maintained from contributions from the workers, men's subscriptions being one pice a week and the women's half a pice. From this sickness allowances and bonuses for births, marriages and deaths are paid. The fund has been in existence since 1892 and is self-supporting. The proprietors, in addition, provide both injury and old-age pensions to their miners.

5. No reports have been received regarding the *smaller coalfields* in Hazaribagh *s.s.*, Ramgarh, Bokharo and Karanpurah. These are also owned by State railways, and presumably provide medical relief.

6. *The Jamalpur Railway Workshops, E.I.R.*, maintains a large railway hospital fully equipped and staffed by one European medical officer, one assistant surgeon and three sub-assistant surgeons. There is also an outdoor dispensary. The workers receive free treatment in hospital. The employees are entitled to sick leave on pay under the company's rules.

7. *In the Mica Mining Area* only one concern, Christien & Co., maintains a hospital and provides medical relief. The other mines are practically all owned by Indians on a small scale.

*Industrial Concerns outside the main Industrial Areas.*

An enquiry was made by the Director of Industries with regard to (a) the extent of medical relief provided, and (b) the proportion of stable to seasonal employees in small factories scattered throughout the province.

The reports indicate that 39 per cent. of the total factory population outside the main industrial centres dealt with above receive medical relief at dispensaries provided by the employers; 57 per cent. are able to obtain medical treatment at public dispensaries within which the factory lies, while 4 per cent. are unprovided with any medical facilities. Relief provided by the employers occurs mainly in the Champaran and Darbhanga districts, and in the Manbhum and Singhbhum districts of Chota Nagpur. The percentages given above are not altogether reliable because, firstly, a part of the mining area has been taken into consideration which should have been excluded from the inquiry and, secondly, the percentages have been calculated not on the total turnover of workers, but on the maximum number of workers employed at the busy season.

The statistics on the subject of stability of workers are not given in this note because the results received have proved to be unreliable.

*Letter from the Government of the Central Provinces, No. C-22 652-XIII, dated the 17th April, 1929.*

The possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance was examined by a small informal committee including a few representatives of employers and employees. The report of that committee, together with the forwarding letter of Director of Industries, Central Provinces, accompanies this letter.

2. It will be observed that the members of the committee with the exception of the representatives of the employees are emphatically of opinion that any scheme of compulsory insurance is unworkable in practice. The local Government agree that the introduction of such a scheme must be attended by greater difficulties in a country where the path to compulsion has not been made easier by the existence of voluntary schemes of insurance, which are found where the system of trade unions is more developed. The extent of these difficulties cannot, however, be accurately estimated until an attempt has been made to put a scheme into operation, and the local Government is not prepared to accept the contention that they are insurmountable. It will, however, be conceded that, if an experiment is to be made, it must in the first instance be confined to industries in which labour is reasonably stable, that is to say, so far as the Central Provinces is concerned, to the textile, coal and manganese industries. Nor is there any valid reason that the scheme should not equally apply to labour employed on public or quasi-public enterprises such as the railways or under-departments of Government such as the Public Works Department. It follows that the sickness insurance must be organized on an industrial and not a regional basis.

3. I am further to point out that the time for the introduction of an innovation affecting the relations of capital and labour must be carefully chosen. At present labour is in a state of unrest—more so perhaps in other parts of India than in the Central Provinces. The introduction of a scheme of compulsory insurance would at the present moment in all probability be accompanied by organized attempts on the part of labour to shift the whole of the burdens to capital. Should these attempts be successful, the scheme would in effect lose one of its essential features that contributions should be levied alike for employers and employees. While, therefore, there is no objection to the preparation of a complete scheme, the local government feels considerable doubt as to whether the present time is propitious for its introduction.

4. The Government of India has directed attention to certain factors which must receive attention in any consideration of the problems. The provision of adequate medical facilities acceptable to the workers obviously is of paramount

importance. The Director of Industries has suggested in paragraph 8 of his letter that in urban areas the labourer should have the option of applying to reliable indigenous practitioners. Considerable practical difficulties would arise if there were two separate authorities to which the labourer desiring a certificate of sickness could apply; indeed, it might result in such certificates of sickness being obtainable with insufficient justification. The local Government would therefore suggest that for all industries, both urban and rural, the Western system of medicine should be utilized. Any prejudice that exists against that system would probably disappear in due course as a result of the benefits to labour resulting from sickness insurance. It is clear that the difficulties of administration from a medical point of view would be enhanced if the persons insured do not remain in the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate. These difficulties will be minimized by the application of the scheme to industries with a stable labour force, but the local Government agrees with the Director of Industries that in order to simplify the administration, sickness benefits should be confined to persons who remain within specified areas.

5. It is not possible in the absence of statistics as to the number of workers who would be incapacitated by sickness to compute the cost of the scheme, even if the scale on which benefits are to be granted were laid down. It follows that it is equally impossible to assess the proportion which the expense of administration bears to that cost. In the initial stages of the scheme the administrative machinery for the settlement of disputes could probably be the same as that already provided under the Workmen's Compensation Act, but in order to prevent disputes either party should have the right of obtaining a second opinion in addition to that of the panel doctor before recourse is had to a tribunal for the settlement of disputes. This opinion should be that of a Government medical officer.

6. No demand has hitherto been put forward by the workers of this province for a contributory scheme of compulsory sickness insurance, and the local Government accepts the view of the Director of Industries that employees as a class will be opposed to making any contribution. It is only when benefits are realized that this opposition can be expected to decrease. Labour, however, as a whole will obtain an indirect increase in its earnings to the extent of the contribution by the employers less any overhead charges borne by the fund. Provided, therefore, that contributions are not pitched unduly high, there is no reason to suppose that the classes whom it is proposed to insure will be unable to meet those charges.

7. The question as to the extent to which State assistance can be granted is an important one. The demand for the augmentation of this assistance whether directly or indirectly is certain to be insistent, and the finances of the province are not in a position to bear the addition of what may prove to be a large and growing liability. It is, therefore, necessary that at the outset the contribution of the State should be clearly defined. If this proposition be accepted, the most practical solution is for the State to bear the cost of administration. This will include the keeping of accounts, the provision of Government medical officers to give a second medical opinion, and the provision of the machinery for the settlement of disputes. Ultimately, when the financial liability can be more exactly determined, it might be possible for the State to contribute a portion of the remuneration of panel doctors representing the cost of giving certificates of sickness, leaving the fund to bear the cost of treatment.

8. In conclusion I am to point out that labour welfare is a provincial subject, though subject to legislation in the Central Legislature. The local Government is fully alive to the necessity of co-ordination in matters affecting the conditions of labour, but considers that co-ordination can and should be secured by joint deliberations between the provinces at which the main principles can be settled. Control by the Central Legislature over a provincial subject should be exercised as rarely as possible. Moreover, constitutional changes are now under consideration, and the local Government would deprecate the initiation of legislation in the Central Legislature in connection with a provincial subject, when there is a possibility that the provincial legislature may have unfettered control before that legislation has reached its final stage.

*Copy of Letter No. C 12, dated the 22nd March, 1929, from R. N. Banerjee, Esq., I.C.S., Director of Industries, Central Provinces, to the Secretary to Government, Commerce and Industry Department, Central Provinces.*

I have the honour to forward herewith copy of a memorandum of the proceedings of the meeting of the special committee appointed to consider the proposals for sickness insurance contained in Government of India's letter No. L-1518, dated the 20th September, 1928.



2. It will be seen that all the members of the committee except the two representing the organized workers of Nagpur consider any scheme for sickness insurance impracticable at the present stage of the industrial development of these provinces.

3. Although there is no sort of formal provision for any kind of sickness insurance in the industrial concerns of the province at present, it is not accurate to say that large scale employers are entirely unmindful of their duties in this respect. A few of the large industrial concerns, e.g., the Empress Mills of Nagpur, the Pench Valley Coal Co., Ltd., Parasia (Chhindwara district), provide free medical attendance and treatment for their employees as part of the welfare organization attached to their works. The Pench Valley Coal Fields Co., Ltd., extend such free medical facilities even to the dependents of their employees and also grant a subsistence allowance or half wages to their employees so long as they are not fit for duty through illness.

4. I agree in the committee's view that no such scheme can be applied to agricultural labour, as it is far too unorganized and migratory at present in these provinces. For similar reasons I differ from the other members of the committee, and think no such scheme will be workable in respect of seasonal factories like the ginning and pressing factories in the cotton areas of the provinces.

5. I, however, think that there is a strong case for making obligatory such provision for the insurance of the workers against sickness as some of the larger industrial concerns have found it to their interest to organize on their own initiative. This provision should include both medical attendance and an allowance for the period of sickness as suggested in paragraph 3 of the Government of India's letter. Formal provision for sickness insurance should be made in all industries in which the labour employed may be said to be more or less stable. In these provinces the only such industries are the textile mills, oil mills and a few isolated perennial factories or works like the Katni Cement works. To these we might also add the railway. The workers in these concerns remain attached to them more or less permanently. For example, out of some 8,000 employees in the Empress Mills, Nagpur, nearly 5,000 have been there for more than two to three years, and nearly 4,000 for more than five years. It is easy to compile a list of such perennial works in the provinces.

6. Assuming that such a scheme will be applicable to concerns of the nature indicated above, my view is that insurance must be made compulsory. The average Indian labourer has not as yet developed the foresight and commonsense to realize the advantages of such a scheme. The Empress Mills, Nagpur, for example, have had a very liberal scheme of voluntary sickness insurance in force for the last eight or nine years; but out of 8,000 employees not more than 50 have cared to take advantage of it in any one year. This may be taken as a fair indication of what would happen to any optional scheme of this kind in these provinces.

7. I am at one with the majority of the committee in the view that the funds necessary for giving effect to any insurance scheme must be raised by contributions from the employers and the employed; and that Government should be responsible for the organization and financing of the machinery that will be necessary for administering these funds and the scheme very much on the same principle on which the Government now entrusts to its officers the function of the commissioner under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

8. I now touch on the several points raised in paragraph 5 of the Government of India's letter:—

(1) The perennial works in which the labour is comparatively permanent are mostly in urban centres, and it is possible to provide the necessary medical facilities. Special arrangements in the mining areas are quite feasible.

(2) Only a negligible minority may object to medical facilities according to the Western system. A panel of reliable indigenous practitioners (hakims and vaid)s in the urban centres will be available. For areas like the coal fields provision must be included that workers insisting on indigenous medical facilities will forfeit the benefits of any such scheme.

(3) The great majority of the stable element of labour in such works are likely to remain within the local area of the works. In any case, it would be quite fair to provide in the scheme that workers leaving that area during sickness will forfeit the benefits of the scheme.

(4) It is difficult to indicate this accurately without a closer study of the question. But roughly I am inclined to put the expense of the administration at one-fifth of the total cost of the scheme.

(5) The proportionate deduction from the wages of the classes to be insured will not entail any real hardship; but in their present frame of mind, they will strenuously oppose all such deduction. One can easily imagine what will be the first effect of

the introduction of any such scheme, say, three years hence. All the workers will immediately demand an increase of their pay to the extent of the amount of their contribution to the scheme.

(6) *Vide* paragraph 7 above.

9. I agree with the committee that a regional organization for the administration of the insurance funds would be more suitable to these provinces; and that, as in a matter like this uniformity is desirable, legislation should be central with provision for the local Government making rules.

10. For drawing up more detailed constructive proposals a much closer study of the question than I have been able to make is necessary. At present I can offer my views only on the general principles involved in the proposals indicated in the Government of India's letter. I may, however, add that the Japanese Act of 1922 appears to be a suitable model for India.

*Proceedings of the Meeting held on the 20th February, 1929, of the Committee appointed for the consideration of Government of India's proposals on Sickness Insurance.*

*Present :*

- (1) Director of Industries (*Chairman*).
- (2) Director of Agriculture.
- (3) Mr. J. Boyd, Manager, Katni Cement and Industrial Co., Ltd., Katni (Jubbulpore district).
- (4) Mr. A. H. Parry, Manager, Pench Valley Coal Fields Co., Ltd., Parasia (Chhindwara district).
- (5) Mr. Shyam Sunder Bhargava, M.L.C., Malguzar, Jubbulpore.
- (6) Rao Bahadur G. R. Kothare, President, Factory Owners' Association, Khamgaon (Buldana district).
- (7) Mr. L. H. Bartlett, M.L.C., President, C. P. and Berar Manganese Ore Co., Ltd., Nagpur.
- (8) Mr. R. W. Fulay, M.L.C., Press Employees' Association and Model Mills Textile Union, Nagpur.
- (9) Mr. R. S. Ruikar, General Secretary, Provincial Trade Union Congress Committee and Secretary, Nagpur Textile Union, Nagpur.

All except Messrs. Ruikar and Fulay think that such a scheme is not practicable at the present stage of the industrial development of the province, and if introduced, would lead to unnecessary complications, and would probably result in the workers being deprived of the minor benefits that are now already provided in some of the larger mining and textile concerns. Messrs. Parry, Bartlett, Boyd and Rao Bahadur Kothare lay special stress on this point.

Assuming that some sort of scheme of sickness insurance should be introduced all agree that it should be compulsory and contributory.

Mr. Fulay's views are that compulsory insurance should be introduced only when a certain percentage of the workers in any factory or works ask for it; and that workers drawing Rs. 30 or less per mensem should not be made to contribute anything towards the insurance funds, and only workers earning more than Rs. 30 per mensem should be made to contribute.

All agree that the State should bear the entire administrative cost, that is to say, the cost of the organization that may be necessary for administering the insurance funds and scheme, and that the State should not make any contribution towards the insurance funds proper. Mr. Ruikar dissents, and adds that in addition to bearing the total cost of the administration of the funds the State should also contribute towards the insurance proper. The worker should contribute one-fourth and the remaining three-fourths should be shared by the employers and the State, half and half.

2. *What Industries can the Scheme be applied to?*—All agree that agricultural labour is far too unorganized for the scheme. It should therefore be ruled out. The scheme should be applied to mines, textile and other mills and factories, railways and P.W.D. workers, whether departmental or in the employ of contractors.

There was much discussion on the feasibility of applying the scheme to seasonal factories. It was agreed that any scheme, if introduced, should also be extended to seasonal factories, even though the employees might benefit only during the period of six to seven months during which they would work in the factories. Even in the mines on 60 or 70 per cent. of the labour at most may be said to be stable, and the rest migratory. If the scheme is thus applied to mines there is no reason why it should not be applied to other seasonal factories like cotton ginning and pressing factories.

Mr. Fulay, however, adds that it would not be worth while applying any scheme to seasonal factories employing less than 100 persons. It is suggested that the exclusion of the seasonal factories would cause hardship to such workers as would join some other industrial concern after leaving them. The number of such employees would not, however, be appreciable, as most of these workers in the seasonal factories go back to their villages, and very few of them join any other industry.

Only Mr. Plymen was keen on the insurance of domestic servants as well. Others do not think that it is worth while extending any such scheme to them.

3. It emerges during the discussion that the migratory element of the labour in these industries mostly goes back to the villages presumably for agriculture.

4. The great majority of the workers would take advantage of the medical facilities provided.

Mr. Ruikar suggests that the Government should draw up a list of hakims and vaidis in the villages of which the employees may avail themselves in the off-season. This to some extent would meet the difficulties arising from the lack of medical facilities in the interior. The lack of such facilities is admitted by all.

5. All agree emphatically that the employees would not agree to the deductions from their pay. Messrs. Fulay and Ruikar say that they will agree if the benefits of the scheme are properly explained to them.

6. A territorial or regional organization for administering the insurance funds would be better than an occupational one.

7. Legislation should be central with provision for the local Government making rules.

8. In conclusion all repeat that the scheme would be impracticable. Messrs. Fulay and Ruikar dissent. Messrs. Plymen and Boyd suggest that money would be better spent on providing general medical facilities which would also benefit agricultural workers.

#### APPENDIX VI.

##### *Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefit Bill.*

*A Bill to regulate the employment of women in factories and mines, and on those estates to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, applies some time before and some time after confinement, and to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit.*

Whereas it is expedient to regulate the employment of women in factories and mines, and on those estates to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, applies some time before and some time after confinement, and to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit during the period of absence from work due to advanced state of pregnancy and confinement; it is hereby enacted as follows:—

1.—Short title, extent and commencement. (i) This Act may be called the Maternity Benefit Act, 1926.

(ii) It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas.

(iii) It shall come into force on the first day of January, 1926.

2.—Definitions. In this Act,—

(a) "factory" means a factory as defined in the Indian Factories Act, 1911;

(b) "mine" means a mine as defined in the Indian Mines Act, 1923;

(c) "estate" means an estate as defined by the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901;

(d) "qualified medical practitioner" means a qualified medical practitioner as defined in the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923;

(e) "benefit" means benefit as provided for by this Act;

(f) "employer" includes an "occupier" of a factory as defined in the Indian Factories Act, 1911, or the "manager" of a factory, or an "owner" of a mine or his "agent" as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923, or the "manager" of a mine, or the "chief person" for the time being in charge of any "estate";

(g) "Inspector of Estates" means an inspector as defined by the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901;

(h) "Inspector of Factories" means an inspector as defined by the Indian Factories Act, 1911;

(i) "Chief Inspector of Mines" means a Chief Inspector as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923; and

(j) "Inspector of Mines" means an Inspector as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923.

3. Employment of women at the time of confinement and payment from Maternity Benefit Fund.—In any factory or in a mine or on an estate to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, or any section thereof applies, a women—

(a) shall not be knowingly employed during the six weeks following her confinement ;

(b) shall have the right to leave her work if she produces a medical certificate from a qualified medical practitioner stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks ;

(c) shall, while she is absent from her work in pursuance of clauses (a) and (b) of this section, be paid by the local Government in accordance with rules made for this purpose, out of a fund to be established for this purpose and called the Maternity Benefit Fund, benefit sufficient for the full and healthy maintenance of herself and her child, the amount of which shall be determined in accordance with rules made by the local Government.

4. Payment in case of death during period of confinement.—If a women dies at her confinement, or during the period for which she is entitled to benefit, the remaining sums due as maternity benefit shall be paid to the person who undertakes the care of the child in accordance with rules made by the local Government.

5. Dismissal of woman during confinement.—Where a woman is absent from her work in accordance with clause (a) or clause (b) of section 3, it shall not be lawful for her employer to give her notice of dismissal during such absence or at such a time that the notice would expire during such absence.

6. Penalty for contravention of Act by employers.—An employer contravening any provision of this Act or any rule made thereunder shall be punishable with fine which may extend to five hundred rupees.

7. Powers of local Governments to make rules.—Every local Government shall make rules—

(a) for the establishment of a Maternity Benefit Fund ; for fixing the amount of contribution to be paid to it by each factory or mine or estate ; for the collection of the contributions and for the management and safe custody of the fund ;

(b) for determining the manner of payment of the benefit to the person entitled to receive it ; and

(c) for fixing the amount of benefit to be paid under this Act.

8. Duties and powers of Inspectors.—The Inspector of Factories or the Chief Inspector of Mines or an Inspector of Mines or an Inspector of Estates shall have and perform the same powers and duties for the purpose of clauses (a) and (b) of section 3, and section 5 as they have and perform for the purpose of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, the Indian Mines Act, 1923, and the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, respectively.

#### *Statement of Objects and Reasons.*

The object of this Bill is twofold :—Firstly, it is intended to prohibit the employment of women in those industries, the work in which is regulated by law, six weeks after confinement, to enable them to leave work six weeks before confinement, and to prevent them from being dismissed from service during the days of their absence from work due to their advanced state of pregnancy and confinement. Secondly, during the period of her absence due to the above-mentioned reasons a women worker should be provided with financial help sufficient to maintain herself and the child in a healthy condition. The money necessary for this purpose is to be raised by the local Government by levying contributions upon the industries covered by the Bill in the form of a small cess on the products of the industries, or in some other convenient form to be decided by the local Government. The amount to be given to each women entitled to receive the benefit and the manner of payment and other matters connected with the Bill are left to be settled by the local Government by rules made by them.

The Bill seeks to carry out some of the proposals contained in the Draft Convention passed at the first International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919. If India desires to secure her proper place among the civilized nations of the world she cannot plead her inability to treat her women workers in the way in which civilized nations are expected to do. Moreover, there seems to be a natural desire in the country for rapid industrialization. But if industrialism is to be an unmixed blessing to the working classes, timely provision must be made to avoid and counteract the evils incidental to the introduction of the new system. There is no doubt that if women continue their long and arduous work in factories, mines and other organized industries, even in an advanced state of pregnancy, and immediately after confinement, their health and the health of their children will not fail to suffer.

Provision of maternity benefit during the days of enforced absence is necessary, as without such provision, mere prevention of work will be a measure of doubtful utility. It is but fair that the financial burden of the provision of the maternity benefit should fall upon industries that employ women with their natural sex disabilities. Moreover, as only a small proportion of women out of the total number of women employed will be eligible for the maternity benefit during the course of the year, the incidence of the burden will be very small. To prevent women workers from being dismissed some time before they become entitled to the maternity benefit, it is necessary that the maternity benefit should be paid out of the general fund and not by individual employers. As the welfare of labour is a provincial subject, it is only proper that the working out of the scheme for the maternity benefit should be left to local governments.

### APPENDIX VIII.

#### *Reporting of Accidents due to Causes notified by the Governments of Burma, Bombay and Bengal under Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act.*

##### *Burma.*

When there occurs in any factory :—

- (1) The bursting of any vessel subject to internal pressure other than an aerated water bottle or a boiler licensed under the Indian Boilers Act, 1923 ; or
- (2) the breaking of a rope or chain used for raising or lowering persons or goods by the aid of mechanical power or the collapse of any crane, winch or gantry used for raising or lowering persons or goods ; or
- (3) the collapse or failure of any chimney or of any wall over five feet in height, or any post, pillar or beam on which depends the safety of any part of a structure near which any person is employed or may have occasion to pass, the manager of the factory shall forthwith notify the inspector of the occurrence. When the report is under either Clause (1) or Clause (2) of this rule the manager shall state when the appliance was last examined or tested by a competent engineer and the result of that examination or test ; when the report is made under Clause (3) the manager shall state what measures have been taken to prevent danger to persons working in the neighbourhood of the accident due to further collapse.

##### *Bombay.*

(a) Structural Collapse ; (b) The breaking of any rope, chain or other appliance used in raising or lowering persons or goods by the aid of mechanical or electrical power ; or (c) Fires in cotton openers in cotton pressing factories.—In exercise of the powers conferred by Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act, 1911 (XII of 1911), the Governor in Council is pleased to notify the above noted causes as causes of accidents due to which, occurring in factories on or after the 1st April, 1927, must be reported to the prescribed authority, in accordance with Rule 64A,\* by registered post within one hour of the occurrence, or the accident shall be reported by telegraph, telephone, or by special messenger within the same period.

##### *Bengal.*

*Collapse of Buildings and Accidents to Plant or Machinery.*—When in any factory there occurs any explosion, fire, collapse of buildings, or serious defects in machinery or plant, which might have caused or might cause injury to persons, such occurrence shall be reported by the manager within five hours of its occurrence to the authorities† mentioned in Clauses (a) and (b) of Rule 62 of these rules.

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\* (a) The Inspector of Factories, Ahmedabad, in case of all factories situated in Sind, and in the districts of Ahmedabad, Kaira, Panch Mahals, Broach and Surat, and in the Nawapur Taluka of the West Khandesh District ; and

(b) The Chief Inspector of Factories, Old Customs House, Bombay, in all other cases.

† (a) The inspector notified for the area in which the factory is situated ; and

(b) The district magistrate, or, if he by general order so directs, to the sub-divisional officer.

## APPENDIX IX.

*Workmen's Compensation.*

*Letter to all Local Governments, No. L.1125, dated the 30th November, 1928.*

I am directed to refer to the Bill\* further to amend the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, for certain purposes which was introduced during the last session of the Legislative Assembly and circulated for the purpose of eliciting opinions thereon. This Bill\* is confined to the amendment of those sections which are admittedly defective and to the introduction of changes which are likely to raise no important controversial points and which will be generally recognized as improvements. But now that some experience of the working of the Act is available, it is desirable to re-examine the principles underlying the present Act and its more important features. The Act was admittedly an experimental measure and many of its features owe their origin more to a desire to minimize the difficulties attendant on the introduction of an entirely new measure of this kind than to any belief in their permanent value.

2. *The Scope of the Act.*—In any revision of the Act the two most important questions which require consideration are the definition of the workmen to whom the Act applies and the scales of compensation payable. The present Act aimed at the inclusion only of persons employed in branches of industry which were both organized and hazardous, and in extending the Act to fresh classes the Government of India has endeavoured to follow this principle. The great majority of the workmen who satisfy these conditions already come under the operation of the Act and if these conditions are to be maintained, no large extension of the scope of the Act is possible. It is difficult, however, to justify the exclusion of other classes of workmen on grounds of logic alone. The mere fact that an occupation cannot be described as hazardous is hardly sufficient justification for denying compensation to those who suffer from the rare accidents which occur and the fact that an industry is not organized in no way minimizes the hardship which accidents involve on workmen or their dependants.

3. No great difficulty would be created by the inclusion within the Act of workmen engaged in branches of industry which are not particularly hazardous and which are organized, e.g., to workmen employed on plantations. But the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries raises more serious problems, for the employer in an unorganized industry is not at all in a position to pay the compensation which would be due in the event of a serious accident. Nor would he be likely in most cases to take advantage of such facilities for insurance as are available. It would seem, therefore, that unless some scheme of compulsory insurance can be introduced, it would be unwise to contemplate any large extension of the scope of the Act. The Government of India are provisionally of the view that the endeavour to introduce any scheme of compulsory insurance, at any rate in unorganized industries, would be attended by serious administrative difficulties. In particular, the expense of administering such a scheme outside the more important urban areas would probably be prohibitive. But they would be glad if the local Government would consider, in the light of the above observations, the desirability of bringing further classes of workers within the scope of the Act. In particular, they would welcome any specific suggestions for additions to Schedule II of the Act.

4. *The Scales of Compensation.*—The main principles of the existing scales of compensation are:—

(1) The payment of a lump sum equivalent to 2½ years' wages of the deceased workman in cases of death of adult workmen.

(2) The payment of lump sums equivalent to 3½ years' wages (or in the case of minors, 7 years' wages) in the case of complete permanent disablement with proportionately smaller sums for partial permanent disablement.

(3) The payment of allowances at half the wage-rate for workmen temporarily disabled, with provisions for commutation. The most striking feature of the Indian Act in this respect is the preference shown for lump sums as against regular payments, and there is no doubt that in a country where industrial labour is confined to a large extent from distant areas, the payment of lump sums involves much less administrative difficulty than the payment of pensions. On the other hand, money received in the form of lump sums, particularly by ignorant workmen and their dependants, is apt to be expended in an improvident manner; and the payment of pensions, if it could be smoothly effected, would result as a rule in the receipt of substantially greater benefit for an equivalent amount of expenditure. The Government of India would be glad to know to what extent (if any) it is desirable, in the opinion of the local Government, that recurring payments should be substituted for lump sum payments in granting compensation.

\* This Bill has since been passed into law as Act V of 1929.

5. As regards the level of the scales, I am to invite attention to the recommendation on the minimum scale of compensation laid down by the Seventh International Labour Conference. It will be observed that the main principle underlying this recommendation is that the scales of compensation should be so framed as to provide the equivalent of two-thirds of the amount which the workman would have earned had he not been killed or incapacitated. The adoption of these principles in the Indian Act would involve an enhancement of one-third in the rate of payment for temporary incapacity and would probably involve substantial enhancements of the amounts payable on account of death or permanent incapacity; and the Government of India desire to receive opinions regarding the desirability of altering the scales. They are provisionally inclined to the view that in respect of the more poorly paid workmen in particular an enhancement would be justified and that, whether the scales for workmen generally are modified or not, the minimum scales of compensation which result from the application of Schedule IV of the Act might suitably be raised.

6. *The Waiting Period.*—A further question which arises in connection with the scales of compensation concerns the date from which compensation is payable. Under the Act as it stands at present, no compensation is payable in respect of the first 10 days of disablement and it has been suggested that this waiting period is too long and results in hardship. While the period is admittedly longer than that prescribed by the great majority of Acts in other countries, the Government of India feels some doubt as to the wisdom of making a general reduction. It should be borne in mind that every reduction involves a very large increase in the number of cases that can be brought under the Act. Experience in other countries in respect of accident frequency indicates that a reduction of the present period by only three days would involve an increase of about 25 per cent. in the number of possible cases. And even if the period was reduced to as low as four days, the amount of compensation for temporary disablement due to a workman who was disabled for a period of less than 10 days would seldom exceed Rs. 2 or Rs. 3, and it would not ordinarily be worth his while to contest such a claim where an employer refused to pay.

7. But the waiting period, in addition to excluding a large number of possible new claims for very short periods, operates to diminish the amount of compensation payable to workmen disabled for longer periods. And it is possible to minimize this effect without opening the door to a large number of trivial claims by providing that, where the disablement has lasted more than 10 days, the workmen should be entitled to receive compensation from an earlier date, e.g., from the fourth day of disablement. This method, which is known as "dating back" has been adopted in a number of Acts in other countries and was at one time in force in England. The disadvantage attendant on it is that it provides in a number of cases a strong temptation to malingering. For the workman who returns to work, for example, on the 10th day is entitled to no compensation, whereas if his disablement lasts for one more day, he receives compensation for a week. In spite of this disadvantage, the possibility of introducing "dating back" provisions deserves consideration.

8. *The Definition of "Dependants."*—The provisions of the Act relating to dependants were designed mainly in order to avoid administrative difficulties and it was recognized at the time that they might be somewhat arbitrary in their operation. The present law is briefly as follows. The amount of compensation to be distributed is independent of the number of their dependants and of the degree of their dependence on the deceased workman. Provided that there is a single relative falling within the group specified in Section 2 (1) (d) of the Act, the whole of the compensation has to be distributed, and so far as the employer is concerned the question of whether any of the relatives were actually dependent or not is immaterial. The commissioner has complete discretion regarding the distribution of the amount and in exercising this discretion, he is naturally guided by the extent to which the various claimants were dependent on the deceased. But as the Act at present stands, he may be compelled on occasion to grant the whole of the compensation to relatives who are in no way dependent, and he may find himself unable to give compensation to other relatives who are dependent but who do not come within the definition of "dependant" given in the Act. The Government of India have received suggestions that the list of dependants should be enlarged, but they are provisionally of opinion that this would be an unwise step so long as the present principles are maintained. For while there are other relatives who are in some cases actually dependent on the deceased, e.g., widowed sisters and widowed daughters, every addition to the list of a relative who is not in the great majority of cases an actual dependant, increases the risk of compensation going to those who have no just claim to it. And it would seem that if any amendment of these provisions is required, the amendment should be of a more radical character. Thus, for example, it would be possible to enlarge considerably the list of relatives entitled to claim and to insist at the same time on some proof of dependance. It would also be possible to provide that the amount of

compensation payable should vary with the number of the dependants and with the extent to which they were actually dependent on the deceased. Provisions of this nature would be more logical than those contained in the Act; but they would obviously be more difficult to administer than the existing law and the Government of India would be glad to know to what extent, in the opinion of the local Government, it is advisable to move in the directions suggested.

9. *Liability of Contractors.*—Sub-section (2) of Section 12 of the Act provides that where a principal is liable to pay compensation under this section he is entitled to be indemnified by the contractor. The whole section, which follows the British Act, contains no special provisions relating to sub-contracts, which are not uncommon in Indian industry, and some amendments appear to be desirable. A recent decision of the Calcutta High Court has made it apparent that no indemnification can be obtained under the Act from a sub-contractor in respect of compensation awarded against the principal for injuries sustained by a sub-contractor's workman. In such cases the principal can recover from the contractor, but neither of them can secure indemnification from the sub-contractor in the absence of an express contract providing for such indemnification. But it is open to the workmen to secure compensation from the sub-contractor by whom he is directly employed. Thus the section as it stands has the undesirable effect of enabling a workman to decide in a particular case on which of the parties the ultimate liability should lie, and an amendment is accordingly required.

10. The most obvious amendment would be one permitting the liability to be passed on in every case to the person directly employing the workman, and such an amendment would be in accord with the general principle of the existing section. But it is at least questionable if this principle is entirely suited to Indian conditions. In many cases the contractors who are responsible for the employment of labour have little control over working conditions, and the main responsibility for such matters as the safety of the workmen rests not with the contractor but with the principal. In a number of instances, and especially in the working of mines, the law definitely holds a particular party responsible for the safety of workmen and it is questionable if he should be at liberty to pass on the liability for compensation merely because he has not engaged the workmen directly. A possible alternative, therefore, would be so to amend the section as to provide that in any case where the contractor or sub-contractor is ordered to pay compensation, he shall be entitled to be indemnified by the principal. Such a provision would be subject to the exception contained in the present Section 12 (4) of the Act which makes the section inapplicable in cases where the accident occurred elsewhere than on the premises of the principal. There would, of course, be nothing to prevent a principal from entering into a specific contract with a contractor or sub-contractor providing for his indemnification, independently of the Act, against claims for compensation.

11. *Returns.*—While the majority of employers now send the prescribed returns punctually, there is a substantial minority who fail to comply with the provisions of Section 16 of the Act. And a suggestion has been made that a penal clause should be introduced in the Act making it possible to impose a small fine on employers who fail to submit returns within the time prescribed. At present, employers who intentionally omit to furnish returns can be prosecuted under Section 176 of the Indian Penal Code, but it has been urged that the difficulty of proving the element of intention renders this section insufficient for the purpose. The Government of India consider that the fact that a reminder or several reminders had been issued without result would in most cases suffice to establish intentional default, and they are doubtful if a special penal clause is necessary; but they would be glad to have opinions on the question.

12. Section 16 requires the submission by employers of correct returns specifying the number of injuries in respect of which compensation has been paid by the employer during the previous year together with such particulars as to compensation as the Governor-General in Council may direct. As the section stands, employers cannot be legally compelled to submit returns in respect of injuries for which no compensation has been paid and it has been suggested that the scope of the section might be enlarged so as to secure these returns and enable Government to judge of the extent to which injured persons succeed in getting compensation. This might be advantageous, but it would not be an easy matter to define the accidents in respect of which returns were required. It should be remembered in this connection that claims for compensation can arise in respect of injuries sustained elsewhere than on the employers' premises. And to call for returns in respect of injuries "arising out of and in the course of employment" would be to compel the employer to choose between restricting the returns to the cases in which he has paid compensation (and this is what is required at present) and admitting that he was liable to pay compensation in a number of other cases.



13. *Provisions relating to Procedure in Fatal Accidents.*—Finally, the Government of India desire to suggest some improvements in the procedure relating to fatal accidents, with particular reference to Section 22 (1) of the Act. As the law stands at present, under Sub-section (1) of Section 22 a dependant who finds that no compensation has been deposited on behalf of a deceased workman must first approach the employer. This appears to be illogical as, in the case of fatal accidents, it is not possible for the parties to reach an agreement that will be final. The duty of deciding what compensation, if any, should be given to each dependant rests solely with the Commissioner, and an agreement between any dependant and an employer is effective only in so far as it is an agreement on the employer's side to deposit compensation. The dependant can make no corresponding agreement to accept the compensation. As all cases of fatal accidents must come before the Commissioner and failure to deposit compensation is equivalent to a denial of the claim, the Government of India are inclined to the view that Section 22 should be amended in such a manner as to enable a dependant who claims compensation to approach the Commissioner for the settlement of his claim without first applying to the employer. This change would not affect the right of the employer to a notice of the accident.

14. Section 22 of the Act effectively presents the Commissioner from initiating proceedings on his own motion. It has been suggested that in a country like India, where the class of people from which workmen are drawn is almost entirely illiterate, the Commissioner should be given powers to initiate proceedings to secure the payment of compensation in cases where, owing to ignorance, no claim has been made. The proposal, as stated in this form, is open to serious objections, the main one being that it would tend to remove the Commissioner from the position of a referee to that of a partisan and to weaken the confidence of employers in his impartiality. The Government of India, however, consider that the migratory character and the general illiteracy of the workers in India and the absence of well-organized trade unions furnish grounds for taking special measures for securing to the dependants of a deceased workman the compensation which is due to them under the Act. For example, a provision might be made under which an employer would be bound to give notice to the Commissioner within a prescribed period of all accidents to his workmen which have terminated fatally. Failure to give such notice would render the employer liable to a fine. The notice would include certain specified details and would also include a statement whether the employer proposed to deposit compensation with the Commissioner or not; and if not, his reason for not doing so. Where the employer did not propose to deposit compensation, the Commissioner might be authorized to convey to the dependants of the deceased employee an intimation that it was open to the latter to take such further action in the matter as they might desire to take under the Act. Alternatively, other officers, e.g., inspectors of factories and mines might be authorized to prefer complaints (and to secure that the proper notice was served on the employer) in cases where they believed that a workman had been killed in circumstances giving rise to a claim for compensation, and where no compensation had been deposited. The Government of India would be glad if these suggestions could be considered; they will be ready to consider any other suggestions designed to meet the difficulty.

15. In a number of cases Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation have been unable to award compensation payable under the Act, owing to the fact that the dependants of a deceased workman could not be traced, and a suggestion has been made that employers should be obliged to register the names and addresses of the nearest relatives of each of their workmen as soon as the workman is taken into employment. The Government of India are inclined to view such a proposal favourably, but they consider that the procedure suggested could only be introduced effectively for certain limited classes of workmen, e.g., those employed in factories, mines and railways. In the case of a factory, for example, the employer has to keep a register of all the persons employed, and the names and addresses of the nearest relatives could be entered at the time when the entry of a workman's name is first made. These registers could be examined periodically by factory inspectors. On the other hand, the enforcement of a rule in the building trades, for example, would be scarcely possible. Another possible objection to this proposal is that in some areas workmen might be unwilling to give their wives' names and the wife, when living, is the most important dependant.

16. Cases arise in which the amount of compensation deposited on account of a fatal accident is inadequate and the Commissioner is at present precluded from taking steps on his own initiative to secure that the full amount of compensation is paid. He must await an application from a dependant before taking any action in this respect. As the deposit of compensation is tantamount to an admission of liability, it would seem to be desirable that the Commissioner should be empowered to call upon the employer depositing compensation in any particular case to show cause why he should not deposit the additional amount sufficient to bring the compensation up to the prescribed sum.

17. Section 8 (1) of the Act does not prescribe any particular period during which the payment must be made by the Commissioner, but it is doubtful whether he can, without statutory authority, withhold a payment for the periods which are sometimes necessary for the decision of an appeal by a High Court. It has, therefore, been suggested that Section 8 (1) of the Act should be amended so as to empower the Commissioner to withhold payment in cases where an appeal has been filed against his decision. The High Court might similarly be empowered to order in any particular case that the distribution of compensation should be suspended pending their decision.

18. In conclusion, I am to set out briefly the main questions on which the Government of India desire to receive opinions. These are as follows :—

- (1) To what fresh classes of employees, if any, should the Act be extended ?
- (2) Should any provisions be introduced for securing workmen against possible loss by reason of the inability of their employer to pay any compensation that may be due ?
- (3) To what extent, if any, should recurring payments be substituted for the lump sums at present payable under the Act ?
- (4) Should the scales of compensation be enhanced either for the more poorly paid workmen or generally ?
- (5) Should the waiting period be reduced either generally or in the case of those workmen who are disabled for more than ten days, and if so to what extent ?
- (6) Should the list of relatives entitled to claim compensation be enlarged ?
- (7) Should proof of dependence be required in order to enable a relative to claim compensation ?
- (8) Should the compensation payable vary with the number of dependants and with the extent of their dependance on the deceased workmen ?
- (9) Should Section 12 of the Act be amended—
  - (a) So as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the person directly employing the workmen in every case, or
  - (b) so as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the principal, or
  - (c) in any other manner ?
- (10) Should any penalty be provided in the Act for failure to comply with the provisions of Section 16 ?
- (11) Should employers be required to submit returns of accidents in respect of which compensation has not been paid, and if so, to what accidents should this provision apply ?
- (12) Should a dependant claiming compensation be relieved of the necessity of approaching the employer for the settlement of his claim ?
- (13) What steps, if any, should be taken to ensure that dependants who may have valid claims for compensation do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights ?
- (14) Should employers be required to maintain a register of relatives of their workmen ?
- (15) Should Commissioners be empowered to call on employers depositing inadequate compensation for fatal accidents to make a further deposit ?
- (16) Should provision be made for the suspension of distribution by the Commissioner pending the disposal of an appeal against his decision ?

Other amendments of the Act may suggest themselves to local Governments or those consulted by them, and the Government of India will also be glad to receive any suggestions relating to points which are not discussed in this letter. I am to request that, after consultation with representative organizations of employers and employees and others who may be interested in the operation of the Act, a reply may be sent to this letter not later than 1st July, 1929.

## APPENDIX XII.

### *Deductions from Wages or Payments in Respect of Fines.*

*Letter to all Local Governments and Administrations, No. L.1418, dated 25th June, 1926.*

I am directed to ask for the/your assistance of the Government of India in enabling the Government of India to obtain information on the extent of the practice in India by which employers in industrial concerns are empowered to inflict fines upon their workmen. Suggestions have been made in the Central

Legislature, in the press and elsewhere that the system of inflicting fines upon workmen is common in Indian industrial establishments, and that it constitutes an evil of such proportions that steps should be taken either to abolish the system altogether or to reduce it to such dimensions as to prevent abuse.

2. That the system is liable to abuse is obvious. If fines are not subject to regulation the employer who imposes a fine acts as prosecutor and judge, and the employee has no effective remedy if he is fined unjustly or in excess. This is true even in countries where workmen are literate and where they have the support of trade unions in resisting unfair imposts. It is not unnatural to expect that in India the ignorance of the great mass of workmen and the absence of strong labour organizations would make the need for protection greater than elsewhere. The experience of western countries has in many cases led to more or less elaborate legislation on this subject. The main provisions of the English law are embodied in the Truck Act of 1896. In several other countries the power to impose fines and make deductions from wages is regulated by law. Sometimes a limit in the shape of a maximum percentage of wages is imposed; generally deductions can only be made in accordance with a code of regulations duly posted in the factory or other establishment; and frequently the law contains the salutary provision that sums paid as fines must be credited to funds devoted in some manner or other to the benefit of the workers.

3. It will be apparent that while the legitimacy of the system of imposing fines is recognized in most countries, restrictions are frequently imposed with the object of preventing abuse. The English law makes a distinction between three forms of deductions from wages—deductions in respect of fines, i.e., for breaches of discipline; deductions in respect of bad or negligent work, or injury to the materials or other property of the employer; and deductions in respect of material provided by the employer. The Government of India are not in possession of full information on the extent to which the practice of making deductions of these various kinds exist in India; though they are inclined to the view that it is in respect of the first two forms of deductions from wages, mentioned above, that the practice is most prevalent and most liable to abuse. The distinction between these two forms of deductions is not always easy to define, and indeed one of the recommendations of the Truck Committee appointed in England in 1906 was the repeal of the provisions of the English law relating to deductions in respect of damaged goods (Section 2 of the Act of 1896), the effect of which recommendation would be that the employer could only deal with cases of careless or negligent work in the same way and under the same conditions as he would be allowed to deal with breaches of discipline. The deductions would cease to be a method by which the employer recoups the loss he has sustained through the worker's act or default, and would become rather of the nature of a fine.

4. There is, of course, a body of opinion which urges that fines ought to be abolished altogether, the grounds advanced generally that experience shows that they are not a real deterrent, that they have a bad moral effect, and that, being often unfairly imposed, they create a sense of injustice and lead to irritation. The exponents of this view aver that discipline can best be maintained by adequate supervision and moral control, with the alternative of dismissal in the last resort. This was not, however, the view taken by the majority of the English Truck Committee of 1906-08. They pointed out the obvious dangers of the total abolition of the system of fining in the substitution of other and less desirable means of maintaining discipline. A considerable body of evidence was produced before the Committee to the effect that many workers prefer fines to the alternative of suspension or dismissal. Their final conclusions were not in favour of the total abolition of the system of imposing fines, but they proposed certain changes in the law designed to place such restrictions and conditions on the system as would prevent it from being either a source of profit to the employer, or a cause of improper or harsh treatment to the workers. They suggested, *inter alia*, that the maximum fine or accumulation of fines in any one week permissible by law should not exceed 5 per cent. of the wages of the worker; that deductions by instalments should be prohibited, i.e., that not more than one deduction should be allowed to be made in respect of one and the same fine; and that fines should be abolished altogether in the case of young persons of 16 years of age and under.

5. In referring very briefly and summarily to some of the provisions of the law in other countries, the Government of India must not be understood as intending to suggest that circumstances in India are the same, or that legislation on similar lines is necessary or desirable. They have not at present sufficient information at their disposal regarding the degree to which the system of imposing fines is prevalent in India, the forms which it takes, or the extent, if any, to which it is in practice abused, to enable them to form any definite conclusions. The object of this letter is to ask local Governments to furnish them with such information as they are able to collect

on the subject, after consultation with the interests concerned, and to favour them with their views on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise, to counter any abuses which may be found to prevail.

6. If, as the result of these enquiries, any legislative measures on the subject should appear to be desirable, the inherent difficulty of rendering such legislation effective must be recognized. This, indeed, is a difficulty which has been felt in England. The original Truck Act of 1831 largely failed of its effect because no one was officially recognized as having a special duty to enforce it. This drawback was, to some extent, remedied by Section 13 of the Truck Act of 1887, which placed upon inspectors of factories and mines the duty of enforcing the provisions of the Truck Acts and gave them for this purpose the same powers and authorities as they possess for enforcing the provisions of the Acts relating to factories and mines. The Report of the Truck Committee already referred to, shows, however, that even in England where the workmen are literate and in every way in a better position to resist illegal exactions than in India, it has been difficult to prevent or to detect violation of the law. It appears to the Government of India that if any legislation is ultimately found to be desirable in this country, it would probably be impracticable, in the first instance at any rate, to extend its scope beyond industrial establishments, such as factories and mines, which are already regularly inspected by a special staff.

7. In asking for information on this subject, the Government of India would welcome any suggestions which the Government of you may have to make on the form which any measures, which it may be found desirable to adopt to remedy abuses, should take. They would be very grateful if after consultation with the interests concerned, the local Government would favour them with their views not later than the 1st March, 1927.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, No. 72/5826, dated the 5th January, 1927.*

The system of imposing fines upon workmen employed in industrial concerns or coffee plantations does not exist in Coorg. The chief commissioner does not, therefore, consider it necessary to take any action, legislative or otherwise, in the matter so far as this province is concerned.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, N.W.F. Province, No. 6-C. & I. (Revenue), dated the 5th January, 1927.*

No industrial concerns of any magnitude or importance exist in this province, and the enquiries made have not revealed the existence of any system of imposing fines on the workmen employed in such establishments as are to be found. I am unable, therefore, to offer any useful suggestions on the subject.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 300-Industries, dated the 13th January, 1927.*

In my opinion it would not be possible at the present stage of development of this country to introduce legislation on this subject (even as regards factories and mines already inspected by a special staff) which would not cause considerable irritation without any corresponding benefit, for an ill-intentioned employer would still find many loopholes whereby to evade it. In the long run every employer gets the employees he deserves, and the average employer is not blind to that fact or to his own interests. In the past few years India has had a plethora of industrial legislation, and the country should be given time to digest it fully before too many further steps forward are taken. *Festina lente* is a hackneyed motto, but there are times when it has much to commend it.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. 337-F.M., dated the 19th January, 1927.*

There are few large industries in this province besides the tea estates. On tea gardens the system of fining for bad work or damage to materials practically does not exist. The piece-work system is generally in force there, and as the labourer is paid for the actual work done, the question of fining for bad work does not arise in his case at all. Members of the supervising staff however, are occasionally fined for neglect of work or irregularities. The power of fining for damage to tools and plant is not utilized at all in tea gardens. Fines are imposed for breaches of discipline, such as drunkenness, but the power is not abused. Any such abuse would at once lead to an exodus of the labourers and this in itself is a sufficient safeguard.

The fines most commonly imposed on tea gardens are those imposed in settlement of disputes among the labourers themselves, where the fines are paid to the aggrieved party, and fines for petty offences, e.g., cattle trespass, stealing firewood, etc. These fines are imposed in lieu of sending the persons concerned to court and are accepted as a preferable alternative. They do not fall within the class of fines dealt with by the Government of India and may be left out of consideration.

2. In industries other than the tea industry, the system of fining for bad work and damage to materials as well as for breaches of discipline does exist, but the Governor in Council has no reason to believe that it is abused. In the Assam Railways and Trading Company, which is the largest of such industries in the province, the total fines imposed in 1925-26 amounted only to 18 per cent. of the wages bill.

3. The Governor in Council holds that the power of fining must be retained as an alternative to other and less desirable means of maintaining discipline or to the more drastic punishment of dismissal for bad work. There is no abuse of the power of fining in Assam, and there is no danger of such abuse in a province where labour is difficult to obtain and perhaps even harder to retain and any abuse of the power would bring its own punishment in the loss of labour. For these reasons legislation to regulate fining is not required in this province.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Ajmer-Merwara, No. 198/1805 of 1927, dated the 3rd February, 1927.*

So far as Ajmer-Merwara is concerned, no legislation is called for in the matter at present.

*Letter from the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan, No. 489-R., dated the 10th February, 1927.*

The industries in this province consist of coal and chromite mines only, while the factories are mainly Government workshops of the railway, ordnance and military departments, and a couple of private steam flour mills and an ice factory.

2. There are no special rules in existence on the subject of powers of employers of the industrial concerns to inflict fines on their workmen. From enquiries made, however, it appears that fines of trivial amounts are inflicted in the cases of breach of discipline, of negligent and bad work, and are readily accepted by the employees concerned. In the case of railway workshops, the amount so realized is credited to a special fine fund, which is used solely and entirely for the benefit of the staff and in no way forms a source of income to the railway. In the case of arsenal workshops, the fines are scrutinized by an officer senior to the one recommending the same before the publication of the same in orders.

3. The system of inflicting small fines is considered to be the only suitable way of dealing with small errors and slackness, and its abolition is deprecated all round in the interest of maintenance of proper control and discipline over the employees.

4. In order, however, to restrict abuses, the following suggestions appear to the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner to be fair and suitable for all concerned :—

(i) that a list of all fines inflicted in an industry or a workshop should be kept in a special book in which the signature or thumb impression of the employees fined be taken and witnessed by one of his fellow workers in token of the employees acquiescence to the deduction of the amount from his earnings ;

(ii) that the total of such deductions should not exceed 5 per cent. of the monthly earnings of the employee so fined ; and

(iii) that in the case of mines and factories it should be made compulsory for the employer to submit at the close of each year to the inspectors of mines and factories, respectively, for scrutiny, a list of all fines inflicted during the year with full particulars of the circumstances connected with each fine.

*Letter from the Government of the Central Provinces, No 608/1394-XIII, dated the 18th February, 1927.*

The system of fining prevailing in the province is neither a source of profit to the employer nor a cause of harsh or improper treatment to the workers. It has, on the other hand, been effective in enforcing discipline and preventing careless or negligent work. In recent industrial disputes in the province, the subject of fines

has not been brought up as a grievance and no complaints from employees regarding excessive fines have been made to the factory inspection staff. The employers of labour are unanimous in opposing legislation on the subject, and having regard to the conditions obtaining in the province, the local Government inclines to the view that it is unnecessary to introduce legislation on the lines of the English Truck Act. It is suggested, however, that it might be prescribed by a rule under or an amendment of the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act that the owners of factories and mines shall maintain a register in which the amount of fine or deduction from wages and the nature of the act or omission in respect of which such fine is imposed or deduction made should be entered. Such a register, which should be open to inspection by the factory or mines inspector, would furnish a means for the verification of any complaints and would enable the local Government to watch how far the system is abused in practice.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. 381-L, dated the 21st February, 1927.*

I am directed to say that the Commissioner of Labour, the Board of Revenue, the Director of Industries and representatives of employers of labour and employees were consulted.

2. From the enquiries made, the Government observe that fining is generally used both for breaches of discipline and (though apparently not so often) for bad or negligent work or injury to materials and tools. It does not appear that, in the larger concerns, employers hire out materials or tools to workmen and deductions are not therefore made in respect of them. Fines for bad work and injury to materials tend to be regarded as fines for disciplinary purposes and the two groups may therefore be treated together.

3. The enquiries made do not furnish any evidence that the practice of fining is abused in this Presidency. The maximum of 5 per cent. of the wages of any worker suggested by the English Truck Committee of 1906-1908 as being the limit up to which fines may be levied on him in a week is apparently never exceeded in this Presidency, and the average percentage of fines levied appears to be almost invariably less, sometimes much less, than one-half per cent. The fines collected are generally credited to a fund mainly devoted to the benefit of the workmen. In the opinion of this Government the conclusion is irresistible, on the above data, that no need for legislation exists.

4. Further, there are three grave dangers attending legislation of this kind in this country. Firstly, by fixing a maximum by statute, fining is legalized up to that maximum and it will tend thereby seriously to increase the evil against which it is proposed to legislate. Secondly, legislation may drive employers to resort more largely to other methods of enforcing discipline, such as reduction in wages and the withholding of gratuities or bonuses, which would be gravely to the detriment of the workmen. Thirdly, the proposed legislation would not give control where control, if it could be enforced, is necessary. For instance, in the hand loom industry, the middlemen, in whose hands the industry is to a very considerable extent, advance yarn, looms, etc., and use their power of making deductions for alleged bad work or waste of material to an extent which no industrial concern would contemplate. It is, in fact, one of the methods by which they keep the weavers who work for them in a perpetual state of indebtedness. This abuse on the part of employers who do not come within the scope of the Factories Act would not be checked by the proposed legislation, and the restriction of such legislation to industrial establishments in which the abuse hardly exists will not secure the object in view.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 561-R, dated the 7th March, 1927.*

From enquiries made it appears that although the practice of inflicting fines on workmen employed in industrial establishments is common throughout the province, it is not resorted to any appreciable extent by any concerns of repute or standing, and that it does not constitute an evil of such proportion as to necessitate legislation to abolish the system altogether or to restrict it within narrow limits.

2. Fines are a well recognized method of inflicting a minor punishment and the system has not led to any great abuse. In fact, the demand for labour is so great that a firm known to deal harshly with its employees in this respect would soon find itself in difficulties in securing adequate supplies of labour. It is also doubtful if industries could be run in India without a system of fines; the labour so far commands the situation (in most industries) that there is little danger of a wholesale misuse of the system. Accordingly in the opinion of the Punjab Government the necessity for interfering with this well recognized method of inflicting a minor penalty is not

established, at least in so far as this province is concerned, and they would not view with favour any legislation intended to stop or regulate the infliction of fines. The enforcement of such legislation would also be very difficult, even if it were confined to factories and workshops liable to inspection. In others it would remain a dead letter.

3. In case, however, the Government of India still decide to introduce legislation in this matter, it would be necessary to define the limit of fine, and in the opinion of the Punjab Government this should be fixed at one-eighth-of-a workman's wages. Any reduction in this limit is likely to lead employers to dismiss their workmen for want of power to impose adequate punishment and this would be a clearly undesirable alternative.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 1678-Com., dated the 7th March, 1927.*

The Government of Bengal consulted the various interests concerned, and they have now obtained the necessary information, which is summarized below, and which shows that the abuses are so few that it is doubted whether legislation of any kind is necessary at the present time.

2. The extent to which fining is prevalent in Bengal may be judged from the following summary of information supplied by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce :—

" *The Indian Mining Association* (representing the coal-mining industry).—It may be fairly stated that the imposition of fines is not prevalent in the coalfields to any great extent. For if it were the mine workers who are largely agriculturists would not come into the coalfields to work year by year as they now do. There may be deductions from wages occasionally on account of bad work, gross carelessness or negligence, damage to property or pillar stealing. But neither in the case of the workmen engaged by the collieries themselves, nor in the case of the labour brought in by the contractors, has fining become a regular or extensive system in the coalfields.

" *The Indian Engineering Association* (representing the engineering industry).—Fines are imposed in engineering works to a nominal extent only. The maximum limit is not more than 2 per cent. in any of the works and in some of the larger works the amount is less than 1 per cent. of the wages. The system is not abused, and the Association does not consider that any steps are necessary in this regard. In large establishments, such as most of the engineering works are, there is a sufficiently strong class feeling among the workmen to prevent any abuse of the system. The fines are on too insignificant a scale to recoup the employer for the value of any material that may be spoiled by a workman. The system is simply a means of enforcing discipline, and for that reason the Association is opposed to its abolition. If fines were prohibited, employers would be compelled to dismiss offenders, and dismissal is a much more severe punishment than a fine.

" *The Indian Tea Association* (representing the tea industry).—The system of fining is practised to a very small extent in the tea industry and does not constitute an evil. It is considered to be of value as a means of maintaining discipline, and it is obviously not abused, as if it were labour would tend to leave the estates. When inflicted fines are usually either a punishment for bad work or for offences such as petty pilferages, etc."

3. Enquiries made in the tea-garden area of this province have elicited further information regarding the system of fining in that industry. This information shows that abuse is limited by the consideration that the shortage of labour compels the planters to treat their employees with every consideration. The letter from Mr. W. L. Travers, M.L.C., Vice-Chairman of the Doars Planters' Association, to the address of the Commissioner of the Rajshahi Division, amply bears this out, and also demonstrates the fact that, so far as the tea industry in this province is concerned, the time has not yet arrived when legislation of a Truck character would serve any useful purpose.

4. The information supplied from commercial sources is in general agreement with that which Government has received from the Factory Inspection Department, and also from Mr. K. C. Ray Chaudhuri, one of the labour representatives on the Bengal Legislative Council, who was specially consulted on the subject. The fining system may be said to be general in all industrial establishments, and fines are generally imposed for :—

- (a) breaches of discipline ;
- (b) bad or negligent work or injury to materials ; and
- (c) injury to machinery or tools supplied by the employer. It is reported that (a) and (b) are usually the causes of fines in textile mills and tea gardens and (a) and (c) in engineering concerns. About 80 per cent. of the total labour force in this province is employed in textile and engineering concerns, and special enquiries conducted in these industries by inspectors of factories prove that the fining system has

not led to any appreciable abuse. In jute mills it has been found that the majority of fines are inflicted on piece-workers, and, in particular, on weavers on account of bad and negligent work and injury to material. The following are a few random samples taken from jute mills :—

—	Wages per week.			Fines.	Cause.	Percentage of wages.	
	Rs.	a.	p.				Rs.
A. Mill weavers .. ..	3	14	3	0	2	(b) For bad work ..	3
	6	8	0	0	4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.8
	6	11	6	0	4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.7
B. Mill weavers .. ..	6	0	0	0	2	(a) Committing nuisance	2
	8	4	0	0	4	(b) For bad work ..	3
	7	13	9	0	4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.2
A. Mill preparing department.	8	8	0	0	8	(b) Do. .. ..	6
	2	8	0	0	2	(b) Bad work .. ..	5
Finish carding .. ..	2	12	0	0	2	(b) Do. .. ..	4.5
Selectors .. ..	8	8	0	0	8	—	6
Sirdar .. ..	5	8	9	0	8	(b) Bad supervision ..	9
B. Mills spinner .. ..	3	8	0	0	2	(a) For leaving tokens ..	5
Do. .. ..	3	8	9	0	2	(c) For being late ..	5

In no case do the fines in the above instances exceed 5 per cent. of the employees' wages, where monthly wages are taken into account, and in no case investigated does it appear that an employee has been fined more than once in a month. In the case of one mill the aggregate of fines per week amounted to Rs. 50, the majority of which were imposed on weavers, and the balance on the remaining classes of time-workers for breaches of discipline, timekeeping, etc. The total wages bill for the week in this concern was Rs. 14,000. In another mill with a monthly wages bill of Rs. 4,200, the fines aggregated Rs. 6-2 annas per week. In still another mill the aggregate of fines per week was Rs. 300, of which Rs. 200 were imposed on weavers for bad work and the remainder on time-workers for breaches of discipline and infractions of the Factories Act. In this case the total wages bill was Rs. 15,000.

Cotton mills are reported to impose fines similar to jute mills in approximately the same proportion to wages. It is stated that warnings are given before the fines are imposed, and that when an employee is found to be doing better work after having been fined the fines are returned to him in the form of a bonus.

In engineering concerns the available information goes to show that in no case do the fines exceed 5 per cent. of the employees' wages, and that the aggregate of fines is negligible compared with the total wages bill. Fines in such works are generally inflicted for breaches of discipline, bad timekeeping, and injury to tools supplied by the employers.

Information is difficult to obtain in respect of smaller factories, but the fact that no complaints have been received shows that fining does not lead to abuses. It has been noted that in some concerns, such as rice mills, no fines are said to exist, because in such industries the question of skill scarcely arises, with the result that there is no bad work. Punctuality and discipline are also of less importance than in big textile concerns.

5. Under the English Truck Acts all contracts in regard to fines, bad work, damage, use of machinery, light, etc., are required to contain in expressed words the limitation imposed by statute that the deduction or payment is to be "fair and reasonable, having regard to all the circumstances of the case." Contracts also in regard to bad work or damage must also contain the limitation that the deduction or payment shall not exceed the actual or estimated loss to the employer. The information which has already been supplied is sufficient to show that the stipulation "fair and reasonable having regard to all the circumstances of the case" is in practice accepted so far as the large industries in this Presidency are concerned. With regard to the limitation of the fine to the actual or estimated loss to the employer there is, and can be, no attempt in this country at recovering loss due to bad workmanship. When a weaver is fined, say 4 annas, for injury to material, in all probability the cost of the injury to the employer is from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20.



Moreover, in the case of jute mills, consistently bad work turned out by a mill may mean the relegation of the mill to a lower grade by the buyers with consequent general lower prices. One recent case has been quoted in which bad work of this kind has meant a loss of Rs. 3,000 per month to the mill for a full year. Similarly, in engineering works the proportion which the fine bears to the loss in tools or material incurred by the employer is infinitesimal.

6. Generally speaking, it may be said that the fining system is more distasteful to employers than it is to employees. It is obviously in the interest of the employer to have good work done by his employees, to have good discipline in his factory, and also to have good timekeeping. Were fining carried on to an irksome extent it would undoubtedly be reflected in the causes of strikes. An analysis of the strikes recorded in this province from 1920 to 1926 shows only a few cases in which fines have been an ostensible cause of workers going on strikes. This deserves more than a passing note because in the jute-mill industry the quality of the product depends very largely on the quality of the yarn. In a small number of cases, strikes have been occasioned by the imposition of fines due to bad work which was set down by the employees as the result of bad yarn, and which, in some cases, ultimately led to an enquiry into the quality of the yarn used by the weavers. Normally, it is the duty of the supervising staff of the mill, in the interest of the mill itself, to see that the yarn supplied is sufficiently good for the fabric to be woven, so that the likelihood of fines being imposed in big proportions for bad work owing to bad yarn is very small. It has been reported, too, that employers have attempted to eradicate possible abuses which the fining system may give rise to by making a rule that only European supervisors may impose the fines. In cases it has been noted that where a *sirdar* is fined for bad supervision he is liable to pass the tax on to his subordinates. It is always difficult to detect such impositions, but in some mills it is noted the management have encouraged the employees to report direct to them any grievances which they may have arising from this cause. Some managers, it is also reported, have tried suspension, especially in the case of old employees, for breaches of discipline or bad work, but it is doubtful whether suspension is preferred as a penalty to fining.

7. With regard to the introduction of legislation on this subject, I am to say that, after considering the information at his disposal and the views which have been expressed, both by the commercial and labour interests concerned, the Governor in Council is of opinion that it is not necessary at the present time to undertake any legislation of a Truck character at all. The views of the commercial interests are summed up in the following paragraph submitted by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce :—

"It is the considered opinion of the Committee of the Chamber that no legislation of any kind is necessary in connection with the system of fining. They would, indeed, be most strongly opposed to an Act having for its object the total abolition of the system. Nor do they believe that any good purpose would be served by attempting to regulate the practice by legislation. But if the Government of India decide, nevertheless, to legislate, they suggest that the scope of the Act should not extend beyond factories and mines; and that Inspectors of Factories and Inspectors of Mines should enforce its provisions. They are unable to outline what the provisions of the Act should be. But they think that, as was suggested by the English Truck Committee, it might provide that the maximum fine, or accumulation of fines, permissible, should not exceed a certain percentage of the wages of the worker. This proposal is supported by the Indian Jute Mills Association, and it appears to the Committee of the Chamber to be reasonable. They also agree with the Association's recommendation that a notice of fines imposed should be posted in a prominent place in the mill or factory, so as to be readily accessible to the workers. It is also their opinion that fines ought not to be a source of profit to employers, and that they ought not to aggregate such a sum as to be in any way a recovery of the cost of the damage caused by a careless, or inattentive, worker."

From this it will be seen that although the Chamber oppose the introduction of legislation, they are not altogether averse from a general provision to the effect that fines should be limited to a certain percentage of the wages of the worker. Mr. K. C. Ray Chaudhuri is more emphatic than the Bengal Chamber of Commerce. He says:—

"Abolition of fines will not, however, mend matters, and, on the contrary will lead to suspension or dismissal of hands and provide handles to unscrupulous *sirdars* to recruit substitutes and make money. It should be borne in mind that with the exception of certain months, the supply of jute labour exceeds demand. Several hungry applicants hang outside the mill gate for jobs, and the *sirdars* are in the habit of selling jobs to the highest bidder.

"Any Act on the lines of the British Truck Act is out of the question at the present time, as workers are mostly illiterate and are hardly affected by printed notices or written contracts."

8. The experience of the Factory Inspection Department leads to the same conclusion. Indeed, the parallel provisions of the English Truck Acts are in practice observed in this province at the present time. The fines are fair and reasonable, having regard to all the circumstances of the case, and the workmen are personally aware of the system before they enter employment. Fines are rarely imposed on children, *i. e.*, up to 15 years of age, and fines do not exceed 5 per cent. of the employees wages for the month. In some cases also fines are credited to a fund administered solely for the benefit of the workers. On the whole, therefore, there seems to be no case for undertaking legislation at the present moment, even of the general character which would only prescribe a percentage of wages beyond which fines should not go.

The framing of a law to this general effect would, so far as Bengal is concerned, only legalize what is at present the practice. It would, however, materially add to the work of the factories and mines inspection staff, and His Excellency in Council does not look with favour on the addition to the duties of these departments of functions which would not materially benefit the labouring classes. At the present stage of development, the attention of these departments is required for the enforcement of the more vital principles enshrined in the factories and mines legislation. The existing system, moreover, contains in itself the necessary checks against abuse and, in the limited scope in which it is carried on, is suitable to the type of labour, and its organization, employed in this Presidency."

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 572-Com./XL-2, dated the 12th March, 1927.*

The Jharia coalfield constitutes the most important industrial area in Bihar and Orissa. The Chief Inspector of Mines reports that, so far as his information goes (and the same opinion is corroborated by the inspectors subordinate to him), the imposition of fines is not prevalent in the coalfields. When fines are imposed, they are ordinarily a punishment for breaches of discipline. In cases in which it is evident that workmen have broken statutory rules and there is insufficient evidence to support a prosecution in the courts, the Mines Department tacitly acquiesces in the imposition of fines by the employer, and the Chief Inspector states that in such cases it is customary for the employer to credit the fine to some charitable institution, and to send the receipt to the Inspector. The Chief Inspector of Mines observes that owing to the difficulty of retaining labour, mines managers are reluctant to impose fines which might result in the workmen concerned, and other workmen belonging to the same group or coming from the same village, leaving their employment and going elsewhere. Before replying, the Additional Deputy Commissioner of Dhanbad (in the centre of the Jharia coalfield) referred the subject to the Indian Mining Association, the Indian Mining Federation and the Colliery Managers' Association. All these three associations deny that there is any regular or extensive system of fines in the coalfields, applying either to the workmen engaged by the colliery companies or to the labour brought in by the contractors, though occasional deductions from wages are made for bad work or injury to property. The Additional Deputy Commissioner, Mr. Hoernle, who possesses considerable personal experience of conditions in the coalfields, considers that the statements made by these associations fairly represent the facts. Labour employed in the mines is in a strong position, and would be able to contest any excessive or unjustified fining.

2. Outside the coalfields, the chief industrial establishments are the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur, the Peninsula Tobacco factory at Monghyr and the workshops of the East Indian Railway at Jamalpur. The Tata Iron and Steel Company report that, in their works, fines are inflicted only for culpable negligence in the loss of or damage to property, or for the loss of the nickel or bronze tokens which are issued for purposes of identification. Further, they observe that in a manifesto issued some little time ago by the Jamshedpur Labour Committee (of which copies were sent to all members of the Legislative Assembly), no reference of any kind was made to fines or stoppages of pay, though every possible grievance was brought out and ventilated. The general manager of the company adds that if the management were deprived of this simple means of maintaining discipline, they would have no alternative but to resort more freely to the dismissal of unsatisfactory workmen. The Deputy Commissioner of Singhbhum corroborates the statement made by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and expresses his opinion that the imposition of fines is not abused by employers either in mines or factories in that district.

The Peninsular Tobacco Company at Monghyr has no regular system of fines, though fines are occasionally imposed.

In the workshops of the East Indian Railway at Jamalpur, there is a more or less recognized scale of fines for certain minor offences; for instance, smoking or sleeping in the works, washing at the hydrants, failure to produce train passes, going out without tickets, committing nuisance, etc., is punished by a fine of one day's pay, rising to Rs. 2 according to the gravity of the offence, while loitering in the workshops may be punished with a fine of two days' pay rising to discharge or dismissal. Government understand that the fines that are realized are credited to special funds maintained for the benefit of the workmen, and spent either on entertainment or for helping deserving workmen and their families.

The reports received from other districts all indicate that the imposition of fines is not carried to excess, and is not abused.

3. Local official opinion is almost unanimously opposed to any special legislation being undertaken. In agreement with the Commissioners of each of the five divisions of the province, the local Government are of opinion that, the statutory prohibition of fines is not desirable, and would have unfortunate results for the workmen themselves, while so far as conditions in this province are concerned, no special legislative measures of any kind are required to remedy or prevent abuses in the imposition of fines.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 302-V.-26, dated the 2nd March, 1927.*

There are at present no provisions of law in Burma either empowering employers to fine their workmen or prohibiting them from doing so. The matter is therefore one purely of civil contract between the employer and the workmen. Enquiries made by the local Government show that infliction of fines upon workmen in this province does not amount to an abuse which calls for legislation. It appears to the local Government that whatever may be the case in Bombay and in other provinces where textile industries are of importance, the problem of the unjust or oppressive employer is not one which calls for attention in this province in its present state of development. This is probably due to the peculiar circumstances of industry in Burma, and in particular to the fact that labour, most of which has to come from other provinces, is in great demand, and will not come to Burma unless it receives fair treatment. The treatment of certain immigrant coolies by maistries through whom they are employed, is a matter to which the attention of the local Government has, from time to time, been directed, but this cannot be dealt with in legislation affecting the relations between the employer and the workmen in industrial concerns, and is therefore outside the scope of this enquiry.

2. With a view to ascertaining to what extent the practice of fining workmen is prevalent in Burma, particulars have been obtained of fines inflicted in certain industrial establishments. The results of the enquiry have been tabulated in the statement\* attached to this letter. The figures are in most cases the monthly averages for the calendar year 1925, but in a few cases they are for one month only. In the case of rice mills, fines are said to be rarely, if ever, inflicted; and it is said that a warning, followed by dismissal, is the usual means of dealing with unsatisfactory work in such establishments. The statement\* shows that in most cases the percentage of employees fined is very small; and in cases where a considerable proportion of employees are fined, the average fine imposed is unlikely to constitute a serious hardship to the employees. In some cases the fines which are inflicted are credited to a hospital fund or other fund used for the benefit of the workmen. It has not been possible to obtain figures for native mills; but it is reported that fining in such mills is not excessive.

3. The Chief Inspector of Factories, who was consulted on the subject, has reported as follows:—"So far as my enquiries go, fines are inflicted for disciplinary reasons in most of the properly organized factories. It may be said that in a factory where there is proper supervision there are fines, and in the happy go lucky up country places where everyone does what seems good in his own eyes, there are no fines. In place of fines we get irregular time keeping, dirty machines, dangerous methods of work and bad maintenance of guards.

"It is a little difficult to say at times whether a deduction from a man's nominal wage is a fine or not. The usual method of payment in this country is by the month, but this implies the tacit understanding that the man turns up on each working day. If he takes a day off and 1/28th part of his monthly wage is deducted, is this deduction a fine or not? It would be easy to argue either way. A similar problem arises with piecework. Suppose it is agreed to pay a man Rs. 12 a dozen for making say bolts, and that he makes 14 of which two are defective. Is he fined if he only gets Rs. 12 for his work? It is quite certain that the employer when he engaged the man had no intention of paying him for making bad bolts. He offered him the Rs. 12 for making 12 good bolts.

"I mention the above cases to show the difficulty of determining when is a fine not a fine, and the abundant literature on the Truck Acts indicates the similar difficulty of determining when a deduction is not a deduction.

"The Officer in Charge of Labour Statistics is putting up a statistical note which he has compiled from returns received from factory managers, but in view of the preceding paragraphs it is possible that some of his fines or deductions may not really be fines or deductions. Still, even so, I think his statements, which I have been permitted to see, indicate that fines and deductions are not an abuse in this country.

"In some cases at least (Burma Oil Company and Burma Railways) fines are credited to the hospital or to the Workmen's Institute, but generally I think firms, copying the example of Government, do not expend fines on any eleemosynary objects.

"My enquiries show that it is fairly common, particularly in printing presses, to dock a man two days' pay for one day's absence. This is not, I think, unreasonable, as it means that a costly machine lies idle while the man is away.

"Small fines for lateness, loss of tools, etc., are fairly common, but I have not come across any cases in which excessive deductions are made. In the small up country mills the feeling between the manager and the workmen is often such as to render any question of fines quite out of place. I know cases when the manager during the off season pays his old workmen if they are unable to obtain other work, and no attempt is made to recover these payments when the mill starts work again.

"I have no information on the subject of deductions made by maistries from their coolies, but there is some reason to believe that these are sometimes excessive. I do not see how the system can be stopped or the administrative machinery by which it could be regulated, without causing serious disturbance to the present system of employing coolies through a maistry.

"While I consider that there is at present no necessity for any legislation on the subject of fines and deductions, I do not think it would be impossible to draft an Act which should prevent fines or deductions ever becoming an abuse in the case of men paid directly by a factory or mine. It would be necessary to define what is meant by a workman's wages, to prohibit any deduction from those wages unless made in accordance with a notice of fines (which might perhaps have to be approved by an inspector) to require that a register showing particulars of all fines inflicted should be maintained and that the total fines inflicted on each individual should be shown in the wages sheet.

"The undoubted difficulty is to define what is meant by wages, and I should much prefer to criticize other peoples' definitions than to make a definition myself."

The local Government is in general agreement with the views expressed by the Chief Inspector.

4. As already stated, the local Government does not consider that there is any necessity at present for legislation on the subject in this province. That being so, it is hardly possible for the local Government to consult the interests concerned as to their attitude with regard to any legislation on the subject which may be proposed. His Excellency in Council considers that the only course is to frame legislation to suit conditions in those provinces where legislation is required. If this were done, the local Government could examine the proposals, in order to determine whether they might be adopted without inconvenience in this province. The local Government agrees with the Chief Inspector of Factories that it should be possible to draft an Act which would prevent fines or deductions becoming an abuse, at any rate, so far as factories and mines are concerned; and it is possible that such an Act might be put in force in this province without inconvenience. This is, however, a matter upon which the local Government would prefer not to express a definite opinion until legislation has been framed and is under consideration.

*Office Memorandum from Railway Department (Railway Board), No. 4414-E., dated the 6th April, 1927.*

The undersigned is directed to forward herewith a summary\* of the views expressed by agents of railways, and to state that the Railway Board support the almost unanimous opinion of the agents that the system of fining cannot be altogether dispensed with on the railways, which have to deal with a very large number of illiterate employees. It is also pointed out that there are checks against any abuse of the system as persons fined can appeal to higher authorities. Legislation to prevent abuses is not therefore necessary so far as railways are concerned. Fines realized are not credited to the railway revenues, but are taken to a fine fund, which is utilized entirely for the benefit of the employees.

\* Not printed.

*Letter from the Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, No. H.Q.-10/60, dated the 8/9th April, 1927.*

The following fines are imposed on the employees of Government of India Presses :—(1) Fine for absence without leave ; (2) fine for making pye ; (3) fine for late attendance ; (4) fine for neglect of duty ; (5) fine for bad work ; (6) fine for disobedience or breach of discipline.

2. Fines under (1), (3) and (6) are credited to the fine funds constituted in the presses, while pye fines and special fines for bad or careless work, entailing direct loss or extra expenditure to the employer are rightly credited to Government.

3. The system of fining in Government Presses has not assumed such a proportion as would constitute it an evil, neither does it inflict unnecessary hardship on the employees. The figures in paragraph 5 below show the total amount realized over the whole year in fines is less than 2,000 on 6½ lakhs paid in wages (supervising staff excluded).

4. The fine fund was introduced by the Government of India in 1920, and the question of fines came under review of the Piece-workers Committee in 1922. Their recommendation reads :—

“ Provided that the system of fines at present in force is worked in the existing lenient manner, we cannot advise that the Press authorities should be deprived of this method of maintaining discipline. We must add that the money received by fines is not credited to Government. The proceeds from fines are being funded with the object of creating a compassionate fund for the benefit of Press employees and their families.”

5. That the system of fines is administered more leniently, as far as the Calcutta Press is concerned, than it was when the above was written, the following figures will show :—

	1922.		1926.	
	Credited to Government. Rs.	Credited to Fine Fund. Rs.	Credited to Government. Rs.	Credited to Fine Fund. Rs.
	1,316	2,580	881	1,093
Total ..	3,896		1,974	

There are over 1,000 men employed in the Calcutta Press so that the total amount of the fines inflicted in 1926 works out on the average to less than Rs. 2 per head for the whole year, of which a sum in excess of Re. 1 per head was returned to the men by way of the fine fund for the purpose of immediate relief in cases of distress amongst the employees and their families.

6. The effect of abolishing fines in the Government of India Presses would be to encourage, especially under the piece system, careless and inefficient work with consequent substantial loss to Government. I am, therefore, not in favour of total abolition.

7. In the Calcutta and Simla Presses during the periods when they were under my charge, every recommendation for a fine came under the review of the manager, and as he only sanctioned the fine and fixed the amount, no man was actually fined until it was found that several warnings were ineffective, with the consequent reduction in the amount realized by fines.

8. In the Government of India Presses the men have an additional safeguard against hardship in the infliction of fines or unnecessary fining by the management, inasmuch as they have the right of appeal to the Controller and to the Government of India. Any grievance or injustice inflicted can also be brought to notice and discussed in the works committee. It may be asserted, therefore, that the Government Press employee is sufficiently protected from abuse of the system of fining by the conditions of his employment and by the rules, etc., already in force.

*Letter from the Controller of the Currency, No. Cy.-508, dated the 16th March, 1927.*

I have the honour to state that so far as the departments under my control are concerned, fines are in most cases levied on well-defined and automatic principles and are not therefore, liable to abuse. In Currency Offices, fines are imposed in accordance with Articles 40, 131 and 145 of the Currency Code for bad and negligent work. The men affected are literate and most of them are members of associations recognized by Government and can ventilate their grievances through those bodies. As regards Mints, fines are inflicted mainly for late attendance, and to a small extent for bad work, breach of rules, etc., under rules laid down in Mint Codes or standing orders which are known to the men.

2. In practice very few fines are imposed, and no complaints have been received so far in individual cases. The men have the right of appeal to Deputy Controllers of the Currency or Mint Masters, as the case may be, or even to the Controller of the Currency. For routine and mechanical work like that of currency offices and mints, fines have a salutary effect and act as a deterrent to careless work, breach of discipline, etc. In the mints especially, which have a short working day, it is necessary to ensure punctuality which can best be done by imposing a penalty in the shape of a fine for being late.

3. The employees themselves prefer this form of punishment to the more drastic alternative of a postponement of increment.

4. For these reasons I am not in favour of abolishing fines, and I do not consider that any special measures are necessary to remedy abuses of the system so far as the departments under my control are concerned.

*Office Memorandum from the Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, C. No. 77-Gl./27, dated the 17th March, 1927.*

The Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, is directed to forward a copy of each of the letters noted below, which furnish the information required, regarding the levy of fines on workmen, etc., in (certain) departments under the administrative control of the Board. The Board considers that the present system of imposing fines should continue, and that so far as Government employees are concerned no legislation to regulate it is necessary.

(1) Letter from the Master, Security Printing, India, No. 52/27-4703, dated 16th February, 1927.

(2) Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Bombay, No. 105-28/26, dated the 18th February, 1927.

(3) Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras, No. D.-357-Salt/27, dated 7th March, 1927.

(4) Letter from the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue Department, No. 54-Gl./27, dated the 15th March, 1927.

*Letter from the Master, Security Printing, India, to the Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, No. 52/27-4703, dated the 16th February, 1927.*

I have the honour to inform you that no general system of imposing fines on labour exists in Security Printing. In one section, that of postcard counting, where the counters are paid by piece-work per tray (5 reams) of cards, a system is in force whereby a mistake detected in the counting of a tray cancels the payment due for it. This, however, can scarcely be termed a fine, as it merely means that the worker is only paid for accurate counting.

2. In rare cases, fines are imposed under my orders for careless mistakes made in the checking, etc., of other products where the introduction of piece-work is not possible. In one (or two) cases also, employees have been fined in order to make good the value of products found to be deficient.

3. I am strongly of opinion that the practice should continue, the only alternative punishments in such cases being reduction in pay or dismissal. I also consider that no regulation by law is necessary or desirable.

*Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Bombay, No. 105-28/26, dated the 18th February, 1927.*

I have the honour to state that the system of imposing fines on labour does not prevail in the Bombay Salt Department. At the Government salt works at Khara-goda and Dharasna and Chharvada, the agarias receive wages at a certain fixed price per maund of salt produced by them and delivered or sold. No deduction is made therefrom.

*Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras, D. No. 357-Salt of 1927, dated the 7th March, 1927.*

The system of imposing fines exists in this department only to a limited extent. Fines are inflicted on permanent petty officers and peons, whose pay ranges from Rs. 12 to Rs. 25 per mensem, up to a maximum of Rs. 3, according to the rules laid down in paragraph 792, Salt Manual, Volume II, for breaches of discipline, when black marks are ineffective. Temporary peons and platform coolies of factories are also fined small amounts for similar offences, as the black mark rules do not apply to them being daily labourers. Workmen of the Madras Depot Workshop (mechanics

and coolies) in number about 20, are also occasionally fined both for slack work and breaches of discipline. The total amount of fines realized from 1st April, 1926, up to date in the Madras Depot Workshop is only Rs. 5. The local officers report that the 5 per cent. limit of pay suggested by the English Truck Committee of 1906-08 has rarely been exceeded.

There is little fear of abuse of the system of fining for the following reasons:— Firstly, the maximum amount of fines has been fixed, and those who are so punished have the right of appeal to a higher authority. Secondly, the power to inflict fines is only vested in gazetted officers who can be trusted to use the power with wise discretion. Finally, orders have recently been issued to substitute extra fatigue duty instead of fines for petty offences as far as possible. In these circumstances I do not consider that there is any necessity to abolish the system.

*Letter from the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, No. 54-G1/27, dated the 15th March, 1927.*

I have the honour to report that in the Salt Range Division of this Department a system of imposing fines on labour prevails, regulated in the case of persons other than Government servants or daily labourers by Rules 18 and 21 of the Mining Rules, which run as follows:—

“The manager (assistant commissioner) of a mine or quarry may punish any person (other than a daily labourer) employed in such mine or quarry above or below ground and not being a Government servant against whom any breach of these rules or of any standing orders or any carelessness or misconduct in connection with his work may be established with—(a) a fine not exceeding Rs. 5 for every such offence, (b) (other alternative follow).

Under Rule 19 an appeal lies to the general manager. Rule 21 runs:—

“The general manager of salt mines may punish any miner or other person not being a Government servant employed in or in connection with any mine or quarry in the division for misconduct, breach of any of these rules or disobedience of lawful authority by a fine which may amount to Rs. 50 or by removal or dismissal from employment.”

Under Rule 22 an appeal lies to the Commissioner.

2. I attach a copy of a note\* by the General Manager, Khewra, on the working of the system. Fines at Khewra and Warcha average Rs. 75 a month or about 0.84 per cent. on the wage bill, are credited to a divisional “fine and pension fund” and utilized with the advice of the miners’ committee on relieving distress among widows and orphans, men incapacitated from work by accident or old age, etc. Under the Rules for the Management of the Salt Range Division Fine and Pension Fund levied (without specific rules in regard to this levy) from a long list of employees on construction and upkeep, carriage of salt, mine inspection and sanitation and in the depot, are also credited to the fund, in the benefits of which they share.

3. There are no specific orders regarding fines on classes of labour other than those mentioned in the mining rules and the notes received from the various divisions are incomplete in their information, while no time remains in which to have the gaps supplied.

4. The Departmental Manual contains rules empowering the various grades of officers to fine for misconduct the inferior permanent establishment subordinate to them—general managers and assistant commissioners up to a limit of Rs. 5 for any one offence, superintendents up to Rs. 2, and inspectors up to Re. 1, and I understand from Mr. Reid that in Khewra, the assistant commissioner, mine, and the engineer, fine by analogy the labour under them up to a limit of Rs. 5, and the superintendent depot, up to a limit of Rs. 2. In Rajputana, most works are done by contract and the occasions for fining labour are few. In the Sambhar Workshop, fines are imposed for neglect of duty, loss of or damage (other than accidental) to tools, etc., apparently on the same scale as in Khewra.

5. No contracts are made with labourers and no maximum fine or accumulation of fines is prescribed.

6. So far as this department is concerned, I would on no account abolish fines. All that seems required is by executive order to define exactly in the case of labour other than that covered by the mining rules, the officers who may fine with the limit of their powers, the employees whom they may fine, the faults for which fine may be awarded and the maximum fine permissible in a given period. Except in Khewra, where conditions permit of this, it appears impossible to arrange for the utilization of fines for the benefit of the workers.

*Letter from the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, No. 79-G.127, dated the 22nd April, 1927.*

The deductions in respect of fines for breaches of discipline are regulated by well defined rules which fulfil the provisions of the Truck Acts. According to these rules the following are exempt from fines :—(a) all postal officials who do purely clerical work ; (b) those postal operatives who have passed the second efficiency bar in the clerical time-scale ; (c) telegraph officials of the ministerial establishment ; (d) those drawing Rs. 100 and upwards.

2. In other cases, the rules authorize the imposition of fines only in cases of perverse or repeated neglect. Each case is required to be carefully considered, and any attempt at abuse of the power is discouraged. Every order of punishment (including fine) has invariably to be in writing after the explanation of the official has been obtained on a written memorandum of charges. A statement of punishment (including fines) is submitted monthly to the Head of the Circle, who is thus in a position to check any tendency on the part of his officers to abuse the power of inflicting fines. The staff have the right of appeal to higher authority, and are consequently well protected against harsh or unjust treatment. Lastly, fines are limited on the postal side to a week's pay in a month, or roughly speaking, 25 per cent. of the monthly earnings of a worker, and on the telegraph side to 10 per cent. Incidentally, I propose to look into this difference of practice in the postal and the telegraph branches.

3. The efficacy of the safeguards provided against abuse is apparent from the figures for the last year. The total number of postal operatives serving in Calcutta during the past year numbered some 2,700, exclusive of the staff employed in the Calcutta Sorting Division. Their annual earnings in wages amounted to above Rs. 20,63,000. The amount of fines imposed and realized from these earnings was only Rs. 323-10 annas. The recovery works out at less than 2 annas a head per annum. In the case of the Calcutta Sorting Division the relative figures are—wages Rs. 4,76,000, fines Rs. 12-8 annas, and the incidence 1/3rd anna per head per annum.

4. I feel rather sceptical about the view that discipline can best be maintained by "adequate supervision" and "moral control" with the "alternative of dismissal as the last resort." Adequate supervision is rather a vague expression, moral control cannot always be exercised, while dismissal is far too drastic. Some form of coercion is necessary to make the employee work diligently. It is the day to day pressure that counts. Where officials are in the enjoyment of a time-scale of pay, stoppage of increment for varying periods according to the circumstances of the case is often a good substitute for fining. This course has the additional advantage of restricting the pay of the defaulter to his worth. But for low paid employees generally, I consider that *with proper safeguards*, the system of fining for disciplinary purposes is a very suitable form of punishment. The workers themselves, I believe, prefer small occasional fines to stoppage of increment, degradation or dismissal.

5. The second form of deduction from wages as classified by the English law presents a far more serious and perplexing problem. An employer who sustains loss by the bad or negligent work of his employee naturally seeks to take, and feels justified in taking, such a measure against the delinquent as will not only act as a strong deterrent, but also yield to him some recompense for the loss. It is difficult to persuade an employer to treat such loss as an ordinary breach of discipline.

6. So far as this department is concerned, the loss or damage caused to Government due to bad or negligent work, arises chiefly out of the loss or theft of insured articles, short realization on account of value payable charges and customs duties, mispayment of telegraphic money orders, refund of the cost of telegrams, etc. In all these cases when dealing with the individual to blame for the loss, his capacity to pay is taken into account. Every official who joins this department, and who is expected to handle cash, is required to furnish a security bond in which it is clearly laid down that he is required to make good up to a certain amount any losses that may occur as a result of his neglect, default, omission, dishonesty or disobedience. The employees are thus fully aware of the system on which such deductions are based in this department, and the provisions of the Truck Acts in this respect are observed.

7. Nevertheless, heavy recoveries to the full extent of the loss sustained are not infrequently ordered, which are not always either fair or reasonable. For example, an act or omission involving the same degree of negligence or disobedience of the same rule may result in the loss of an insured letter for Rs. 100 or for Rs. 1,000 ; yet in actual practice the officials concerned in the two cases have to make good Rs. 100 and Rs. 1,000 respectively. On the other hand, if this principle is departed from and recoveries are made proportionate to the degree of negligence involved, which is in itself a very baffling equation, there is always the danger that losses may be very heavy, and the department would have no remedy except to dismiss the official. The officials themselves more often prefer to make good the loss, heavy though it may be, than be removed from the service.



8. It has been suggested that recovery in such a case should be limited to the maximum of the security given by the official at fault. I propose to pursue this suggestion specially in respect of insured articles, where the loss is covered by the insurance fees.

9. The third form of deduction from wages does not enter into the question so far as my Department is concerned, as all equipment for work is provided free.

*Letter from the Government of United Provinces, No. 815, dated the 9th May, 1927.*

This Government has consulted the two Chambers of Commerce, the Mazdur Sabha of Cawnpore, the Director and the Board of Industries, the Chief Inspector of Factories and representative employers of industrial labour of various kinds in different localities. The opinions received are divided. Some of the more important views are summarized below.

2. The Upper India Chamber strongly protest against the volume of factory legislation, and what they describe as an increasing tendency on the part of the Government of India to improve the conditions and class-power of labour at the expense of the employer. They state that the system of inflicting fines upon workmen is common in factories, as it is in every other sphere of life where it is necessary to punish an employee with something more than an admonition or censure, and something less than suspension or dismissal. They deny that an employer levying a fine acts both as prosecutor and judge. In most factories the fine is said to be leviable only by somebody in authority upon due complaint and proof, and the prosecuting individual is not the judge. They admit that workmen in this country are ignorant and without the protection of labour unions. But these factors, they affirm, tell against the employer more than against the workman. Owing to ignorance, the workman takes no pride in his work, and does as little as he can. His ignorance and inadaptability cause loss to the employer in tools, machinery and material, and make it necessary for his employer to adopt methods in dealing with him which will seldom be necessary in most other countries. All the manufacturing members of the Chamber agree that the abolition of the system of levying fines, when deserved, is impossible.

3. The Chamber state that many factories already regulate the imposition of fines, and that the maximum number of persons fined is not greater than three per cent. of those employed. They classify fines as follows:—(a) *Disciplinary*—inflicted for disobedience of orders, lateness or absence, uncleanness or breach of sanitary rules, and quarrelling or fighting; (b) *Compensatory*—viz., deductions for damage done to tools, machinery and material. These deductions amount, perhaps, it is said, to four annas per hundred rupees of the wages earned, except in some textile mills, where the practice has been introduced recently of making the weaver buy the cloth he spoils. Such cases are claimed not to exceed 1 per cent. of the men employed nor to represent more than 10 per cent. of the offender's earnings.

Disciplinary fines and sometimes even compensatory deductions are said to be usually credited to a fund for the benefit of the workmen, e.g., for recreation or medical attendance.

4. The Chamber protest against the suggestion that the restriction of fines, if enforced, may have to be confined to factories and mines where the presence of Government inspectors will make enforcement possible. They say that if legislation is decided on, the Government should set the example by controlling fines in their own departments and on the railways and in municipal offices. They also argue that in India, where the supply of factory labour falls short of the demand, an employer cannot afford to substitute dismissal for fining.

5. The United Provinces Chamber consider that the system of fining is worked in this province "with great discrimination and moderation." An employer resorts to fines as a deterrent and not as a source of profit to himself. The Chamber also consider that the workman's ignorance, inefficiency and defective sense of responsibility furnish an additional reason for maintaining the system of fines. They, too, are opposed to legislation.

6. The Mazdur Sabha of Cawnpore, on the other hand, strongly favours legislation. It is unable to make any definite suggestions, except that fines in respect of damaged work must be stopped, and damage to work should be treated as a breach of discipline. It would also limit the fines which can be imposed in a definite period. I am to point out, however, that this Sabha is as yet hardly representative of the labouring class of this province generally.

7. The Industrial and Trade Association of Benares advocate that the power of fining workmen for negligent work should not be withdrawn, but advise that fines should go towards the workmen's welfare.

8. The Chairman of the Cawnpore Improvement Trust (Rai Bahadur Babu Anand Sarup, a well-known public man) believes that the practice of fining is generally abused by employers (barring a few honourable exceptions like the Muir Mills) and results in much hardship to the workmen. He considers that though it is neither possible nor desirable to abolish fines, as some check on indolence, indiscipline and bad work is necessary, there is a clear necessity to regulate them.

9. The inquiries made by this Government show that the practice of fining workmen is general in this province. It takes the following forms:—(a) *Disciplinary fines*—for disobedience of orders, being late or absent, breach of sanitary rules, disorderly conduct, etc.; (b) *Compensatory deductions*—for damage to goods, machinery or tools; (c) *Compulsory purchase* by a weaver of cloth spoiled by him. It is reported by the Chief Inspector of Factories that the percentage of workmen affected varies from one to twenty, and the price paid from 5 to 10 per cent. of the wages earned. He adds that he has received no complaints on this score, and the workmen prefer taking the cloth to being fined or dismissed.

10. There is no indication, however, that the practice is abused, except perhaps by some of the smaller manufacturers whose employees are not villagers (e.g., the wire workers of Benares and the metal workers of Moradabad). No complaints have come to the notice of the Government that workmen employed by the larger mills—to whom admittedly legislation would have to be confined, at least in the first instance—are unjustly treated. If there had been any serious abuse it would have certainly come to the notice of the Government in connection with the strikes that have from time to time occurred. Moreover, in a province like the United Province, where most of the factory hands are drawn from the agricultural classes, the problem of the larger employer has always been to get and to keep his labour, and this operates as an effective check on any tendency to excessive or unjust fines. Further, most of the larger firms, at any rate, do not make any profit out of the fines, but employ them for the benefit of the operatives themselves in various ways.

11. The Governor in Council sees little or no evidence that industrial operatives in the larger factories of the United Provinces are fined harshly. He knows of no good reason for recommending that the employer should be legally debarred from fining undisciplined or defaulting or destructive workers (who often earn Rs. 30 a month) more than Rs. 1-8 annas per month. He has received no complaints from the workmen, and thinks that the time is not ripe and no real necessity exists in this province for any legislative action. Moreover, the Indian Trade Unions Act, which will come into force on 1st June, 1927, will stiffen the attitude of the employees, and make it still more difficult to treat them unfairly. If the Government of India nevertheless decide to legislate, they will, it is hoped, give provincial Governments the power to determine what provisions of the new law should be applied to their provinces.

*Office Memorandum from the Army Department, No. 33812/2 (A.D.), dated the 8th June, 1927.*

The undersigned is directed to forward the undermentioned copies of correspondence \* which show the present rules and practice as regards the imposition of fines on workmen, etc., employed in the various ancillary services of the Army in India. On an examination of these papers the Army Department have come to the conclusion that, so far as they are concerned, there are no abuses which need to be checked, and that no executive or legislative action is therefore necessary from their point of view.

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, General Department, No. 5773/D., dated the 29th September, 1927.*

I am directed to forward (1) a copy of a \* Report on an Enquiry into Fines conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay; (2) \* copies of the replies received from officers and interested Associations who were consulted on the question and (3) a detailed \* summary of those replies classified according to the points treated together with the views of the Bombay Labour Office.

2. A summary of the results of the Enquiry was forwarded with relevant papers to 25 officers and interested associations in the Bombay Presidency for opinions on the various questions raised in your letter under reply, and on the points arising out of the enquiry. An examination of the replies received shows that all Employers' Associations are of opinion that no legislative action for the control of fines

is necessary. The majority of the Employers' Associations have confined themselves to the expression of the opinion that the results of the Labour Office Enquiry do not show that the conditions are such as would justify legislative action. Representatives of labour, on the other hand, are of opinion that the results of the Enquiry show that legislative action is necessary. The Bombay European Textile Association, which is composed of European mill managers and European textile departmental masters, does not give a definite opinion on the question of the necessity of legislation though it seems to imply that legislation is necessary. The agent of the G.I.P. Railway has forwarded his views direct to the Railway Board. The agent of the B., B. and C.I. Railway does not consider legislative action necessary in the case of railways. The Commissioner, Bombay Municipality, and Chief Officer, Bombay Improvement Trust, favour legislation. The Karachi Chamber of Commerce qualifies its disapproval of legislative action by recommending that, under the rules of the Factories Act, it should be made compulsory for all factories to keep a record of fines with the reasons for their infliction, and an account of the disposal of the money so collected, which should be available for inspection by factory inspectors.

3. The Officer-in-Charge of the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay is not in favour of the abolition of fines, but considers that legislative action for the control of fines is desirable. The Governor in Council is in general agreement with the views of the Labour Office, and considers that legislation may be necessary on the following points:—(1) Extent to which fines may be inflicted; (2) Disposal of fines; (3) Power to fine; (4) Maintenance of Registers of fines; (5) Fines for bad and negligent work; (6) Fines for breaches of discipline; (7) Withholding of wages; (8) Forfeiture of wages; (9) Compulsory purchase of damaged material; (10) The "Double Khada" rule; (11) Deductions for supply of medicines and medical attendance; (12) Deductions for the use of reading rooms and libraries; (13) Deductions for education; (14) Deductions for compulsory contributions to charity; (15) The Havala system; (16) Conditions under which fines may be inflicted; (17) Supply of particulars to workers who are fined; (18) Suspension and (19) Dismissal.

*Views of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence (Labour Office),  
Government of Bombay.*

*Principle of Fines.*—The evidence submitted to the Truck Committee shows that it is not possible to abolish fining in all classes of industries, and that it is possible only in concerns where the workers possess a high level of education and where the labour turnover is not high. In Indian industry the workers are illiterate and migratory in character and it does not, therefore, seem possible to abolish fines. Besides, it is important that a certain amount of latitude should be left to the employer as regards the method of maintaining discipline and efficiency. If fines are abolished, suspensions and dismissals would be the only punishments left and they may be quite unsuitable in cases of offences of a minor character. It is recommended, therefore, that the law should not prohibit fines but only aim at their regulation and control.

*Fines for Breaches of Discipline.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that in those establishments which supplied correctly classified information the incidence of fining for breaches of discipline worked out at 4 annas and 7 pies per offence for men, and at 2 annas and 11 pies per offence for women, in 45 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency; and at 12 annas and 5 pies per offence for men in 25 factories other than textile mills. These figures for purely disciplinary fines, especially in the case of factories other than textile mills, appear rather high when compared with the incidence of fines given in the evidence submitted before the Truck Committee. The evidence collected by the investigators of the Labour Office by personal investigations shows that there have been several cases where unreasonable deductions in respect of fines for offences classed as "breaches of discipline" have been made. In one case a worker was fined Rs. 5 for taking his brother into a weaving shed without permission, and in another case a fine of Rs. 3 was inflicted for failure to deliver a message from one officer to another regarding the former's inability to go to the latter's house in the evening. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office further showed that, with the exception of a very few cases, no lists giving the specific offences for which fines may be inflicted are to be found in the concerns which fine. In the few cases where rules have been made for fining, the rules generally provide that fines may be inflicted for "breaches of discipline," "disobedience," "insubordination," etc. These terms are much too wide and leave an unlimited amount of discretion in the hands of the officers authorized to fine. It appears necessary that employers should notify to their workmen the particular offences for which fines will be inflicted.

*Fines for Bad and Negligent Work.*—The incidence of fining for bad and negligent work in those concerns in the Bombay Presidency which supplied properly classified figures, works out at 3 annas 10 pies per offence for men, and 2 annas 8 pies per offence for women, in 45 textile mills; and at Rs. 1-10-6 pies per offence for men in 25 factories other than textile mills. The average for textile mills given above does not include the loss to the worker for the compulsory purchase of damaged cloth.

The enquiry conducted by the Labour Office did not make any attempt to ascertain the principles on which fines for bad and negligent work are inflicted. Personal investigations subsequently made into this practice have, however, revealed the existence of considerable abuses. It has been found that fines in the weaving department are inflicted without ascertaining whether the fault or damage complained of is due to the carelessness or negligence of the worker concerned or to defective machinery or faulty material. Many instances were given where workers had been penalized for material spoilt as a result of bad yarn or defective looms, and where no attempts had been made to ascertain the extent of the carelessness or negligence of the workers concerned. In the Ahmedabad mills, the duty of examining material is entrusted to cut-lookers, and in many cases, to the detectors, whose earnings depend on the amounts which they are able to collect in fines. It is obvious that apart from the question of the actual amounts of fines inflicted in individual cases, the system of inflicting fines for bad or negligent work by "detectors" without thorough investigation with regard to the placing of the responsibility for the damage complained of, must give rise not only to abuse in practice, but also to considerable injustice to the workers concerned.

In considering the question of the manner in which fines for bad or negligent work should be controlled, it is as necessary to protect the employer from careless and slipshod work as it is to safeguard the worker from unfair and unjust penalties. With regard to the quality of work which an employer has a right to demand from his workman, the employer will always have the power to warn and dismiss those workers who are habitually negligent. He can also enforce efficiency by suspension. It may be necessary for the employer in order to get good work from his employees to resort to small punishments, in the shape of fines, and it is, therefore, recommended that this right of the employer should not be interfered with provided it is exercised in a just and reasonable manner.

*Fines for Damage to or Loss of Property.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that in the 45 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency which supplied correctly classified figures for the different kinds of fines inflicted, the incidence of fines for loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer amounted to 6 annas and 1 pie in the case of men, and 3 annas and 4 pies in the case of women. In the case of the 25 factories other than textile mills which gave correctly classified information, the average incidence of fines on this account works out at Rs. 1-1-3 pies for men. Here again, no data are available with regard to the extent to which such fines are inflicted in individual cases, but during the personal investigations made by the Labour Office a few instances of unjustifiable fines were revealed. However, it appears that in cases where damage or loss results through negligence some punishment in the nature of a fine is necessary.

*Deductions for Supply of Materials and Tools.*—There are few deductions made from wages in the Bombay Presidency on account of charges for the supply of tools or materials to workers. In cases where such deductions were reported, they appeared to be on account of the supply of special tools to special workers. In the textile industry some mills require weavers to provide themselves with their own reed hooks and combs, and in cases where these are supplied by the mill, their cost is recovered in cash or by deductions from wages. The conditions governing such deductions where they exist are reported to be made known to the workers concerned prior to engagement.

If the results of the Labour Office enquiry in connection with this subject are analyzed there does not appear to be any necessity for dealing with this question in any legislation which may be provided for the control of fines and deductions.

*Deductions in respect of Rents for Housing provided by Employers.*—There is no evidence to suggest that workers are unjustly treated as regards deductions for rent for housing provided by the employer. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office with regard to welfare work in the Bombay Presidency showed that in most cases rent is charged at rates below the economic rent. As it is desirable to encourage employers to provide good housing accommodation for their employees, it is recommended that no action should be taken as regard deductions for rent.

*Deductions for Supply of Medicines and Medical Attendance.*—The majority of the employers who provide medicines and medical attendance for their employees do not charge their workers on this account. A few textile mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad did, however, report that deductions are made from wages for the supply of medicines and medical attendance. It is considered that the employers

should not be allowed to make compulsory deductions for medical attendance, as such deductions are not fair to employees not taking advantage of these facilities, and also because the worker is made to pay for something over which he has no control.

*Deductions for Supply of Food Grains.*—In most cases where deductions are made from wages on account of the supply of food grains, such deductions are for sales from the cheap grain shops attached to the establishments concerned. In the case of a few mills at Sholapur, a deduction is made from the wages in lieu of grain which is given to the worker. The market price of this grain is greater than the amount of the deduction, so the system is really to the advantage of the worker. There is no evidence to show that the system of deductions for cheap grain has anywhere led to abuse. What little evidence there is on the subject shows that the system is of great benefit to the workers, so it appears unnecessary to interfere with the practice by legislative action.

*Deductions for Supply of Water.*—Deductions for the supply of water are made only in those cases where certain castes require special facilities. Where the employer provides these he incurs the expenditure and recovers the same from the wages of his employees. If some workers are not prepared to take advantage of the normal facilities provided for all the workers, they should pay for special facilities themselves. No legislative action, therefore, appears necessary in this connection.

*Deductions for Contributions to Provident Funds.*—The Labour Office enquiry shows that deductions for provident funds are generally confined to Government organizations, public utility concerns and the larger non-factory establishments, such as the Port Trust, and are found only in very few private factories and establishments. The contributions are voluntary in the majority of concerns having provident fund schemes. Compulsory deductions are made only in a few cases. It appears, therefore, that deductions on this account do not constitute an evil which the law should try to eradicate.

*Deductions for the use of Reading Rooms and Libraries.*—It is recommended that deductions for the use of reading rooms and libraries provided by the employer should not be permitted, but the workers should be free to contribute to any fund started by themselves or the employer for the maintenance of reading rooms and libraries.

*Deductions for Education.*—It is recommended that deductions for educational facilities provided by the employer should be permitted only if such deductions form part of the contract of service.

*Deductions for Compulsory Contributions to Charity.*—Seven textile mills in the Bombay Presidency reported deductions amounting to Rs. 4,138-2-9 pies from the wages of their employees during the first ten months of the year 1926 on account of compulsory contributions for charitable purposes. Two other factories also reported similar deductions amounting to Rs. 210-15 annas during the year 1925. Although this system does not prevail to any appreciable extent in the Bombay Presidency, the fact that it exists is sufficient to merit consideration. It will be admitted that an employer has no right to compel his employers to contribute to charities of his own choosing and to make deductions from their wages for this purpose. It is recommended that compulsory deductions of this nature should not be permitted.

*Deductions for Entertainments provided by Employer.*—This subject was not included in the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office, but a few mills and factories reported deductions from wages on account of entertainments provided by the employer. Personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that in several mills, jobbers stage-manage dramatic and other performances and compel the workers to attend and force them to pay. The grievance of the workers is against these compulsory levies by the jobbers rather than against the employers. The rules of several of the mills prohibit monetary transactions among the employees and the remedy in such cases lies, therefore, in the hands of the workers, who can report such cases to the management. Cases of deduction for entertainments by employers themselves are so rare that it does not appear necessary for the law to intervene in this matter.

*Suspension.*—Suspension is practised side by side with the system of fining or as the only system of punishment where the nature of the offence committed does not justify dismissal. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office show that this form of punishment is general in Municipalities and in Government establishments. A few of the larger workshops stated that they do not inflict fines at all and only punish offenders by suspending them from work for some days. This form of punishment is also found to exist in railways, other public utility companies, and some of the larger non-factory organizations in addition to a few concerns in each of the other groups covered by the enquiry.

It may be said in favour of this form of punishment that the employer does not benefit by suspending an employee from work, except perhaps in cases where workers are suspended ostensibly for committing some offence but really because the employer

has not sufficient work for them. There is no unanimity as regards the merits or demerits of suspension. Some labour interests actually prefer it to fines. Others are of opinion that fining is preferable to suspension, because suspension not only deprives the workers of a substantial part of their earnings, but also affects them physically and morally owing to enforced idleness. In some employments, the power of suspension is considered to be essential in cases where breaches of discipline have resulted in accidents or actions endangering the lives of other employees or members of the public during the period of an enquiry into the offence. In the evidence tendered before the Truck Committee, this was stated to be particularly necessary in the case of railways, mines and hydro-electric concerns. Employers in Great Britain who have abandoned fining in their establishments are of opinion that suspension is preferable to fining for habitual offenders. Other employers state that it is not always feasible to suspend the more skilled workers because by so doing they are deprived of their services.

It seems necessary that employers should be allowed to retain the power of suspension in cases where the infliction of small fines has not had a deterrent effect, and where the offence at the same time does not merit dismissal. It is recommended that the employer's right to suspend employees should be recognized in any legislation that may be devised. It should also be provided that all the concerns covered by the Act should maintain registers of suspensions giving full particulars regarding the cause and the period of suspension and the loss in wages for the period covered. This register should be opened to inspection by the inspecting authorities under the Act. Provision for the maintenance of such registers would effectively control this form of punishment. It might also be desirable to prescribe that in all cases where workers are suspended, the workers should be given notification slips containing full particulars of the punishment.

*Dismissal.*—It is recommended that there should be no interference on the part of the State with the right of the employer to dismiss his workmen. At the same time in order to obviate harsh or arbitrary dismissals there should be some provision to safeguard the interests of labour. This could be achieved if it is provided that a register of dismissals should be maintained in each concern, and that every dismissed employee should be given a notification slip with the reasons for his dismissal.

*Compulsory Purchase of Damaged Material.*—The practice of compelling a worker to take over an article or material spoilt or damaged during manufacture and of deducting its cost from his wages exists in several textile mills in the Bombay Presidency. Out of the 144 textile mills which furnished information for the Labour Office enquiry, 84 mills or 58·3 per cent. reported that this practice was followed. Eleven mills stated that they had abolished it with effect from November, 1926. There are only a few factories and concerns outside the textile industry which follow the practice.

Out of the 84 textile mills which insist on the compulsory purchase of damaged material, only 46 mills gave figures both for the amounts deducted on this account and the number of cases. A few other mills gave only the amounts of deductions without giving the number of instances. The statistics for the 46 mills which supplied full information show that the total deductions during the first 10 months of the year 1926 in respect of damaged or spoilt material handed over to the workers concerned amounted to Rs. 1,60,326-5-4 pies, recovered in 50,981 instances. The average incidence per deduction works out at Rs. 3-2-4 pies.

This practice has often given rise to considerable industrial unrest. Since the 1st January, 1925, there have been altogether 11 industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency in connection with deductions on account of bad and negligent work and the compulsory purchase of spoilt and damaged material. Out of these 11 disputes, 8 were directly concerned with the giving of damaged cloth in lieu of wages. Workers' associations and other labour interests have been unanimous in condemning this system and the feeling among the majority of the workers who were personally interrogated regarding this matter was emphatically in favour of abolishing this practice. There is, however, a small body of workers who favour its continuance. Some of them stated that they liked this practice because it afforded them opportunities to spoil cloth purposely which they desired to obtain at manufacturer's wholesale prices.

Several workers who have been punished in this way considered that they had been unjustly penalized for damage caused by reasons which were beyond their control. The Indian weaver is usually not in a position to state whether he was actually responsible for the damage for which he is punished. Conversations with a few of the more intelligent weavers showed that in most cases the employer makes no effort to ascertain whether the defect is due entirely to the negligence of the worker.

It is urged that the employees who are given the spoilt material have no difficulty in selling it, and that in cases where they are not able to sell it they use the cloth themselves. This may be partly true, but the evidence of the workers themselves

goes to show that in many cases they experience the greatest difficulty in disposing of the material that has been thrust upon them, and this is especially the case as regards the kinds of cloth for which there is no local demand. The weaver, owing to his limited resources, is anxious to realize the value of the damaged cloth as soon as possible and is, therefore, forced to sell it for whatever price he can get. In most cases the price obtained is considerably below the actual "cut" effected from the weaver's wages. In many cases the worker is forced to retain cloth for which he cannot get a satisfactory price although he does not require it for his own use.

It is clear that the practice of handing over spoilt material to the worker leads to many abuses. While it may cause hardship to the worker in individual cases it does not necessarily always act as a deterrent, as the worker may sometimes be able to dispose of the damaged material at a price equal to, or more than the amount deducted from his wages, and thereby escape punishment altogether. This practice thus appears to be objectionable from the employers' as well as from the employees' point of view, and it is, therefore, recommended that it should be prohibited, but the imposition of a reasonable fine for bad or negligent work which causes damage to the material should be allowed.

*The "Double Khada" Rule.*—The rules of almost all the mills in Bombay City provide for a cut of two days' wages for each day's absence without leave, but the rule is not enforced. A similar rule also exists in the textile mills in Ahmedabad, Sholapur, and other centres and in various factories and concerns in different parts of the Bombay Presidency, but it is strictly observed only in some of the Sholapur cotton mills. This rule is popularly known as "The Double Khada Rule." This practice of cutting two days' wages for one day's absence without leave, though not very prevalent, is objectionable. In a country like India, where the conditions of the workers are not conducive to a healthy and regular life, it is considered that cases of absence without leave should not be dealt with so harshly. The employer should, of course, have the right to inflict a fine in order to enforce discipline and ensure punctuality, but the system of cutting two days' wages for one day's absence without leave should not be permitted.

*Withholding of Wages.*—The Labour Office enquiry did not include this question, but personal enquiries show that several mills and factories often withhold wages for different periods as a punishment for offences. In most cases wages are withheld for absence without leave for three days or more. In view of the fact that the payment of wages in the case of monthly workers is generally made a fortnight after they fall due, the economic position of a worker must be considerably worsened if the payment of the wages which are due to him is still further delayed by a week or more. The danger of this practice is that it often throws the worker into the clutches of the moneylender. The imposition of a fine would be a better and more direct method of punishment; it, therefore, appears desirable that the withholding of wages should be prohibited.

*Forfeiture of Wages.*—The Labour Office enquiry did not cover the question of forfeiture of wages and no data are, therefore, available with regard to the extent to which this practice prevails in different types of establishments in the Bombay Presidency. Prolonged absence without leave is generally considered to be an offence to be punished by dismissal with forfeiture of wages. The rules of the textile mills in Bombay City contain full lists of the offences which are punishable by summary dismissal and forfeiture of all wages due. These offences are as follows :—

- (1) Leaving service without giving notice as required by the rules.
- (2) Absence without leave.
- (3) Neglect of work or performing work in a negligent or careless manner.
- (4) Wrongfully stopping any machine while the engine is running or otherwise causing delay to work or injury to property.
- (5) Insubordination or disobedience to superiors, individually or in combination with others.
- (6) Refusal or failure to assist in an emergency.
- (7) Striking from work or soliciting or enticing others to leave service or exercising any pressure or intimidation to prevent others from working.
- (8) Spitting on the floors or the walls of the mill buildings after a warning has been given or a fine inflicted for the first offence.
- (9) Entering or leaving or attempting to enter or leave the mill or mill premises by any other way than by the properly appointed entrance or exit.
- (10) Lending money to or having money dealings with other employees in the same mill.
- (11) Receiving bribes or illegal gratifications from any person or persons whether employed in a mill or not.

(12) Drawing or attempting to draw the wages of any other employee by misrepresentation or in aiding or abetting such offences.

(13) Acting in an immoral manner or in a manner subversive of discipline.

(14) Wilful or negligent damage to or loss of material or property of the employer.

(15) Theft and fraud.

Many other mills and factories which have rules have similar provisions with regard to dismissals with or without forfeiture of wages. It is not known to what extent wages are forfeited for breaches of the rules enumerated above. The employers state that wages are forfeited only in extreme cases, whereas the workers maintain that this penalty is inflicted even for trivial offences. It is not only for the commission of offences that wages are forfeited in the mill industry. It is fairly common to forfeit wages not claimed within six months and in some mills within three months of their becoming due. The forfeiture of wages in either case is objectionable. The penalty of dismissal and a fine should be adequate for any offence. It is, therefore, recommended that the law should prohibit this practice.

*Advances and Interest on Advances.*—The results of the Labour Office enquiry show that out of the 72 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency which reported that advances are granted, 28 mills or nearly 39 per cent. charge varying rates of interest, the rate of interest in some of the Ahmedabad mills being as high as 150 per cent. per annum. In some cases, where the mills themselves do not grant advances, the owners make arrangements with privileged *pedhiwallas* (grain dealers) or *banias* (moneylenders) to lend money to their workmen at agreed rates of interest. Advances are not generally granted in Government factories. In the case of other factories, only 3 concerns out of the 143 which give advances reported that interest is charged.

The main objection to the practice of granting advances is the high rate of interest charged by some employers. There is no compulsion on the part of the workers to borrow money from their employer, and if they do so it implies that they cannot get it at cheaper rates elsewhere. The employer cannot be expected to advance the money free of charge. It does not appear that legislation can do anything to check the rates of interest charged on advances.

*The "Havala" System.*—The word "Havala" is used in two different senses. It is used by employers to denote the discharge pass or pay order ticket, whereas labour leaders apply the term to the endorsement or letter of authority given to a third person to collect wages due.

The "Havala" system obtains in the textile mills in the Bombay Presidency. It arises out of the practice followed in the mills of making all payments of wages on a fixed day. This practice leads to complications, especially in the case of workers who have been dismissed or have left employment after giving due notice. A worker who leaves his employment before the regular pay day does not receive his wages on the day he leaves, but he is given a discharge pass or pay order ticket and he is required to call for his wages on the regular pay day of the month. The question of "Havala" does not arise in the case where the worker is able to call for his wages himself on the regular pay day but when the worker wishes to leave the town where he is employed and requires his wages he is obliged to have recourse to "Havala" in order to get ready money. He accordingly endorses his discharge pass or pay order ticket in favour of a third person, who cashes the ticket at a rate of discount which is generally 1 anna in the rupee. Usually, jobbers and grain dealers cash these tickets but sometimes employers do so themselves. The system of "Havala" then is connected with the system of payment of wages on certain fixed days, generally 10 or 15 days after they are due. As long as this system of payment prevails, it seems undesirable to abolish "Havala" altogether. It is a convenience for the needy worker, although he may lose a part of his wages by way of discount. The abuses arising out of the system might, however, be removed by legislation. The rate of discount charged and the agency employed for cashing the pay order tickets need regulation. The employers alone should be permitted to cash these tickets and they should be permitted to deduct from the gross amount due only what is necessary to defray the extra cost involved in making earlier payments.

*Bonus for Regular Attendance.*—Bonuses for regular attendance are given in the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency. The results of the Labour Office enquiry showed that out of the 144 textile mills which supplied information, no less than 110 or 76·4 per cent. grant good attendance bonuses. Except in the case of the cotton mills in Sholapur, this bonus takes the form of a cash payment. In most of the Sholapur mills, workers who have not lost more than four days' work during a month are given 20 seers of grain at a concession rate.

There is a danger in the granting of good attendance bonuses because it enables an employer to set off a part of the regular wages of an employee as a bonus to be given to him only if his attendance is quite regular. If the employee fails to put in the number of days required he not only loses his wages for the days of absence but



also his good attendance bonus. On the other hand, if the good attendance bonus is not included in the normal wage but is an additional gratuity given by the employer as an inducement for good attendance, there is nothing to be said against the practice. So far as the Labour Office is aware there have been no complaints against the system. Legislative action in this matter does not, therefore, appear necessary.

*Bonus for Better Work.*—As in the case of bonuses for good attendance, the system of granting bonuses for better work or better production also obtains in the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency. Several other concerns besides reported that such bonuses are given. The returns for the textile industry show that 25 out of the 78 reporting mills in Bombay, 40 out of the 49 reporting mills in Ahmedabad and 11 out of the 19 reporting mills in Sholapur and other centres grant "efficiency" bonuses. Considering the textile industry as a whole the figures are 76 out of 144 reporting mills or 52·78 per cent. No bonuses of this kind are granted by municipalities, commercial offices and steamship companies.

It is sometimes urged that bonuses for better production are given where the normal wages are low; that they make the worker work harder than is good for him; and that very often the workers on the whole benefit less than the employers by this system of bonuses. It is not known to what extent the wages in Indian industry may be regarded as normal, nor what is the result of such bonuses on the physique of the workers, and it is not possible to estimate the sum total of the benefit derived by the employer or the workers. In the absence of such information it is difficult to say whether such bonuses are in the interest of the workers. However, the Labour Office is not aware of any complaints by the workers in this matter so it is considered that no legislative action is necessary.

*Prevention of Monetary Transactions amongst the Workers.*—In the majority of concerns where rules governing the conditions of employment are framed heavy punishments are provided for monetary transactions amongst the workers. It appears unnecessary to make any provision in the law in respect of this question.

*Conditions under which Fines may be inflicted.*—In the Bombay Presidency, almost all the textile mills in Bombay City have printed rules regarding the conditions of employment and the lists of offences for which workers may be dismissed, with or without forfeiture of wages. Some of these rules give the offences which may be alternatively punished by inflictions of fines. The actual rules regarding fines are general in character and simply state that fines will be inflicted for "breaches of discipline," "insubordination," "disobedience," "late attendance," and a few specific offences. In most cases the maximum punishment of dismissal with forfeiture of wages is prescribed. Only three mills in Ahmedabad and about half-a-dozen mills in the rest of the Bombay Presidency reported that rules had been framed with regard to conditions of employment. These rules are framed, more or less, on the model of the rules of the Bombay mills. The rules of a few factories—Government and non-Government—and those relating to public utility services, give more amplified lists of the offences for which fines may be inflicted. The rules of the municipalities are general in character. Factories and workshops other than those mentioned above have no rules regarding the imposition of fines. In almost all the cases where rules are provided, copies of the rules are hung up in the time-keeper's office and, in some cases, in the various departments as well. Two or three mills stated that, prior to the engagement of a new hand, the rules of the mill are read out to the prospective employee and, if he accepts service, his signature or thumb impression is taken in a special register as a record that he has accepted employment with the knowledge of the conditions under which his wages are liable to deduction in respect of fines. Some other concerns stated that the rules are read out to the men. In a few cases the daily employment of attendance cards which are given to all workmen have the rules with regard to fines printed on the reverse. But in the large majority of cases no attempt is made to acquaint the workers with the conditions under which they are liable to be fined, and the offences for which fines may be inflicted are presumed to be known by usage or custom. It appears necessary that legislation should be framed providing that every employer should make definite rules regarding the terms of employment and the conditions under which fines may be inflicted.

*Supply of Particulars to Workers who are Fined.*—Most of the returns submitted for the Labour Office enquiry stated that full particulars regarding the offence for which a fine is inflicted are supplied to the worker at the time of the occurrence of the offence. This is generally true in the case of fines for breaches of discipline, but personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that particulars regarding fines for bad and negligent work and also for deductions in respect of compulsory purchase of damaged goods come to the knowledge of the workers concerned only when they draw their pay. This is due to the fact that the cutlookers and detectors examine the cloth produced some days after it has been manufactured, and the penalties in respect of damaged material are then noted against the worker concerned.

By this procedure the worker has to submit to a fine without having an opportunity of vindicating himself. Except in a very few cases the notification of the particulars regarding the offence for which a fine is inflicted is given to the worker orally. To prevent the possibility of unfair inflictions of fines it appears desirable that the law should provide that the amount of the fine inflicted together with the reasons therefor should be made known to the worker at the time of inflicting the fine.

*Power to Fine.*—With the exception of the few textile mills in Bombay City which reported that the power to fine rests with the jobbers in addition to heads of departments, and those mills in Ahmedabad which stated that this power is delegated to special employees called "detectors," who receive a certain percentage of the total fines inflicted, almost all the mills, factories and concerns which sent in returns for the Labour Office Enquiry stated that the power to fine is exercised by the proprietors or by the heads of departments in the larger establishments. Subsequent personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that fining by jobbers is more common than appears from the results of the statistical enquiry, and that it gives rise to considerable abuse. It is recommended that no employee whose remuneration depends in any shape or form on the amounts of fines which he inflicts, should be allowed either to recommend a fine or to inflict a fine on a worker himself, and that the power to fine should be vested in managers and responsible heads of departments.

*Extent to which Fines may be inflicted.*—No limits exist with regard to the extent to which fines may be inflicted in factories and workshops in the Bombay Presidency with the exception of a few of the larger railway workshops, and some Government and semi-Government factories and concerns. In this connection, several employers stated that as fines were not inflicted in an unreasonable manner, no necessity had arisen for fixed definite limits. The personal investigations of the Labour Office, however, show that cases where heavy fines are inflicted are not uncommon.

It appears necessary that if any legislation is framed for the control of fines, such legislation should provide a maximum limit to the extent to which fines may be inflicted. The Majority Report of the British Truck Committee recommended a limit of 5 per cent. In this connection the Minority Report, however, stated that "the tendency of a maximum to become a standard, illustrated by several witnesses and recognized in the Report, must not be considered by itself, but in connection with the clear intention of unscrupulous firms to make a profit out of their workers by methods that upright firms would reject." The fear that the maximum would tend to become the standard is based on the assumption that the employer makes fines a source of profit; but if it is laid down that all recoveries of fines are to be credited to a welfare fund, this danger is not likely to arise.

From the point of view of the employer a maximum limit might be considered undesirable where the prescribed limit has already been reached, and he is thus prevented from inflicting additional fines for further offences committed during the same wage period.

If it is decided to fix a maximum limit it will be necessary to provide that the limit should be for the length of time covered by each wage period. No fines in excess of the prescribed limit for any particular wage period should be allowed to be carried forward or deducted from the wages for the next or a subsequent wage period, and the payments of fines by instalments should also be prohibited. Exceptions to the rule may, however, be permitted, and in certain cases local Governments may be empowered to extend the maximum limit or to suspend its operation.

*Disposal of Fines.*—A few textile mills in the Bombay Presidency reported that all amounts collected through the infliction of fines are utilized specifically for welfare work, but the majority of the mills reported that fines are credited to "revenue." It must be stated, however, that the great majority of the mills undertake some welfare work, especially in connection with the maintenance of free dispensaries and the provision of free medical attendance. Most of the departments connected with the larger railway administrations and a few Government and other factories have special fines funds to which all fines are credited. These funds are utilized for the workers' welfare. Some clubs and offices utilize fines for the payment of annual bonuses, whereas some concerns use them for donations to charitable objects. Apart from the instances quoted, fines are generally appropriated by the employers to "revenue."

In England, although the Truck Acts contain no specific provision regarding the question of the disposal of fines, all deductions in respect of fines are generally utilized for welfare work, as shown by the evidence given by various employers before the Truck Committee. In Germany, Austria, Russia, Switzerland, Poland, Norway, Portugal, Czechoslovakia, Lichtenstein, Latvia and Greece the legislation which exists with regard to the control of fines definitely provides that all fines should be utilized in some manner or other for the benefit of the workers. In the Netherlands, the law prohibits the employer from utilizing or appropriating fines for his own

direct or indirect benefit. It appears that in almost all other industrial countries the influence of trade unions and public opinion have compelled employers to credit all fines to special fines funds, to be used for the welfare of the workers concerned. It is recommended that the law should lay down that this practice should be followed in India.

*Necessity of Legislation.*—The question whether legislation should be undertaken in India for the control of fines depends on the following considerations :—(1) The extent of the prevalence of the system ; (2) the extent to which workers are subjected to fines in establishments where fining prevails ; (3) the administration of the system ; (4) the influence of workers' organizations on the system.

With regard to the question of the extent of the prevalence of the system, the Labour Office Enquiry shows that it is general throughout the Bombay Presidency. In considering the question of the extent to which workers are subjected to fines in establishments where fining prevails, it must be stated that there are several points with regard to fining which were not covered by the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office. For instance, no enquiry was made in connection with (1) the frequency of fining in the case of individual employees ; (2) the actual amounts of fines inflicted in individual cases ; and (3) the forfeiture of wages. The proportions between fines and wages given in the Report show the ratio between total amounts of fines and the total wages bill of all employees. It is probable that there exist, in individual establishments, large numbers of workers who are seldom, if ever, fined. It would have been more useful if information could have been obtained to show the proportion which total fines bear to the total wages bill of those workers who are actually fined. It would have been practically impossible, however, to procure this information in view of the difficulty of calculating the wages and deductions figures for each worker employed during a period covering ten to twelve months. It was also not possible to ascertain the amounts of fines inflicted in each case, as the enquiry was not conducted on the basis of the individual. The figures given in the Report in connection with the average incidence of fining in different sets or classes of establishment, show that in the textile industry the average incidence of fining in 45 mills in the Presidency which supplied properly classified information, amounted to 3 annas 11 pies per offence in the case of men, 2 annas 8 pies per offence in the case of women, and 1 anna 11 pies per offence in the case of children. In factories other than textile mills the average incidence for men amounted to Re. 1-2-4 pies. These figures do not include the losses sustained by the worker for penalties such as compulsory purchase of damaged material, suspension and forfeiture of wages. Nevertheless, they are higher than the figures for fines in England as appears from the evidence submitted to the Truck Committee.

As regards the administration of the system, there are several matters which call for legislative control. For instance, the power to fine is sometimes placed in the hands of special employees whose remuneration depends on the amount which they are able to collect in fines. The enquiry conducted by the Labour Office shows that such employees, called detectors, are employed to a large extent in the textile mills in Ahmedabad. One mill in Ahmedabad employing 1,843 workers, recovered an amount of Rs. 10,234 in fines during the first ten months of the year 1926 for 83,253 offences. Another mill employing 3,209 operatives, inflicted fines amounting to Rs. 9,981 in 25,949 instances during the same period. The number of instances in which fines were inflicted in these concerns appears to be high when compared with the figures for similar establishments where detectors are not employed. There can be no doubt that such a system must give rise to considerable abuse where the earnings of the officers specially employed to fine depend on the amounts of fines collected. Outside the textile industry in Bombay city, very few establishments have rules governing conditions of employment and the power of fining. The rules where they exist, appear to be rather harsh and place unlimited power in the hands of the manager or the departmental heads to whom the manager delegates his authority.

In all industrial countries, trade unions play an important part in regulating the relations between the employers and the employed in connection with the inflictions of fines and punishments. In France, Sweden, Bulgaria, Canada and countries which have no legislation for the control of fines, trade union action has resulted in either abolishing the imposition of fines altogether or restricting the system to a reasonable extent. Even in countries where legislation exists for the control of fines, trade unions exert a salutary influence.

In India, however, trade unionism is still in its infancy, and the workers' organizations are too weak to exert their influence to any appreciable extent in the regulation of fines. Any abuses which exist therefore in the system of fining cannot be remedied or removed by trade union action, so the State may have to intervene. It appears that as far as the Bombay Presidency is concerned, the conditions as regards fining in industry are such as would warrant legislative action. Cases of excessive fines are not uncommon, some of the fines are unjust, the workers are not always aware of the

offences for which they may be punished, the manner of inflicting fines is often arbitrary, and the agency employed for the imposition of fines is not always suitable. In countries where labour is properly organized, many of these evils could be removed without legislative action, but in view of the lack of such organization and the ignorance of the workers in this country, it appears that a simple Act of the legislature is necessary to eradicate the evils connected with the present system of fining in industry.

*Scope of the Measure.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that the system of inflicting fines is prevalent in all textile mills and in most Government and local fund establishments, and in the majority of the better organized and larger non-Government factories and workshops. In municipalities and in public utility concerns the system is fairly general, but it does not appear to prevail to any appreciable extent in seasonal establishments such as gins and presses. In offices the system is confined to the fining of peons and menials, though in a few cases clerks are also occasionally fined. Amongst miscellaneous establishments the system is prevalent in the larger hotels, clubs and restaurants, but it is absent in most of the commercial organizations such as shops, stores, etc. It also obtains in almost all steamship companies, and the system is governed and regulated by the Indian Merchants Shipping Act, 1923. It is thus seen that the system of fining is practised in almost all the various types and classes of establishments and concerns covered by the Labour Office Enquiry, but only in the large industrial establishments does the system appear to have become an evil of such proportions as would necessitate legislation. It would be premature at the present stage to apply to all concerns the provisions of any legislation that may be passed, and it does not appear necessary. Even if a simple Act is passed the present inspecting staffs of the Factories and Mines Departments will have to be considerably strengthened for its proper administration. Detailed legislation might cost more than would be justified by the results. Besides, it may not be possible to administer the law effectively if it enters into too many details. Moreover, the employers' interests have to be taken into account, as too much interference with industry is undesirable. It is recommended, therefore, that the proposed legislation should be confined to factories and mines coming under the Factories and Mines Acts.

*Maintenance of Registers of Fines.*—In the factories and workshops in the Bombay Presidency fines are usually recorded in the main wages roll. For the proper enforcement of the proposed legislation it seems necessary that employers should be required to maintain complete and detailed registers of all the fines inflicted.

*Method of Enforcement.*—Even if the proposed legislation is confined to factories and mines coming under the Factories and Mines Acts, its proper enforcement will present innumerable difficulties. The existing Factories and Mines Departments appear to be the most suitable agencies for administering the law in its broader aspects. The work of inspecting the registers and of prosecuting defaulting employers can be entrusted to them. Their activities will, however, have to be supplemented by some other agency, who will hear complaints, investigate into their causes and bring them to the notice of the prosecuting authority. This appears to be essential if the spirit of the law as well as the letter is to be observed.

### APPENDIX XIII.

#### *Prompt Payment of Wages.*

*Letter to all Local Governments and Administrations, No. L-1391, dated the 28th July, 1926.*

I am directed to address you regarding the advisability of legislating for the purpose of preventing undue delay in the payment of wages to industrial workers.

2. In this Department's letter No. L-1192 of 20th September, 1924, local Governments were requested to furnish particulars regarding the periods by which wages are paid in organized industries, and the delays which are associated with their payment. The information so collected, which has since been published in tabular form,\* reveals a state of affairs which cannot be regarded as other than unsatisfactory. For it is clear that, generally speaking, the time which elapses between the end of the period by which wages have been earned and the date on which they are paid is longer than is usual in industries in other countries; and the delay is, in a number of cases, so great as to add appreciably to the economic difficulties of workmen. Systematic delays in payment are particularly associated with payment on a monthly basis, and the month is the period most commonly employed for the calculation of

\* Bulletins of Indian Industries and Labour, No. 34. Periods of Wage Payment.

wages. It is no uncommon thing—in fact it appears to be the rule in certain industries—for monthly wages to be systematically withheld until a fortnight after the close of the month to which they relate. And cases have come to the notice of Government in which wages had been withheld for considerably longer periods.

3. It is unnecessary to emphasize the fact that a practice of this kind results in considerable hardship to the workers concerned. With monthly payments, a delay of a fortnight in disbursement means that the employee has to work for over six weeks before he gets his first month's wages. Even if he is not financially embarrassed when he starts work, he has, as a rule, no monetary reserve, and he may be, in consequence, compelled to contract, at the commencement of his service, a fresh debt of a month and a half's wages, generally taken on a high rate of interest. A number of employers endeavour to minimize the hardship involved by the grant of advances, but this practice is by no means general, and even where the advance represents wages that have actually been earned, interest is occasionally charged on it. Cases have come to the notice of the Government of India where workers were compelled to strike in order to secure wages which had been held back for unreasonable periods; in one such case, where over three weeks had elapsed from the close of the month, the strikers were dismissed: in another case, the workers went on strike over five weeks after the end of the month for which they wanted their wages.

4. It has been suggested that, as the evil is particularly associated with monthly payments, employers should be compelled to adopt shorter periods of payment. This was, in fact, one of the arguments put forward in support of Mr. Chaman Lall's Weekly Payments Bill, which was referred to local Governments for consideration. But the Bill met with general opposition. The Government of India, after reviewing the opinions received on it, were compelled to oppose its consideration in the Legislative Assembly, and the motion for consideration of the Bill was finally withdrawn by its sponsor.

5. The Government of India do not think that any Bill of this kind is likely to receive the support of public opinion, or to prove effective in its operation. While they should not be regarded as accepting the view that the general system of monthly payments is a satisfactory one, they believe that an attempt to impose by legislation a radically different system would have little chance of success, and might do considerable harm. They recognize—and they believe that local Governments will agree with this view—that if the abuses to which they have referred above can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation. But they are inclined to think that legislation, if it is regarded as desirable, will have to be attempted on somewhat different lines if it is to have a reasonable prospect of successful working. The details of a fresh scheme are set out provisionally in the paragraphs that follow, and I am to ask for the views of the local Government both on the advisability of adopting some scheme of this kind, and on the detailed provisions contemplated.

6. The Government of India propose to set statutory limits to the time within which wages must be paid. To begin with, at any rate, they consider that it would be unwise to attempt to do more than prevent the more obvious abuses, and in the case of wages paid on a monthly system (or any longer basis), it might be sufficient to prescribe that they must ordinarily be paid within a week of the close of the month. It may be desirable to allow some relaxation in the case of bonuses earned by a long period, e.g., a year of work, but it will be difficult, and possibly dangerous, to discriminate between bonuses and wages. It could, if desired, be left to the employer, subject to the approval of the local Government, to fix the date on which the month should commence, which need not necessarily be the first day of the calendar month. As regards payments on shorter periods than a month, the evidence available indicates that there is less need for legislation, but I am to ask for the views of the local Government on the suggestion that corresponding limitations might be imposed, e.g., in the case of fortnightly wages, four days delay might be allowed, in the case of weekly wages, two days, and in the case of daily wages, a day. Wages might be limited to cash payments; but it seems undesirable to do anything that might encourage payment in kind, and a distinction is possibly unnecessary. It would probably be advisable to give local Governments, in all cases, the power to grant exemptions where special (and defined) circumstances, e.g., the distance of the worker from the headquarters, rendered this necessary. The difficulties arising out of the fact that in some cases for instance when wages are paid piece-rates, intricate evaluations may be required to calculate wages might be met by prescribing that, in such cases, the payment, within the statutory period, of 75 per cent. (or some higher percentage) of the wages earned should constitute compliance with the law.

7. The main difficulty in regard to legislation of this kind arises in connection with its enforcement. It would be possible, and seems to be desirable, to provide for the prompt recovery of wages by some form of summary procedure, e.g., in a manner similar to that prescribed in the Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act, IX of 1860.

It would also be necessary to provide for some fine, part of which might be payable to the workmen injured, for the offence. The maximum fine on a first conviction might be small, with larger penalties for subsequent offences. But provisions of this kind will not be sufficient to secure the end in view, for the workman would seldom be in a position to use the power so conferred on him. The employer who is protected could pay the wages and dismiss the workman, and it would be impossible to prevent by law dismissals of this kind. Other reasons could always be put forward as the ostensible grounds of any dismissal, and the result would be constant disputes. And even when the workman did not apprehend reprisals, it would seldom be worth his while to institute proceedings with the object of obtaining a single month's wages a short period before the date when he would receive them without invoking external assistance. The grant to any number of workmen in the same establishment of the power to join in one proceeding might meet some of the difficulties in part, but it would not be sufficient. Quite apart from the difficulties inherent in the joint conduct of proceedings by numerous complainants, the fear of victimization and the large amount of inconvenience necessary to secure a very small advantage to each workman would be sufficient to prevent action in most cases. The Government of India consider that, if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the initiative of the workmen themselves, the Act will fail to achieve its object. If this conclusion is accepted, it seems essential that the power to prosecute should be granted to some external authority, such as an inspecting staff. The difficulties in the way of the workmen would be removed by such a provision, and the conduct of prosecutions instituted by inspecting officials would be free from serious administrative difficulty.

8. This has a close bearing on the important question of the scope of the measure. In the case of factories and mines, there are already in existence inspecting officers who have experience of the institution of prosecutions, and who could safely be entrusted with the enforcement of the Act. If the measure was to be extended to establishments which are not subject either to the Factories Act or the Mines Act, it might be impossible to render it effective without the employment of a special staff, and even with such a staff, its enforcement would be attended by serious difficulty. Further, the evidence before the Government of India indicates that the evil is particularly associated with the larger industrial establishments, where the work involved in the calculation of wages is heaviest, and where the presence of intermediaries between the workmen and the management and other circumstances tend to aggravate delays. In the smaller establishments lying outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts, there are no serious abuses such as would justify not merely the introduction of legislation, but the establishment of new and special machinery for its enforcement. On all grounds, therefore, the Government of India are inclined to the view that the measure should be confined, in its operation, to those establishments which are subject to the operation of the Factories Act or the Mines Act : but this is a point on which they would be glad to have the opinion of the local Government.

9. I am to request that, after consulting the interests concerned, a reply may be sent to this letter not later than 1st January, 1927.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, N.-W. F. Province, No. 986-XVI-F.-104-C. & I., dated the 10th September, 1926.*

This province is entirely agricultural, and has no industries, and therefore no criticisms or suggestions of value can be given.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, No. 4107/103-19-Enclos., dated the 2nd December, 1926.*

Wages are paid weekly in Coorg. In their own interests planters are particularly careful to be punctual. So far as Coorg is concerned, the Chief Commissioner has, therefore, no remarks to offer on the scheme set out in paragraphs 6-8 of your letter.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. Misc.-2013-L., dated the 22nd December, 1926.*

Mr. Ley's letter No. L.-1391, of the 28th July, 1926, was referred by this Government to the Board of Revenue (who consulted collectors), the Director of Industries, and the Commissioner of Labour, who, in his turn, consulted ten associations of employers, including Chambers of Commerce besides prominent individual employers such as the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, and six associations of employees.

2. The enquiries thus made have failed to elicit any evidence that the delay which occurs between the date on which wages fall due and that on which they are paid does, in fact, cause any real hardship or economic injury. There is not the

slightest indication that employers delay payment wantonly or arbitrarily; and the interval which normally occurs, and which is naturally longer in the larger businesses, is recognized to be due to the labour involved in the preparation of detailed pay bills with establishments whose attendance is frequently irregular, and who are far less disciplined and less amenable to regulation than workmen in western countries.

It appears, moreover, to be the case that where payment of wages is spread over a period of some days, care is taken to see that the intervals in the case of individuals are of uniform length.

3. The special hardship, to which Mr. Ley's letter calls attention, of a newly-engaged employee having to wait for as much as six weeks before receiving any wages is, the Madras Government understand, much mitigated by the practice of making advances. It may further be pointed out that a six weeks' interval represents an extreme case. New employees are not infrequently engaged after the beginning of a month, and their period of waiting is thus proportionately shortened.

4. If then, as appears to be the case in Madras, workmen are after their first receipt of wages paid at uniform and regular intervals of a month, a fortnight or a week (as the case may be), and if the inconvenience caused by the initial period of waiting is mitigated by the practice mentioned above, His Excellency the Governor in Council is unable to detect any abuse or economic hardship requiring remedial legislation, and he is sure that the Government of India will agree that legislation imposing obligations on employers towards the employed tends to mar the harmony of their relations and should be avoided unless really required.

5. For the information of the Government of India, I am to enclose copies\* of certain typical replies which illustrate and confirm the view of the question which the Governor in Council has been led to take. It will be seen that those replies which assert the existence of a grievance propose as a remedy, not the acceleration of payment, but the shortening of the qualifying wage period, a proposal akin to that contained in Mr. Chaman Lal's recent Bill, the principle of which has been repudiated by the Government of India.

6. I am to add certain observations on the nature of the proposed legislation, on the supposition that such legislation is to be introduced. In the first place, the proposal to include bonuses in the scope of legislation for the prompt payment of wages has been generally objected to on the grounds that bonuses are given entirely as an act of grace and should be free from any element of compulsion, and that in practice these payments are not made monthly or generally at more frequent intervals than once a year. Bonuses are thus, in principle and in practice, quite distinct from wages and it would be a mistake to treat them alike. The Governor in Council agrees with this opinion.

\*7. The problem of enforcing the proposed legislation, which, as the Government of India observes, presents considerable difficulty, would not, in the opinion of this Government, be solved by the suggested restriction of such legislation to institutions to which either the Factories or the Mines Act is applicable. Except for the advantage derived from the existence of an inspecting organization under these Acts, which if suitably strengthened at the expense of the taxpayer, would no doubt provide machinery for carrying the law into effect, there appears to be no logical reason or justification for depriving of the presumed benefits of the law those numerous wage earners who do not come within the scope of either of the above-named enactments. The restriction would also produce the anomaly that, in the case of railway administrations, the men working in workshops and sheds would enjoy the benefit of the law, while the rest (including the line staff and traffic employees who are exposed to the longest delays) would have no redress whatever.

8. It appears to His Excellency the Governor in Council that there would be little difficulty in evading any provision for accelerating payment of wages; compulsory acceleration, unless so liberally applied as to fail of its object, would throw a burden upon industry which might have unfavourable reactions on employed as well as employers; and the benefit to be derived by workers from the proposal under consideration would in the opinion of this Government be so slight as by no means to warrant the expense, the inconveniences and the risk of failure involved.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 7903-Industries, dated the 24th December, 1926.*

I have consulted the Deputy Commissioner and the Inspector of Factories on the subject. They are in general agreement with the policy outlined in paragraphs 6, 7 and 8 of the Government of India letter. The Inspector of Factories is of opinion

that power to exempt employers, when they can prove to the administering authority that advances during the period of work were made to workers up to 75 per cent. of their pay, free of all interest, should be given to local Governments. The Inspector of Factories also considers that power to prosecute offenders against the Act should be in the hands of the executive authority.

I am myself in agreement with the policy outlined in paragraphs 6, 7 and 8 of the Government of India letter under reply.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Ajmer-Merwara, No. 2096-C.1823 of 1926, dated the 28th December, 1926.*

The scheme as detailed in paragraphs 6 to 8 of the letter, under reference, would serve a useful purpose and may be adopted.

*Letter from the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan, No. 4992, dated the 30th December, 1926.*

The extent of industries in Baluchistan is very limited, those of any importance being Government and quasi-Government concerns consisting of the local arsenal and the North-Western Railway. Exceptions are to be found, however, in the Baluchistan Chrome Mining Company and the Quetta Branch of the Murree Brewery, both of which concerns employ much skilled and unskilled labour and are under European management.

2. Enquiries show that there is no undue delay in the payment of wages to workmen employed by the Arsenal and Baluchistan Chrome Mining Company. In both cases the men receive their wages within a week. The brewery management has vouchsafed no reply to enquiries made on the subject and merely remarks that it wishes to express no views on the proposed legislation.

3. It would appear that unnecessary delay does take place in the payment of the railway staff, due to a lengthy system of centralized check and audit. It is understood, however, that the agent of the North-Western Railway is representing his views in the matter to the Government of India direct, on a separate reference.

4. The concensus of local opinion indicates that legislation on the general lines proposed by the Government of India is desirable and should be adopted. In this view the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General concurs.

5. Regarding the points raised in paragraph 6 of the letter under reply, I am to say that the limits proposed therein within which wages are to be paid would appear to be suitable.

There is, however, in the opinion of the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General, a further case for which legislation would appear to be indicated, viz., that in which a workman is dismissed or takes his discharge before the end of the month, fortnight, or week as the case may be, and who, without special legislation to the contrary, might have to wait a comparatively considerable period before he can receive his wages. This would constitute a decided hardship because a workman who is employed has usually no difficulty in obtaining supplies on credit from a shopkeeper. But once he is out of employment his credit is immediately closed. To obviate this hardship where it exists at present, the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General would suggest that a clause in the proposed legislation might be inserted to the effect that in all cases of the nature indicated above, the workman in question shall receive his dues within a period of two days subsequent to his becoming unemployed, irrespective of the system of wages on which he may have been engaged.

6. The Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General agrees in the view expressed by the Government of India to the effect that if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the motion of the workmen themselves, the Act will fail to achieve its object; and while it would be costly to employ special staff for the purpose of prosecution, he considers that the power to prosecute should be granted to the inspecting staff, and that the proposed measure should be confined in its operation for the present to such of the establishments only as are subject to the provisions of the Factories Act or Mines Act.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. 30-F.M., dated the 4th January, 1927.*

The general opinion is that there is no need of such legislation in Assam at present, but there is no serious opposition to the proposals of the Government of India. With this view the Governor in Council agrees. There are few large industries in Assam besides the tea estates, where the scarcity of labour compels the management



to do all that is possible to keep the labour force contented. There is, therefore, no abuse in the payment of wages, which renders necessary in this province, legislation on the lines suggested by the Government of India. On the other hand, the Governor in Council recognizes that conditions may differ in other parts of India and that legislation of this nature if required at all should apply to the whole of India. The proposals put forward in paragraph 6 of your letter with the safeguards there suggested are fair and reasonable and legislation on those lines could be given effect to in this province without any serious difficulty. The Governor in Council also agrees with the proposals in paragraphs 7 and 8 of your letter that the measure should be restricted to establishments subject to the Factories Act or Mines Act, and that the enforcement of the Act should be entrusted to the inspecting staff.

*Letter from the Government of Central Provinces, No. 73/1593-XIII, dated the 7th January, 1927.*

In order to elicit local opinion, Government consulted the managers of important industrial concerns in the province. There is a consensus of opinion that so far as this province is concerned, the proposed legislation is unnecessary and may hamper the growth of industrial concerns. From the statement forwarded with this department's letter No. 2967/2256-XIII, dated the 12th December, 1924, it will be seen that in the case of monthly payments, delays for periods exceeding 15 days are not usual, while in the case of payments on shorter periods than a month, the scale suggested in the letter under reply is rarely exceeded. In the circumstances, therefore, and in view of the fact that no complaints on the part of workmen of delay in payment have come under its notice, the local Government is inclined to concur in the view of the managers of industrial concerns that the need for introducing legislation on the proposed lines is not urgent. Should it, however, be decided on general grounds to undertake legislation on the subject, I am to suggest that a period of 10 days may be allowed for payment on a monthly basis and the question of payment on shorter periods be left out of the scope of the measure. The local Government agrees that some provision for the summary recovery of wages is a necessary complement of the main provision of the Bill, even though the provision were seldom actually put in force.

2. For the reasons given in paragraphs 7 and 8 of the letter under reference, the local Government agrees with the Government of India that the scope of any such measure should be restricted to establishments coming within the purview of the Factories Act and the Mines Act, where inspecting officers could be required to bring to notice cases of infraction of the rules and empowered to initiate prosecutions.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 337-V-26, dated the 17th January, 1927.*

The local Government has obtained the opinions of commissioners of divisions and deputy commissioners, as well as those of commercial bodies and others interested in the matter. The general consensus of opinion in the province is decidedly hostile to the proposals. In a few cases, opinions in favour of the proposed legislation have been expressed, but the local Government is not impressed by those opinions, which rest on the assumption that the state of affairs in the province calls for legislation, and that the proposed legislation would do sufficient good to justify the interference with custom which it involves. These assumptions are either unsupported by arguments or are supported by arguments whose validity the local Government is unable to accept.

2. The object of the proposals is to ameliorate the condition of industrial workers by ensuring that they get their wages within a fixed number of days of the end of the month or other period for which the wages are paid. Industrial workers in Burma are in almost all cases paid by the month, so that the expression "wages" in this letter may be taken to mean monthly wages, unless the contrary is indicated. The opinion generally held in this province, which the local Government finds itself bound to accept, is that there is no need for legislation, and that the interference caused to existing business arrangements would be out of all proportion to any benefits resulting from legislation on the lines proposed. The tabulated results of the enquiries made by the Government of India into delays in the payment of wages show that in Burma the waiting period at the end of the month does not ordinarily exceed 15 days, and no complaints have been received or hardships occasioned by the existing custom. The effect of the proposed legislation would be that in the industries affected the waiting period would be reduced to a maximum of seven days. It is obvious that after the initial period the advantage of the change would be felt only by workmen taking up new employment. At present such workmen have to finance themselves for six weeks before getting their first month's pay, and this

period would be reduced by the proposed Act to five weeks. The majority of workers live on a credit basis, and any provident ones who have savings which would enable them to take up fresh employment without incurring debts are as likely to be able to support themselves for six weeks as for five. The credit basis on which the majority of the workers live is a monthly one, and if a worker in a permanent job gets his wages at regular monthly intervals the permanent postponement or advancement of his monthly pay day by a few days can make but little difference. On taking up new employment the credit period is a little longer than a month, and this merely means that the worker who has no savings at all has to live more carefully than usual for a time. In Burma, where wages are high and workers make heavy remittances to India, this can be done without great difficulty. The immediate effect of the proposals in the majority of cases would merely be that workers would for one month find themselves in possession of their wages a week earlier than in the previous month and would squander the extra week's wages or send them to India, and then carry on as before on the monthly credit basis. It has been noted by some of those consulted that in some cases in Burma new employees are assisted by advances and that interest is not charged on such advances.

3. The possibility of any advantage accruing to the workers from the proposals must also be discounted, because of the possibility that some employers, who have what they consider adequate reasons for making late payments, would still contrive to make such payments, and that others who cannot make the change imposed without extra cost would contrive to make the workers pay a part, at any rate, of the extra cost. In the opinion of the local Government it is unsafe to assume that legislative interference with the economic relations of classes can be contrived so that one class shall benefit entirely at the expense of the other.

4. It has also been pointed out by critics of the proposal that the limitation of the proposed action to establishments, subject to the Factories Act or the Mines Act—and in the opinion of the Governor in Council such limitation would be necessary in practice—would mean that classes of workers who are more in need of protection than those affected would not be benefited, and that in some cases half of the workers under the same employer would fall within the scope of the Act while the other half would not, with possible consequences of dissatisfaction and unrest. A very large proportion of the workers employed in connection with the principal industries in Burma are engaged on what is known as the "maistry system," and in the mines, workers are frequently employed through contractors. The methods of payment in such cases vary from place to place and between individuals in the same place. It is frequently alleged that coolies working under maistries and contractors are unfairly treated, but it would be impossible to bring such coolies within the scope of the proposed Act.

5. The objections to the proposal raised by commercial bodies and others consulted are mainly on the ground of the difficulty of accelerating the payment of wages or the impossibility of doing so without the employment of extra clerical staff. It is also suggested that in some cases the custom of withholding wages for a time has arisen from the necessity for maintaining a hold upon the workers so that they may not disorganize the business by leaving without notice. This is probably true to a great extent in the case of small concerns which are not represented on the chambers of commerce, and the local Government is inclined to think that it is true also to a greater extent than is admitted in the case of many other employers. The Government of India remarks that "generally speaking the time which elapses between the end of the period by which wages have been earned and the date on which they are paid is longer than is usual in industries in other countries." It may be argued that this is due to the greater reliability of workmen in other countries, or to the fact that at certain times of the year at any rate, workmen who leave their employment in India can find other employment at once. Conditions in Burma, where wages are high and seasonal demands for labour very heavy, might be expected in a special degree to render safeguards for employers necessary. The present proposal will prevent the employer from protecting his interests in the above manner, but it provides no substitute for the safeguard which has been established by custom and which it will abolish. It has been suggested that the proposed Act, in order to be complete, should provide also for the punishment of workers leaving their employment without giving one month's notice. Such a course perhaps cannot be contemplated seriously at the present time, but it appears to be a logical corollary to the proposals of the Government of India.

6. Apart from the practical objections raised, the proposals are open to the inherent objection that they would bring the employer within the criminal law in connection with what is merely a civil contract between him and his workmen. The Governor in Council would hesitate to recommend such legislation even if substantial advantages to any class of the community would certainly follow, and in the present

instance the possible advantages appear quite insufficient to justify the consideration of such legislation. By the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act a similar interference with civil contracts in favour of the employer has been done away with, and it would be a retrograde step now to interfere with the employer's right to contract with his workers. The Workmen's Compensation Act and the Trade Unions Act have recently been passed in favour of the workmen; and the latter Act, with time and the spread of education, will no doubt lead to the removal of any genuine disabilities suffered by the workmen. The local Government, after considering the matter in all its aspects, is of the decided opinion that legislation should not be proceeded with on the lines proposed.

7. If the Government of India decides to proceed with legislation, the general lines indicated in your letter appear to the local Government to be suitable. The Governor in Council would, however, urge that legislation should not apply to the whole of India, but that provision should be made for the application of the Act in those provinces only where the need of such legislation is experienced. The Act might relate to workmen generally, but its provisions should be applicable only to such classes of workmen as the local Government may direct, and full power of granting exemptions from the provisions of the Act should be accorded to the local Government.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 186-R., dated the 20th January, 1927.*

The Government of India were informed in the letter of this Government No. 905-54-17112, dated the 20th December, 1924, that wages in the principal organized industries of the Punjab are paid by the month and disbursed as a rule from 10 to 15 days in arrears. They were informed at the same time, with regard to Diwan Chaman Lal's Bill, that there is no general dissatisfaction amongst workers with this system. After further enquiry, the Governor in Council finds no reason to modify the view he expressed in 1924. He sees no objection to the introduction of legislation if such action is considered necessary, having regard to All-India conditions. But if an Act prescribing dates for the payment of wages is passed, I am to suggest that it be made applicable to this province only by a resolution in the local legislative council.

2. The Governor in Council agrees that any legislation which may be introduced should be on the lines proposed by the Government of India. He agrees that the Act should apply only to workers in registered factories and mines; that a summary procedure should be provided for the trial of cases; that inspectors working under the Factories and Mines Act should be empowered to institute prosecutions; and that local Governments should be given the widest authority to grant exemptions. As regards the period of grace, he considers that seven clear days might be allowed to the employer who pays by the month. The prescription of correspondingly shorter periods in the case of fortnightly and weekly payments appears to be unnecessary. Employers are not likely to revert from the monthly system to a system of more frequent payments merely to evade the Act, in view of the waste of time in the calculation and payment of wages, and the almost inevitable loss of work after pay day which would result.

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 270/X.L.-29—Com., dated the 28th January, 1927.*

In order to elicit opinions on the scheme tentatively suggested by the Government of India, the local Government have consulted their local officers, together with representative employers of labour.

2. The most important industrial areas in Bihar and Orissa are the coalfields of Chota Nagpur, and outside the coalfields such large industrial establishments as the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur, the East Indian Railway workshops at Jamalpur and the factory of the Peninsular Tobacco Company at Monghyr. The number of persons employed under any single employer in iron ore, mica and other mines outside the coalfields is seldom considerable; local industries are still comparatively undeveloped; and for the time being Bihar and Orissa retains its character as a predominantly agricultural province. The Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation together represent almost the entire body of employers in the coalfields. Both are opposed to the suggested legislation on the ground that it is undesirable and uncalled for, and both rely on the statement at page 24 of Bulletin No. 34 that there is no delay in the payment of wages by colliery proprietors. In the Jharia coalfield, wages are paid weekly and in the Raniganj coalfield, daily. The Chief Inspector of Mines has commented that there cannot be said to be any real necessity for legislation so far as mines in this province are concerned, since the waiting period is short.

3. Turning to the greater industrial establishments mentioned above, I am to enclose a copy\* of the reply given by Messrs. Tata Sons on behalf of the Tata Iron and Steel Company. The number of employees in the steel works is approximately 29,000, of whom between 12,000 and 14,000 are paid weekly, while the rest are paid monthly. The Government of India will observe that while the company express their approval of the underlying principle of the scheme suggested for their consideration, namely, that wages should be paid as early as possible, they represent that if legislation were passed on the lines suggested, they would have to ask for special exemption for their firm on the ground that it would not be practicable for a company employing so large a staff as theirs to comply with the law. The number of persons employed in the Jamalpur workshops of the East Indian Railway is approximately 15,000. Wages are paid monthly on the 15th of the succeeding month. As reported by the local Government in paragraph 5 of Mr. Dain's letter No. 81-XL-26-Com., dated the 10th January, 1925, when expressing their opinion on Mr. Chaman Lal's Weekly Payments Bill in the strike on the East Indian Railway in 1922, no complaint was made by the strikers with regard to the period of their wage payment, though every possible grievance was brought out and ventilated. The Peninsula Tobacco Company employ 6,000 workmen. The wages are paid monthly, not later than the 10th day of the month following that in which the wages are earned. The company have stated that the system of monthly payments (which the Government of India appear to condemn) was selected only after exhaustive enquiries into local custom, and as the system which would be best appreciated by their employees and more likely to keep them out of debt than shorter periods.

4. The conclusion which the local Government have drawn is that in organized industry in this province no dissatisfaction has been expressed by workmen with the present system; abuses have not come to light; and that in the circumstances no case for special statutory measures has been established. In paragraph 8 of your letter the Government of India state that abuses are particularly associated with the larger industrial establishments where the work involved in the calculation of wages is heaviest, and where the presence of intermediaries between the workmen and the management and other circumstances tend to aggravate delays. In the smaller establishments lying outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts there are no serious abuses such as would justify the introduction of legislation. His Excellency in Council finds himself unable to assent to this view. The opinion expressed by Messrs. Tata Sons emphasizes the difficulty of rapidly clearing the wages accounts where the number of employees is considerable, but in all large establishments there are regular dates definitely fixed for wage payments. Smaller employers are apt to be very much more casual in their methods, and the local Government, in disagreement with the views expressed by the Government of India, have no doubt that, taking individual cases, the worst instances of delay in the settlement of wage accounts will be found in small establishments suffering from lack of funds rather than in the larger concerns in which capital has been sunk, and where a ready supply of money to meet the regularly recurring bill for wages is recognized as essential to the life of the firm. In paragraph 3 of your letter the Government of India have cited instances in which workers were compelled to strike in order to secure wages which had been held back for unreasonable periods. The local Government can rely only on their own experience to state that no such instances have come to their notice in this province. In 1920 and again in 1922 there was a general strike of the employees of the Tata Iron and Steel Company. As in the case of the strike on the East Indian Railway, so also at Jamshedpur, no dissatisfaction was expressed by the strikers with regard to the periods of wage payments. The Government of India themselves recognize that it would not be practicable to apply their scheme to smaller establishments outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts, and with this expression of opinion the local Government agree. If, on the other hand, the suggested legislation is designed to meet conditions in the larger industrial concerns, the opinion of the local Government is that so far as conditions in this province are concerned, the legislation is not required, and the scheme prepared in outline by the Government of India should be dropped.

5. In conclusion, I am to add the following comments on the details of the Government of India's scheme. It is suggested that any legislation which might be undertaken should be confined in the first instance to wages paid on the monthly system. The Government of India will, of course, recognize that in that event employers who at present pay their workmen a monthly wage would be disposed to adopt shorter periods for the purpose of freeing themselves from the application of the law. The local Government doubt whether this could be claimed to be an advantage. As they stated in Mr. Dain's letter No. 81-Com., dated the 10 January, 1925, the established practice of payment in India is on a monthly basis, and life

is organized accordingly. If among the class affected wages are to be paid weekly (or fortnightly), domestic matters generally will have to be adjusted to the change. There is a considerable body of opinion that the payment of wages in industrial establishments at shorter periods than a month induces thriftlessness and encourages debt, and His Excellency in Council considers that that opinion cannot be ignored. The Government of India consider that there is less need for legislation with regard to weekly and fortnightly period. The view which the local Government desire to emphasize is that if legislation is to be undertaken discrimination should not be made solely against wages paid on a monthly basis.

6. The Government of India recognize that if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the initiative of the workmen, the Act will fail to achieve its object, and for that reason they suggest that the power to prosecute should be granted to some external authority such as an inspecting staff, and they would apparently utilize the staff employed under the Mines and Factories Act for that purpose. The Government of India, however, do not make it clear whether the inspecting staff are to have power to proceed on their own motion or only on complaint made to them by the workman concerned. If, on their own motion, then a great part of the time which they should devote to their regular duties will be lost in preliminary enquiries to ascertain why wages which were due to payment by the 10th of the month were not paid till some days later. The delay may be due to a variety of reasons other than any deliberate intention on the part of the employer to withhold payment. These reasons would require investigation before the inspector could decide whether or not to prosecute. If the inspector is to act only on complaint made by the workman, he would still need to verify the truth of the complaint, and the circumstances in which delay, if any, had occurred, while the workman would be as much exposed to victimization as if he had himself prosecuted his employer. The fact that the prosecution would be conducted not by himself but by a Government Inspector, would not materially affect the position as between himself and the management. Lastly, if duties of the kind suggested by the Government of India are to be thrown on the inspectors employed under the Mines and Factories Act, the present staff would certainly require to be supplemented.

7. To sum up, the Government of Bihar and Orissa consider that conditions in this province are not such as to require legislation to ensure the more prompt payment of wages, and secondly that it is open to question whether legislation on the lines suggested by the Government of India would be successful in improving relations between employers and employed in the matter of wage payments. If, however, the Government of India decide to proceed with their scheme, the local Government would represent that any Act which might be passed should apply to those areas only to which it might be extended by notification. The legislation could thus be confined to any advanced industrial centres where its need may be established, and this province could be excluded until circumstances are found to require these special statutory measures for which existing local conditions supply no present justification.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 986-Com., dated the 9th February, 1927.*

The letter was circulated for opinion to the various commercial bodies usually consulted by the Government of Bengal on such questions; and the Commissioners of Divisions, who consulted the district officers, also examined the proposals in the light of local opinion and practice prevailing within their jurisdictions. The Chief Inspector of Factories and the Chief Inspector of Mines were also asked for their views and the feeling of the working classes was ascertained through Mr. K. C. Roy Chowdhury, M.L.C., who is actively connected with several local trade unions.

2. The facts regarding late payment have already been ascertained, and it will be seen that, though there is little or no dispute on points of facts, a number of reasons have been adduced to prove why legislation is not necessary. Some of these reasons are of a general, and some of a particular, nature. One type of the general arguments is that contained in the reply of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, to the effect that because restrictive measures have been found to be necessary in Europe, it does not necessarily follow that they should be introduced in India. The Chamber says that, because of the operation of the law of supply and demand, the Indian is in a stronger position than the English worker, and has not the need for the same degree of protection by the State. Another type is given in the reply of the Commissioner of the Burdwan Division, viz., that the time of payment is a question which should be settled by labour itself with its employers through its unions. On the latter question, as a general principle, the Governor in Council agrees that the problem should be settled by mutual agreement between master and workmen. The time

of payment, like the payment itself, may be looked upon as part of the contract of service, and, as a matter of policy, it is not advisable to interfere by legal measures with such contracts except in cases of necessity. With respect to the subject under discussion, the facts have been definitely established that payment in many cases is unduly delayed and that hardship results, and interference is justified to remedy a grievance which combined action by Indian workers will take many years to effect. Were the trade union movement in this country of any considerable strength, it is probable that this issue would not have to be raised by the Government of India at all. As is well known; trade unionism in India at present is in a quite embryonic stage, and such indications as exist point to its taking many years to develop sufficient strength to enforce on employers obligations regarding wages which trade unions in the West have done years ago. The Bengal Chamber of Commerce are in error if they think that the restrictive conditions of the West similar to those now suggested by the Government of India have been imposed by legislative action. The restrictive measures of the West in respect to wages are mainly the result of trade union action, and when, and if, trade unions in India develop power similar to that of Western trade unions, it is likely that they will demand the full measure of what the moderate suggestions of the Government of India now propose to give part; like Western unions, they will press for payment at the moment the contract is finished. The Indian worker in this respect is not, as the Bengal Chamber of Commerce say, in a stronger position than the English workmen, and in less need of protection by the State. There are admittedly aspects of the Indian workers' conditions which compare favourably with those of Western workers, but their power to enforce quick payment is not one of them, and it is for this reason that the Governor in Council supports the proposals of the Government of India to give him protection from proved abuse by the action of Government.

3. Several replies, while objecting to the proposals of the Government of India, declare that so far as their particular industry is concerned, there are no abuses. In such cases there can be no fear of the new measure, as the proposals of the Government of India are meant to remedy evils, and where there are no evils there will be no remedy. The commercial interests practically all point out that hitherto there have been no complaints regarding the period of payment. This contention is largely borne out by an analysis of the strike returns compiled by the Government of Bengal. The percentage of strikes, which have been caused by delay in payment, is very small, and most of them have occurred in concerns in which there has been bad management or which have been on the point of going into liquidation. It is true also that delayed payment does not materially affect employees if the payment is regular. There is the initial waiting period which may involve the contracting of debt, but once it is over, regular payment, even though late, is very much the same as regular payment at the end of the period over which the pay was earned. Even so, there is no reason either of logic or of justice why the worker should wait for appreciably long periods after the payment is earned before it is made. Even though the differences between the West and India are marked, there is no specific difference which would seem to allow for late payment. It is now a recognized principle in the West that industrial workers are paid immediately the payment is earned under the contract of engagement. They have no reserve to fall back upon, and their lives are regulated according to their earnings, which are usually paid on a weekly basis. The Indian worker similarly has little or no reserves to fall back on, and there is no valid reason why he should not be treated as industrial workers in Western countries. A common contention in this connection used to be that owners should keep a certain amount of wages in hand to have a hold over workers leaving without due notice or causing loss by carelessness, neglect, or wilful damage to property. This argument has not been advanced against the proposals of the Government of India by the commercial interests who have replied to the reference—a fact which in itself shows that the argument is out of accord with modern notions of the relationship of workers in organized industries to their employers.

4. An analysis of the particular arguments which have been brought against the proposals of the Government of India shows that not a single good reason has been adduced to prove why payment in India should not be made more quickly. The particular reasons all arise from expediency. The manager of the Darjeeling Himalayan Railway, for example, makes a reference to the difficulties arising from the pre-audit system of payments on railways. This is a real difficulty, but that it is not insurmountable is recognized by the agent himself, when he says that if prompt payment is made compulsory the post audit system will have to be introduced. A more formidable contention is put forward by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce when they say that the methods of quicker payment are impracticable. It would require a much larger clerical establishment than any industrial concern can be reasonably expected to provide, they say, to pay several thousands of men on one day or two days by the methods which have to be followed in this country. They

refer particularly to the Indian Jute Mills Association, who are reported to have stated definitely that "payments of weekly wages could not be arranged for earlier than our days after the close of the week." These arguments are not quite consistent with the Chamber's general remarks on the differences between Western and Indian labour. These differences are said to make quicker methods of payment impracticable; whereas they should actually make quicker payment easier. Although there is no difference in principle between piece rates in India and piece rates in the West, there are marked differences in the more recondite applications of the piece system, or in the West it has developed elaborations in bonus, premium bonus, and differential variations which require the highest skill in calculation. In India, however, only simple bonus schemes are in operation, requiring no highly specialized staff for calculation. In the West, even the most intricate piece systems do not prevent prompt payment; thus the argument from the point of view of difficulty of calculation in India is on the side of shorter periods. The particular argument of the Indian Jute Mills Association is even less apposite. The controlling staff of the jute mills are very largely recruited from Dundee and environs, with previous experience of the system of payment in the jute mills of that area. The wages of the jute industry are governed by Trade Board rates, which are exceedingly complicated and difficult of application; yet the argument has never been put forward that this should be a reason for the postponement of payment. In Bengal, where there is not a tithe of the difficulties that exist at Dundee, the contention is not worthy of serious consideration. It may be conceded that the payment of the wages of thousands of employees in one day will be difficult, but this contention, in the view of His Excellency in Council, can hardly be upheld against the clear justice and obvious reasonableness of the proposals of the Government of India.

5. With the general principles set out in paragraph 6 of the Government of India letter, I am to say that the Governor in Council is in agreement. The adoption of shorter periods of payment referred to in paragraphs 4 and 5 of the Government of India's letter has already been dismissed as impracticable by the Government of Bengal—*vide* their letter No. 7-T.-Com., dated the 26th May, 1925. The proposal to set statutory limits to the time in which wages must be paid is both reasonable and practicable. The periods suggested are also accepted—*viz.*, within a week of the close of the month for monthly wages, within four days for fortnightly wages, within two days for weekly wages and within one day for daily wages. The Governor in Council is not in favour of discrimination between bonuses and wages, except in the case of long periods—*i.e.*, half-yearly and annual bonuses. As already mentioned, the bonus system in vogue here is relatively simple; indeed, piecework and bonus on the work of an individual means very much the same thing, and should be paid at the same time as ordinary wages. The principle of the suggestion that the date on which the month should commence should be left to the employer, subject to the approval of the local Government, is also accepted; but if such a provision is to be included in the Act, the Government of Bengal would prefer that the approval should be subject to the Chief Inspector of Factories or the Chief Inspector of Mines.

It is undesirable to distinguish between cash and kind payment. Industrial wages should be normally taken to mean cash wages, and the mention of "kind" payment would introduce into the legislation the element of Truck, which should, if necessary, be dealt with separately. The power of exemption suggested by the Government of India is also accepted, as it will give elasticity in the application of the provisions of the legislation, but the limits within which the exemption should be permitted should be narrow and no general exemption should be permitted. Exemption should also be subject to written reasons and specified conditions. The local Government doubt the wisdom of prescribing a minimum percentage of the wages which, paid within the statutory period, would secure compliance with the law. The power of exemption should give sufficient elasticity in applying the measure; to permit anything less than full wages being the statutory requirement would open the door to multitudes of pleas among which local Governments would find much difficulty in discriminating.

6. The attention of the Government of India is particularly invited to the letter of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce so far as it concerns contractors. As the Government of India are aware, a very large proportion of work in engineering works in Bengal is done through contractors, and the difficulty mentioned in the Bengal Chamber's letter is a very important one. It will be recalled that a similar difficulty appeared when the Workmen's Compensation Act was under discussion, and that it was successfully overcome by the provisions laid down in section 12 of that Act. To exempt contractors from the provisions of the proposed legislation would largely nullify its objects, as evasion would be made possible by the simple expedient of declaring labour to be contract labour. There seem to be two possible methods of solving this problem. One is to incorporate in the law a provision parallel to section 12 of the Workmen's Compensation Act, by which if the principal were penalized

under the Act, he would be liable to be indemnified by the contractor. The other is to bring the contractors themselves within the provisions of the Act. I am to say that the Governor in Council prefers the latter alternative on the ground that it would be unfair to good employers to have to incur the odium of conviction even with possible indemnification, when they were not primarily responsible for breaking the law.

7. With respect to the enforcement and the scope of the legislation, I am to say that the views of the Government of India as contained in paragraphs 7 and 8 of the letter under reply have the general support of the Government of Bengal. Prompt recovery should be provided by some form of summary procedure, and fines should be provided for offences, with the possibility of assigning the whole or part of the fine to the injured person. The principle that the enforcement of the Act, for the reasons given by the Government of India, should depend not on the workers themselves, but on an external authority is well established in the West, particularly in the Trade Board legislation of Great Britain, under which inspectors are appointed to enforce the provisions of the Trade Boards Acts. The Government of Bengal also agree that, in the first instance, the legislation should be applied only to organized industry—i.e., to concerns which come within the jurisdiction of the existing Factory and Mines legislation. It is doubted whether the evils of late payment are more common in large than in small concerns, but it is obviously impossible at the present stage of development to go beyond the bounds of existing Acts. All replies are unanimous regarding the scope of the legislation. I am, however, to say that the Governor in Council is of opinion that it should be open to local Governments to designate the officers who will be responsible for enforcing the Act. Normally the work will be done by the Factory and Mines Inspection staff. The ascertainment of the dates of payment during routine inspections will not be a heavy addition to the existing work of the department. Difficulties will arise, however, in cases of individual complaints, particularly from factories at a distance from headquarters. The Factory Inspection Department in Bengal is already heavily worked; and His Excellency in Council would hesitate normally to add to this work burdens which in any way might interfere with its main duties under the Factories Act. It is not anticipated that the accretion of duties under the proposed legislation will be heavy; but he would prefer that the legislation should permit of the appointment of district or other officers as inspectors under the Act in order to obviate journeys by Factory Inspectors, and also to facilitate the easy disposal of cases on the spot. With regard to the form that this part of the legislation should take, I am to recommend a perusal of sections 14, 15, 16 and 17 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Ed. VII Ch. 22).

*Letter from the Government of the United Provinces, No. 517, dated the 16th February, 1927.*

This Government have consulted the two Chambers of Commerce at Cawnpore, the Mazdur Sabha, the Director of Industries, the Board of Industries, the Chief Inspector of Factories, and the Superintendent, Government Press. The opinions received are divided. The United Provinces Chamber consider that the delay in paying wages is generally not deliberate, but is due to the time taken in preparation of the pay rolls, which involve a large amount of calculation. But if the facts in possession of the Government of India warrant a conclusion that payment is unreasonably delayed, the Chamber would not oppose legislation. They propose, however, that the statutory limits of time within which wages must be paid should be ten days, five days, three days and one day, respectively, for monthly, fortnightly, weekly and daily wages. But they urge that these limits should not apply to piece-work at all, and believe that the suggestion to prescribe for the payment of 75 per cent. of the wages earned for this class of work within the statutory period would lead to serious administrative difficulties. They would not confer power to prosecute on any external authority and would confine the measure to mines and factories only. The Upper India Chamber begins by protesting "respectfully but very emphatically against the ever-increasing tendency on the part of the Government of India to favour the introduction of legislative measures in connection with industrial labour employed in factories, which measures are almost invariably in the direction of improving the conditions and the class-power of labour at the expense of the employer." They assert that such legislation has constituted a handicap on industrial expansion and that the continued tendency to favour labour at the expense of the employer will shortly constrain the employer to claim protection against his labourers. They impress upon the Government their feeling that the country is not ripe for the labour conditions which the Government are attempting to impose on it by legislation. Turning to details, the Chamber deny that the information collected by the Government of India reveals an unsatisfactory state of affairs. It is not alarming that monthly wages should be paid from 10 to 15 days after the close of the month.



In a large factory this period is the minimum necessary for calculating the wages due and the price of piece-work. They admit that in some cases hardship results in the first month of employment, but this is alleviated by the readiness of employers to make advances during that period. If legislation is to be enforced, they would increase the statutory period from a week to ten or twelve days for monthly payments, and from four to seven or ten days for fortnightly payments. They strongly protest against vesting in any external authority the power to prosecute. They would not confine the measure to factories and mines, but would extend it to all Government services,\* tea gardens, plantations, in fact all employers of labour, especially railways and municipalities where the delay is as great or greater than in factories.

2. The Director of Industries is not aware of any hardship caused to workmen by the delay in payment of wages, and neither he nor the Board of Industries see any need for legislation in this province.

3. On the other hand, the Mazdur Sabha, the Chief Inspector of Factories and the Superintendent, Government Press, consider legislation necessary. The Mazdur Sabha would fix five days, three days, and one day for monthly, fortnightly and weekly payments, respectively. They would confine legislation to mine and factories, and would for the present vest in the inspecting staff the power to prosecute. When the Sabha is well organized it will, they think, be able to enforce the law on the employers. The Chief Inspector states that the Cawnpore mills generally take from ten to fifteen days to pay wages, and he thinks legislation would serve a useful purpose in reducing this period. He would grant the power to prosecute to an external authority such as an inspector of factories. The Superintendent, Government Press, states that employers withhold payment of fifteen days as "this period coincides with the period of notice customarily demanded from monthly workers before they leave service." He holds that delays favour the operations of the moneylender. He would introduce legislation to compel monthly payments within ten days, and not seven as proposed by the Government of India. He thinks that these ten days will be more than sufficient for the reckoning of wages, and will give employers ample safeguard against desertion of workers. As to the authority to prosecute, he would give powers both to the workmen and the external authority. Finally, he urges that the evil is not confined to large establishments only. The small employer is just as ready as the large to safeguard himself against desertion by postponing wages. He would therefore extend the measure to all establishments where 20 or more workers are employed.

4. Opinions for and against legislation are thus fairly evenly balanced. Employers generally oppose the proposal and employees welcome it. This Government think that there is something to be said on both sides. There are two main causes of the delay in paying wages. One is inevitable; the other is not. The first cause is the time which must be taken to calculate the workmen's dues. This calculation is not a simple matter. Owing to fines and to absenteeism it takes a long time in a big factory to calculate the wages due to workmen. If piece wages are paid the time will probably be longer. That this is a real difficulty is proved by the delays which occurred in district boards, even under official chairmen, in paying the wages of teachers. The difficulty arises in calculating pay for men who have been on leave or fined or promoted. At least ten days are probably required for the payment of monthly wages. The second cause of delay is avoidable. It is due to the employer's desire to postpone payment in order to prevent discontented employees from leaving as soon as they get their pay. A discontented workman receiving his pay on the fourth or fifth day of the month may be ready to resign his post without giving notice and to forfeit the four or five days pay due. But a postponement of payment for ten or fifteen days ties him to the factory. The longer the employer defers payment the stronger is the tie. The employer's anxiety to retain his labour is intelligible in a country where a labourer is only a part-time industrialist, ready to drift back to the land on the least discouragement, and to leave his employer in the lurch. None the less, in so far as the employer's action is an interference with the labourer's right to seek employment where he will, it ought not to be countenanced by the State.

5. None of the critics of this measure have remarked that after the first period of waiting, wages are actually paid monthly, even though delayed. For example, if a labourer is employed on 1st January, he may get no pay until 20th February. If the factory continues to delay his wages, he will thereafter get his pay on 20th March, 20th April, and so on. A variation of one or two days on either side makes no difference. If the workman can get an advance during the first six or seven weeks when he draws no wages, he will suffer no hardship from the recurrent postponement of pay. If he wishes to resign, and gives notice at the beginning of the month, he would be entitled when paid on the 30th day of the month to draw his wage also for the 30 days.

6. This Government consider that the demand for the measure in this province is insignificant, possibly because delay in payment ceases to operate as a hardship after the first period of waiting. On general grounds they think it undesirable to add to the rapidly growing volume of labour legislation a measure which employees generally have not asked for, and which employers strongly oppose. In this view they are influenced also by the prospective difficulty of enforcing the law. It would be necessary to appoint numerous inspectors and they would be difficult to supervise. As the arguments against legislation appear considerably stronger than the reasons in favour of it, this Government are opposed to proceeding with it.

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, No. 5773/859/D., dated the 16th February, 1927.*

In considering legislation of the kind proposed the Governor in Council agrees with the view expressed by the Government of India in their letter under reference that if abuses can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation. It is, however, essential first to ascertain whether the evil, it is desired to eradicate is a real one, and prevails to such an extent as to justify the somewhat drastic remedy of penal legislation with its natural accompaniments—interference with long established methods of conducting business and an addition to the expenditure of local Governments. Such considerations would carry no weight if the lot of the workers in this Presidency could be improved by legislation of the kind proposed, and it is necessary, therefore, to examine the proposed legislation and the assumptions on which it rests in order to see if the conditions laid down have been fulfilled.

2. It is suggested that Government action is necessary because systematic delays in the payment of wages add appreciably to the economic difficulties of workmen. This is perfectly sound theoretically, but it requires examination in the light of the practice as regards payment in industry generally, and when so examined this argument loses a good deal of its force. As is pointed out by the Bombay Millowners' Association, who quote a speech of the Honourable Sir B. N. Mitra, Member of Industries and Labour, in the Legislative Assembly in February last, "What the worker wants is that his wages should be paid quickly." The workers whose economic difficulties are affected by the present delay of a fortnight in the payment of monthly wages are those who take up employment in a particular mill or other establishments for the first time, *i.e.*, it is only the first period of wages that is withheld for longer than a month, because after the first period of waiting is over the worker gets his wages regularly every month. Under the monthly system of payment prevalent throughout India—with which it is not proposed to interfere—a new worker entering a mill, etc., at the beginning of a month, has to wait nearly six weeks for his first month's wages. Thereafter he is paid promptly every month. The legislation that is proposed would, therefore, in practice benefit only the irregular or casual worker or the person entering into employment for the first time, and then only to the extent that at the best he would receive his *first* wages a fortnight earlier than is usual, but most probably not more than a week earlier than usual. The Governor in Council is unable to see that the economic position of industrial workers generally would be materially assisted by legislation of this kind. There is an almost general consensus of opinion that legislation of the kind proposed should be, and could in practice only be, applied to those establishments coming under the Factories and Mines Acts, and these are the establishments where the regular payment of wages is the rule. The practical effect of such legislation, therefore, would be to permit a relatively small number of workmen to receive their first month's wages a week earlier than they do at present. The Governor in Council is unable to agree that penal legislation is necessary in such circumstances, for the practical benefit to the worker in industry generally would be negligible. While, therefore, of opinion that the proposed legislation is not required, the Governor in Council desires to offer his views on the points raised in the Government of India's letter in case it is decided by the Government of India to proceed with legislation.

3. *Scope of the Measure.*—As has been mentioned in a previous paragraph, opinion is overwhelmingly in favour of confining such legislation, if it is necessary, to establishments subject to the Factories and Mines Acts, the main reason for such limitation being the practical impossibility of enforcement if it were made generally applicable. The Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation are in agreement with the Government of India as regards the difficulties which must arise in legislation of this sort and these are such that legislation could only affect those concerns coming under the Factories or Mines Acts. "This appears to be one of the weaknesses of the whole scheme," says the Federation, "as it restricts the legislation to concerns which are generally well organized, and where abuses are less likely to be found and leaves the smaller concerns entirely free to carry on as they please. If it is not possible to make legislation of this nature universal it were better left alone altogether." The

workers' interests generally agree to this limited application, but suggest that State employment, railways, municipalities and all organized industries in large establishments should be covered, while the Central Labour Board is of opinion that it should also be extended to other industrial concerns "where the more intellectual classes such as clerks are employed." The Bombay Textile Labour Union recognize that additional staff would have to be employed, but consider it is worth while incurring this extra expenditure.

4. The Governor in Council, for the reasons given in previous paragraphs, is unable to accept this view, because he believes that the measure could not be enforced outside establishments under the Factories and Mines Acts where, as has been pointed out, there is little cause for complaint that wages are not paid regularly. The Governor in Council, however, concurs with the view expressed by the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, and one or two other officials, that even if the Act is restricted in its scope, power should be taken under the Act to extend it, if necessary, the power being vested in the local Governments.

5. *Method of Enforcement.*—Opinion on this subject is largely in favour of the responsibility for enforcing legislation being confined to the existing Factories' and Mines staff. The Chairman of the Bombay Port Trust considers that the procedure to be adopted in regard to inspections should be very carefully defined, it being clearly desirable to avoid all unnecessary intreferece with the internal management of the concerns affected. "It would probably be sufficient in most cases if the employers were required to furnish periodical certified returns showing the period and date of disbursement of their staff wages." The workers' interests, however, favour an "outside and independent agency" to enforce the Act. The Chief Presidency Magistrate is of opinion that it should be open to any workman to institute proceedings on his own initiative, prosecutions by inspecting officers of the Factories or Mines Departments being merely an additional facility. The late Sir Lallubhai Shah, Judge, Bombay High Court, was of opinion that the power to prosecute should not be given to any external authority such as an inspecting staff, but a provision should be inserted granting any number of workmen from the same establishment the power to join in one proceeding. The more general opinion seems to be that in the present state of the organization of labour, the Act would be a dead letter if it were left to the workers to initiate prosecutions. The Chief Inspector of Factories suggests that work under the proposed measure in districts would entail considerable expenditure and waste of time, in the event of prosecution being considered necessary, which could be reduced a great deal if *ex-officio* inspectors (local officials) were empowered to act as prosecuting officers. The Bombay European Textile Association objects that the duties of the Factory Inspector should not entail having to take sides between employers and employees where wages are concerned.

6. The Governor in Council has given careful consideration to the various suggestions that have been made, but he is unable to agree that the power of putting the penal law in motion should be given to any other authority than the officials who would be responsible for administering the Act, that is Factory Inspectors. The Director of Information and Labour Intelligence points out that a clear distinction should be drawn between procedure for the prompt recovery of wages due to a worker and the punishment of an employer for an infringement of the law. A workman or an organisation of workmen can draw attention to breaches of the Act, and ask for the law to be put in motion, but the initiation of proceedings should be in the hands of the administrative authority. The Governor in Council concurs with this view, and is opposed to any suggestion that the power to prosecute should be given to private individuals or associations of individuals.

7. *Statutory Limits of Wage Payments.*—The Governor in Council agrees with the view expressed in paragraph 5 of the Government of India's letter that a Bill providing for the weekly payment of wages is not likely to receive the support of public opinion or to prove effective in its operation. After the general strike in the Bombay mills in the early part of 1924, His Excellency the Governor interested himself in the question of the fortnightly payments of wages and the Millowners' Association took steps to ascertain the views of the millhands themselves. Replies were received from practically all the mills in the city and island of Bombay, and, with the exception of two mills, all the operatives expressed themselves as being in favour of the continuance of the present system of monthly payments. It was pointed out by one group of mills that in 1912 they made the experiment of fortnightly payments, but the attempt had to be given up owing to the opposition from the workpeople. The workers' interests, who have dealt with this point in their reply to the Government of India's letter, recognize that the system of monthly payment is the one most favoured by the workers. The Social Service League has, however, every hope that public opinion will soon be unanimous for weekly payment of wages, while the Bombay Textile Labour Union feels confident that, if the advantages accruing from a weekly system of wage payments were fully explained to the workers, they would withdraw their

opposition, and agree to the system of payments for shorter periods. One labour organization, however, definitely states that the monthly system of wages is more advantageous to the majority of workers. The Bombay European Textile Association point out that the Association had approved of the fortnightly payment of wages, but when their members were instructed by their respective employers to persuade the operatives employed under them to accept this system, they were in almost every case informed by the operatives themselves that any departure from the present monthly system would be detrimental to their interests. The operatives refused to accept any change from the present system, and said that any attempt to change would be met by a strike.

8. The Governor in Council is in entire agreement with the views expressed almost unanimously by well-informed opinion. The legislation, therefore, should deal only with wages paid under the existing system, which in the Bombay Presidency is almost universally monthly, the chief exception being in the Ahmedabad mills. As has been pointed out above, legislation will to all intents and purposes benefit only the irregular or casual worker, and the workers taking up employment for the first time, and in view of these limited benefits it is necessary to examine the reasons for the present system of paying wages from 10 to 15 days after the end of the month, and to see whether this period could not be altered, without undue disorganization of the industries concerned.

9. *Period within which Wages should be paid.*—The Bombay Chamber of Commerce point out that any acceleration of the payment of wages, *i.e.*, in less than 15 days could not be enforced without a general revision of the period for making up accounts. The obstacle in the way of payment of monthly wages within a shorter period than 15 days after "making-up day" are (1) the difficulty of introducing satisfactory mechanical timekeeping appliances; (2) the considerable amount of clerical labour which would be involved owing to the fact that overtime is worked up to the last day of the month, and men are employed on different grades of work at varying rates of pay; and (3) the delays incidental to workpeople being employed at a distance from headquarters. The Chamber point out that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to pay within one week, specially in the case of railways and many public bodies, owing to the delay in getting in paysheets and having them checked and returned. The Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation are very strongly of the opinion that a fortnight from the end of the period under calculation for monthly payments, and a week for fortnightly payments is the absolute minimum that should be allowed. The Bombay Millowners' Association think that the rights of labour would be sufficiently protected if legislation is enacted prohibiting the withholding of wages for more than a fortnight after they have become due. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association has no objection to restricting the period of payment for monthly wage earners to 10 days. The spinners and weavers in the Ahmedabad mills receive their wages every fortnight, on the eighth day after they become due, and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association are strongly opposed to any departure being made from this practice. The Karachi Chamber of Commerce think that ten days would be a reasonable period for monthly workers and five days for fortnightly, three days for weekly and the following day in the case of casual workers paid by the day for a day's work; but this should not be made to apply to employees who, though working on a daily wage, are in effect permanently employed and are paid monthly, the daily being merely the basis of computing the monthly sum due. The Bombay Port Trust consider six days a reasonable period counting Sundays and holidays as *dies non*. The Karachi Port Trust is prepared to make arrangements so as to enable payments being made within a week of the close of the month. The Municipal Commissioner thinks that the period of payment would have to be extended to fourteen days or at least the tenth working day after the close of the month. The Central Labour Board can see no reason why wages should not be paid after five days, or after two days in the case of payments made fortnightly. The Bombay Textile Labour Union suggests a week and four days respectively, two days in the case of weekly wages and the same day for daily wages. The Ahmedabad Labour Union would allow three to four days in the case of fortnightly wages.

10. The Governor in Council after due consideration of all the views expressed concurs with those of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, and desires to draw attention to the remarks made by that officer. The Governor in Council again wishes to emphasize the fact that in organized industries wages are already paid *regularly*, and the practical benefit of reducing the period within which wages must be paid after they become due is very small. The Governor in Council, therefore, is inclined to the view that so far as piece workers are concerned, 14 days should be allowed after the end of the month, but in the case of workers on time rates the period should be seven days. In the Ahmedabad mill industry, where payment on a fortnightly basis is general—the men affected being mostly pieceworkers—and for fortnightly wages generally, the period should be seven days. For weekly workers

it should be three days, but where workers are engaged from day to day they should be paid off at the end of each day. The Governor in Council desires to draw attention to the remarks of the Karachi Port Trust, the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence and others, and to point out that it is important in framing legislation that the period for which wages are paid and the rate at which they are calculated, should be kept distinct, because workers may be engaged on weekly or daily rates of pay, but may be paid once a month or once a fortnight or once a week as the case may be.

11. Employers should also be empowered to fix the date upon which they elect to begin and close the month, and to fix different dates for different departments.

12. *Inclusion of Bonuses.*—Only a few opinions were received on the question of including bonuses within the scope of the legislation. The Governor in Council is of opinion that where a bonus is another name for a high cost of living allowance or an allowance at a fixed percentage over basic rates, or is a reward for good work or good attendance, and is provided for in the muster rolls and paid regularly month by month, it should be treated as other wages are treated. Bonuses which take the form of payment to the employees when the profits of the business, in the opinion of the employers, justify such a distribution, should clearly not be affected by the operation of the Act.

13. *Limitations of Wages to Payments in Cash.*—Only two opinions have been received on this subject, both of which are in favour of payments in cash. The Governor in Council does not consider that any expression of opinion is called for upon this question, as it could more appropriately be dealt with in any legislation which might be considered necessary as the result of the enquiry which is now being conducted at the request of the Government of India into the question of fines in industry and deductions from wages.

14. *Penalties for Infringement.*—None of the non-official bodies consulted and very few officials have expressed any opinion as to the extent of the penalty. The Governor in Council concurs with the suggestion of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence that penalties might be fixed at Rs. 100 for the first offence, Rs. 250 for the second offence and Rs. 500 for third and subsequent offences. The fines recovered under the Act should be credited to the Public Treasury in the same way as the fines inflicted for any breach of the law.

15. *Exemptions.*—The Governor in Council is of opinion that power should be reserved to local Governments to grant exemptions from the Act in cases where special circumstances render this necessary.

16. *Payment of Wages for Broken Periods.*—Several questions have been raised in the course of the enquiry regarding points not specifically covered by the Government of India's letter. The most important relate to the question of the forfeiture and withholding of wages. The period of notice in any particular industry varies, and is largely a question of customs which it will be difficult to deal with by legislation, but the question of payment for broken periods should be considered. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association point out that it is the practice in the Ahmedabad mills not to pay wages to operatives unless they put in a full seven days, and the Association strongly objects to any departure being made from this practice. The Social Service League point out that in some mills in Bombay the discharged employees are not paid there and then, but are asked to wait until the next pay day, but if they want their wages paid at once they have to pay some commission or discount. This is called the *Havala* system. The League say that this system is unfair to workmen, and when a month's previous notice has been given or received by the employer, there is no reason why the employee should have to pay any commission for securing his wages for the work already done by him. The complaint of the employers, however, is that workers leave without any notice at all, and it is in order to endeavour to check this practice that wages are sometimes kept in hand. Attention is also drawn to the practice of forfeiting wages not claimed within six months, and to the fact that within that period of six months wages are only paid on certain fixed days. The Bombay Textile Labour Union draws attention to the hardship upon workers who are not paid off when they are discharged or given notice, and to the question of forfeiture after six months.

17. The Governor in Council is of opinion that this question of prompt payment for broken periods depends upon whether the period of employment is broken by the action of the employer or of the employee. Where an employee takes a job which is payable monthly and leaves before the end of that period, it is not unreasonable for the employer to insist that the ordinary procedure should be followed, and that the wages should not be payable until the regular pay day. Where, however, an employer himself gives notice to an employee at any time in the course of the month he should be compelled to pay the wages of that employee up-to-date, and the wages of that employee should continue until payment is received.

## MEMORANDUM RELATING TO SEAMEN BY THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (GOVERNMENT OF INDIA).

## I.—Recruitment.

5. The recruitment of seamen is governed by Section 25 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (Act XXI of 1923), according to which no person shall engage or supply a seaman to be entered on board any ship in British India unless that person either holds a licence under the Act for the purpose, or is the owner or master or mate of the ship, or is *bona fide* the servant and in the constant employ of the owner, or is a shipping master. Under Section 25 (2), no person shall employ, for the purpose of engaging or supplying a seaman to be entered on board any ship in British India, any person unless that person either holds a licence under the Act for the purpose, or is the owner or master or mate of the ship, or is *bona fide* the servant and in the constant employment of the owner, or is a shipping master. Licences have been issued in the past by the local Governments under Section 24 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act to persons to engage or supply seamen for merchant ships in British India. Such licences, which are liable to be revoked, are now granted by the Governor General in Council for such period and under such terms and conditions as he thinks proper.

As a result of the recommendation of the Seamen's Recruitment Committee, the question of revising the system of recruitment of seamen at the principal ports of Calcutta and Bombay has been engaging the attention of the Government of India for some time past, and it has recently been decided that there should be two methods of recruitment of serangs and butlers (the leading ratings), either of which may be adopted by the shipping companies.

The first method is recruitment by the ship-owners or their agents direct. This method has been followed by the British India Steam Navigation Company at Calcutta, and Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company at Bombay, for some time past; and most of the shipping companies at Calcutta have agreed to adopt it for the recruitment of their leading ratings. It has also been adopted by the British India Steam Navigation Company and one or two of the smaller companies at Bombay. The system which it is proposed to adopt is as follows :—

(1) The companies will maintain registers of the serangs and butlers in their regular employ.

(2) The selection of serangs and butlers will be done at their own offices by their own marine superintendents, chief officers, chief engineers, etc.

(3) Preference will, as far as possible, be given to men on the register who have been longest out of employ.

(4) The broker will not be employed in any capacity in the selection.

(5) Intimation that a crew is wanted will be given, not through a broker, but by means of a notice board at the companies' offices. This notice will specify the ship for which the crew is required and will give the date and hour at which the leading ratings will be selected.

(6) On the date fixed, the leading ratings will assemble and the selection will be made from those present.

(7) The lower ratings will be recruited by the marine superintendents or the ship's officers or a regular employee of the firm with the aid of the leading ratings.

The second method is the recruitment of the leading ratings through the shipping office by means of an employment register for serangs and butlers, and selection at an open muster. This method has been devised for ship-owners or agents, who may not find it possible to make the necessary arrangements for the adoption of the first method. According to this method an employment register of serangs and butlers will be maintained in the shipping offices. Here, again, intimation that a crew is wanted will be given, not through the brokers, but by a notice on the notice board at the shipping office. The notice will specify the ship for which a crew is required and the date and hour at which the leading ratings will be selected. At the time stated the owners or agents' officers or the ships' officers will attend and select the leading ratings from among those present at the open muster. The lower ratings will be recruited by the officers of the owners' or agents' or by the ships' officers.

It is hoped that the adoption of these systems of recruitment will remove the broker entirely from all connection with the selection of the leading ratings, and will limit his employment as an intermediary in the recruitment of the lower ratings almost entirely to the supply of men to fill vacancies occurring immediately prior to the vessels' departure.

At Calcutta it was the practice prior to the year 1925 to grant, on payment of the prescribed fee, first issue continuous discharge certificates marked "No previous sea service" to all applicants applying for these certificates, irrespective of whether

they had obtained employment. These new recruits, about 10,000 annually, joined the ranks of seamen waiting for employment, and possibly the majority sooner or later got away to sea as "first voyagers." The annual addition of this large number to the ranks of seamen waiting for employment at the port only served to accentuate the unemployment problem and to intensify the post-war outcry in regard to unemployment.

In 1925 the number of new recruits enrolled out of the applicants attending daily was gradually reduced under the orders of the shipping master, and at the end of the year this method of enrolment was stopped altogether. According to the present practice, "first voyage certificates" are only issued on the receipt of a written undertaking from the ships' officers to the effect that the men will be signed on for the current voyage, and then only to those who have passed the medical examination held by the ship's medical officer. Under this procedure the number enrolled each year is about 5,000.

Sukhanes (quartermasters) at Calcutta, are selected at an open muster held at the shipping office. The selection is made by the marine superintendents of the shipping firms or by the ships' officers.

*Desirability of establishing Employment Agencies.*—The majority of lascar seamen are partly agriculturists, and after a period of service at sea often return to their homes in the districts for considerable periods. They form themselves into groups—this is particularly so in Bombay—and these groups attach themselves to head ratings who belong to their districts and whom they know. They will seldom agree to be employed unless their friends are engaged on the same vessel. In fact, the serang is the crew. He takes the chief part in their selection and is responsible for the efficient working of the lower ratings under him. In these circumstances it is more than doubtful whether any employment agency could be worked with success.

## II.—Organization of Managing Staff.

13. Complaints against the master or officers of a ship under Section 92 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, are few and far between. Relations between the superior staff and the seamen appear to be satisfactory.

## III.—Housing.

16, 18 and 19. With the exception of a certain amount of housing provided by employers in Calcutta for seamen employed on inland steam vessels, housing is not provided for Indian seamen by employers, Government or other public agency.

In Calcutta, a small percentage of Indian seamen—those who have made their homes in Calcutta—live in their own homes.

With the above minor exceptions, Indian seamen, while ashore at the ports and not at their homes in the districts, live in so-called boarding homes belonging to private landlords. The Goanese seamen (the saloon crew), when ashore in port, live in "clubs" run by themselves.

Indian seamen do not live with their families in the seaport towns. Their families remain at their homes in the districts. The accommodation supplied by the "boarding houses" is, therefore, of the simplest, and several men usually share one room. The boarding houses in Calcutta are generally of a poor character, chiefly of the single-storied tiled type; dark, damp and unhealthy looking.

The clubs in which the Goanese live provide similar accommodation, but of a considerably better character. The accommodation provided is usually fully utilized.

20. *Bombay.*—The usual rent paid by the Indian seamen is Re. 1 per month. In the Goanese clubs the monthly charge varies from Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 3.

*Calcutta.*—The Indian seaman pays a rent of 8 annas a month, Rs. 6 a year, for his accommodation in the boarding house whether he occupies it or not. In the Goanese club the annual charge is about Rs. 12.

*Rangoon.*—The charge in the boarding houses for Indian seamen is reported to be Re. 1-8 annas per month.

## IV.—Health.

23. The general condition of health of Indian seamen may be described as good. They are medically examined before being signed on for employment on board a ship. In Calcutta, the average number who fail to pass the doctor may be taken at 8 per cent. The most usual causes for rejection by the doctor are venereal disease, respiratory troubles and skin complaints. The agreement with seamen is in the form

sanctioned by the Government of India under Sections 27 and 28 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923. This form prescribes the latitudinal and time limits of the voyage or voyages, and provides for the free supply of warm clothing to the crew and the heating of their quarters in case the vessel proceeds to certain latitudes during the winter months. A scale of provision is included in the agreement and at the commencement of every foreign-going voyage the shipping master inspects the crews' provisions and water in the presence of the serangs. The Act also provides for complaints from seamen regarding bad or insufficient food or water and for compensation therefor to seamen. Provision is also made in the Merchant Shipping law in regard to accommodation and medical attendance of seamen on board ships. The accommodation must be properly ventilated and protected from the weather and the sea, and the minimum space required for each lascar seaman is specified—*vide* Sections 198 to 211 of the English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 ; Sections 25–27, 34 and 64 of the English Act of 1906 ; and Sections 85–91 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923. Due precaution is thus taken for the health of seamen on board ship.

No reliable figures of mortality among seamen are available as the majority die in districts where their homes are. The figures of mortality on board ship among lascar seamen engaged at the port of Bombay for the last three years are as follows :— 1926–27, 141 ; 1927–28, 126 ; 1928–29, 102.

24. The Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Section 209) requires a doctor to be carried by every foreign-going ship, as defined in that Act, which has 100 persons or more on board. The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923 (Sections 184 and 201), also provides for a doctor when more than 100 passengers or pilgrims are carried between Indian and Red Sea ports. When no doctor is carried, any illness or injury to a seaman at sea is attended to by the master, who is instructed by the Medical Guide prescribed for the purpose by the Board of Trade. Serious cases, or cases requiring hospital treatment, are left in hospital at the first port of call. In urgent cases at sea, the master can obtain medical advice by wireless from any port within call or any vessel within call, which carries a doctor. In case of illness or injury on board a vessel in port which carries no doctor, the practice is to get a doctor from the shore. Most, if not all, shipping companies employ a doctor on shore for this purpose. In the case of hurt or injury in the service of the ship, or illness not due to the wilful act or default of the seamen, all medical and maintenance expenses incurred until the seamen is cured or returned to his home port or dies (and in the latter case the expenses of burial), are payable by the owner of the ship.

At the port of Calcutta, sick seamen are admitted for treatment into the Presidency General Hospital, the Campbell Hospital, the Mayo Hospital and the Howrah Hospital. Hospital charges are met from the Hospital Port Dues Fund, constituted under Section 49 of the Indian Ports Act.

In Rangoon, free treatment is given at the following hospitals, to which seamen are sent by the port health officer and medical officers attending the ships :—(1) The General Hospital, Rangoon ; (2) The Contagious Disease Hospital, Rangoon ; and (3) The Ram Krishna Hospital, in East Rangoon.

In Bombay, seamen are treated in the Jamsetjee Jeejibhoy, Goculdas Tajpal, and other hospitals.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. There is no recognized institution in Bombay connected with the welfare of Indian seamen. The establishment of an Indian Sailors' Home in Bombay, has been under consideration for some time, and a committee appointed by Government is now considering the whole question. The Bombay Port Trust have already agreed to provide a suitable site or sites free of charge for the purpose and it is expected that the institution will come into existence before long. In Calcutta and Rangoon no institute caters especially for the welfare of Indian seamen. The existing Sailors' Home in Calcutta, is at present purely an institution for non-Indian officers and seamen. The home is being replaced by another institution to be called the Marine Club. Under the Memoranda and Articles of Association of the new (Marine) Club, Indian seamen are not excluded from the possible future benefits arising from the club.

36. So far as is known, no special facilities exist for the education of lascar seamen and their children.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

Since April, 1926, all the shipping companies have consented to the insertion in the Articles of Agreement of a clause by which they agree to pay compensation in cases of injury to or death by accident of any lascar or other native seamen in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923. Before that date, Indian seamen employed on vessels registered in the United



Kingdom were entitled to compensation under the English Act of 1906 and not under the Indian Act. The present arrangement is much more satisfactory, as it enables claims to be dealt with sooner and the claimants can appeal to the commissioner for workmen's compensation in case they are not satisfied with the compensation received. The decision of the commissioner is final.

### IX.—Hours.

55. There are no legislative provisions, stipulations arising out of collective agreements, or arbitration decisions or awards regulating the working periods on board ship. It is only by custom that the period of work is regulated, and the working periods vary with different ratings and also to some extent on different lines. There is, therefore, no standard time-table in force, but the hours of work are generally as follows:—

*Deck Hands.*—At sea, from about 5.30 a.m. or 6 a.m. to 5 p.m. or 5.30 p.m., with two intervals of one hour each for meals and one hour's duty on look-out. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays and Sundays. On Saturdays from 5.30 a.m. or 6 a.m. to 2 p.m. or 1 p.m., with one hour off for meals, and on Sundays from 5.30 or 6 a.m. to 9 a.m. In port from 6 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with the same intervals for meals and shorter hours as above on Saturdays and Sundays.

*Engines Room Crew.*—At sea, the crew is divided into watches. Each watch is four hours on duty and 8 hours off duty. In port, the hours of duty are from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m., with intervals for meals as above. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays—7 a.m. to 2 p.m., with one hour off—and no work is done on Sundays, except that necessary to maintain lighting and sanitary services.

*Saloon Crew.*—The duties performed by this section of the crew are so various that any general statement regarding hours of work would be misleading. Broadly speaking, men are required to be on duty during service hours, which vary with the class of employment and the rating of the individual.

The men are, however, liable to be called out at any time in case of emergency. Such emergencies occur seldom and overtime is avoided as far as possible. When overtime becomes necessary, it is the general practice to give the men compensating time off as opportunity occurs during ordinary working hours. Complaints regarding overwork or overtime are unknown.

56. The days worked per week are six to six and a half approximately.

The Thirteenth Maritime Session of the International Labour Conference to be held in October, 1929, will consider the question of the regulation of the hours of work on board ship, and their deliberations will show how far it is feasible or advisable to regulate the hours of work for seamen employed on board ships.

### XII.—Wages.

96. Lists are appended showing the prevailing rates of wages and the wages paid before the war by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company (Appendix A).<sup>\*</sup> These rates are slightly higher than those paid by other companies. Lists showing the rates of wages paid by other shipping companies in Bombay are also attached (Appendix B).<sup>\*</sup> A list of wages prevailing at the port of Calcutta since 1923, on ships other than those belonging to the British India Steam Navigation Company, Limited, is also attached (Appendix C).<sup>\*</sup> The wages paid by the British India Steam Navigation Company, Limited, are slightly higher than these. The present rates of wages in Calcutta are generally from 33 per cent. to 50 per cent. above pre-war rates. The rates of seamen's wages in the port of Rangoon, although based on wages prevailing at Calcutta, are slightly higher owing to local conditions.

101. Wages are not fixed by agreement, but the wages paid are entered on the Articles of Agreement under which the seamen are signed on. The present Bombay rates of wages (excluding those paid by the P. & O.) were fixed by the Liners' Conference and to this extent are standardized. Wages vary at the different ports and some companies pay slightly higher rates than other companies for particular ratings.

104. The labour supply being greater than the demand, it is not affected by wage changes. Moreover, the changes in wages during recent years have on the whole been to the seamen's advantage.

105. It is not considered necessary to fix minimum wages.

<sup>\*</sup> Not printed. The rates are given in Memoranda of Government of Bombay and Messrs. Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co. (Vol. I, Part I, pages 71 and 545-546); and also in Memorandum of Capt. R. Liddle (Vol. V, Part I, pages 364-365).

106. (i) Fines deducted from the wages of Indian seamen for breach of discipline on board do not in the aggregate amount to large sums. These fines are deducted from the wages of the seamen when they are paid off and are credited to Government by the shipping master. At Bombay, the amount credited during the last three years has been as follows :—1926–27, Rs. 682 ; 1927–28, Rs. 729 ; 1928–29, Rs. 593.

(ii) Other deductions from wages provided in the agreement are for embezzlement or wilful or negligent destruction of ships' cargo or stores, and for fines imposed by the customs' authorities for contraband goods found on board. The offence must be supported by a log entry. An entry inflicting a fine in the case of Indian seamen is frequently cancelled by the master at the termination of voyage if the seaman's subsequent conduct has been good.

(iii) Fines are not utilized for any special purpose.

107. Wages are paid on the termination of the voyage and completion of the agreement. An advance of one month's wages is usually made when the crew are signed on and further advances may be made during the voyage at the discretion of the master. The English Merchant Shipping Act provides for the final payment of wages within two days of discharge (Section 134) ; while under the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, payment must be made within five days after discharge or within three days after delivery of the cargo, whichever first happens (*vide* Section 47).

108. Indebtedness of seamen in Calcutta is extensive. It is reported that in the deck department, 85 per cent. of the lascars are in debt and the average rate of their indebtedness is Rs. 25. The minimum debt is stated to be Rs. 15 and the maximum Rs. 700. In the engine room department, 95 per cent. are in debt, with an average rate of indebtedness of Rs. 30, the limits varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 1,000. In the saloon department, 75 per cent. are in debt, with limits varying between Rs. 25 to Rs. 1,000, and the average being Rs. 35. Taking all these departments together, the average rate of interest paid on loans varies from 75 to 150 per cent. It is roughly estimated that the total amount lent amounts to as much as 4 or 5 lakhs of rupees.

As regards indebtedness in Bombay we have very little information. The shipping master reports that when seamen have been out of employment for a long time and have no money, they borrow from other seamen or from serangs or ghat serangs, and pay back the loan when they get employment. He adds that in Bombay, professional money-lenders do not lend money to seamen, on account of their frequent absences and because their homes are not in Bombay.

### XIII.—Efficiency.

Certificates of efficiency as lifeboatmen are now granted by the Board of Trade officials in the United Kingdom, and by port officers in India. Seamen may appear for examination to obtain such certificates, and are encouraged to do so by the shipping companies. The increased employment of Indian seamen in recent years would seem to indicate that they are reasonably efficient. It also appears from informal enquiries made by shipping masters that ships' officers are of opinion that there has been considerable improvement in the general efficiency of Indian crews during the last year. This is partly accounted for by the medical examination which precedes engagement and by the closer scrutiny of the men's records, as shown by their continuous discharge certificates by the ship's officers at the time of selecting the crews.

### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. Indian seamen have organized themselves into several unions. At Calcutta there are at present four unions :—The Indian Seamen's Union, the Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union, the Indian Quartermasters' Union and the Mariners' and Workers' Union. The Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union is a new body, having come into existence owing to a split in the Indian Seamen's Union. The Mariners' and Workers' Union is a body which professes to represent Port Trust dock and marine employees. At Bombay there are two unions :—The Indian Seamen's Union and the Bombay Seamen's Union. The former union comprises about half the total number of Goanese seamen who are employed as butlers, cooks, waiters, general servants, etc. (known as the saloon or purser's department), and about a quarter or one-third of the seamen employed in the deck and engine room departments, the majority of whom are Muhammadans and the remainder Hindus. Punjabis and Pathans, who are mostly employed in the engine room department in the P. & O. S. N. Co., do not belong to the Union, neither do the deck crews of the same company, who are Muhammadans from the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay Seamen's Union is composed of the Goanese seamen employed in the P. & O. S. N. Co. There is also a seamen's union at Karachi.

The numerical strength of the unions mentioned above is reported to be as follows :—The Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta, about 8,000; the Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union, about 2,000; the Indian Quartermasters' Union, Calcutta, about 1,500; the Mariners' and Workers' Union, Calcutta, not known; the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, about 21,500; the Seamen's Union, Bombay, about 8,500; the Seamen's Union, Karachi, 25.

118. The organizations mentioned above do not appear to have had much effect in the conditions generally of the employees. Attention is, however, invited to the attached note prepared by the Government of Bombay regarding the seamen's interests in that Presidency (Appendix D).

119. The aim of all the associations and unions is the protection of the interests and the improvement of conditions of their workers.

120. (i) The history of the several unions mentioned above is not available, but brief particulars regarding the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, will be found in the constitution and rules of the union and in the notes prepared by the Government of Bombay (Appendix D).

(ii) In Bombay the majority of seamen in the deck and engine room departments do not belong to the unions and evidently have no use for them. In Calcutta only a small percentage of the seamen belong to the unions. The Indian Quartermasters' Union, Calcutta, is, however, believed to be well representative of the quartermasters. This union is better organized than the others. The workers or members appear, in practice, to exercise very little control over the management of the union.

(iii) The relations of the Bombay Seamen's Union with the P. & O. S. N. Co., seem to be of a friendly and co-operative nature. Relations between the shipping companies and the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, are not of this character, as this union is reported to have adopted a dictatorial and obstructive attitude on several occasions.

121. The only union registered as a trade union under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, is the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay.

#### XV.—Strikes and Lock-outs.

123. In the port of Bombay there have been no strikes and lock-outs in recent years. In 1926 a dispute took place between the Indian Seamen's Union and the licensed shipping brokers. Although referred to as a strike, it was not a regular industrial dispute in the sense in which the term is generally understood.

In Calcutta there has been only one industrial dispute affecting Indian seamen (other than seamen employed on inland steam vessels) during the period 1921–28. It involved 2,000 men and caused a loss of 24,000 days to the workers. The dispute arose on the question of pay but ended in failure.

124. The shipping master is open to receive and hear grievances of seamen and represent the same to the shipping companies.

The English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Sections 137 and 211) and the Indian Merchant Shipping Act of 1923 (Sections 42 and 92) provide for settlement of disputes regarding wages, and for facilities for seamen to make complaints against the master or any of the crew to a magistrate, British consular officer or officer in command of one of His Majesty's ships. The Articles of Agreement also provide for the representation of grievances to certain authorities in the United Kingdom, British colonial ports or foreign ports.

No use has so far been made of the Employer's and Workmen's (Disputes) Act IX of 1860.

#### APPENDIX D.

Trade combinations amongst seamen in Bombay City date as far back as the year 1919. The Asiatic Seamen's Union and the Portuguese Seafarers' Union were the earliest formations which amalgamated together in April, 1921, under the name of the Indian Seamen's Union. This union was composed of Goans working as saloon crews, and the main object for the formation of this union was to secure rotation of employment for its members by insisting that all requisitions for saloon crews should be filled from persons put up by the union and not directly by the Government shipping brokers, who, it was alleged, were in the habit of offering employment to those who could and were prepared to pay the highest price for jobs. During the year 1925 the activities of the union were considerably curtailed owing to a dispute with the Government shipping brokers regarding the channels through which men

should be engaged for the shipping companies. The union contended that the brokers had agreed not to engage saloon staff except through the union, but the brokers denied this, although they used to engage a certain number of men through the union. At the beginning of the year 1926, the Government shipping brokers began to become more independent of the union owing to more non-unionists being available and the number of orders sent to the union declined. The officers of the union retaliated by refusing to allow any unionists or non-unionists to accept employment through the brokers. Active picketing was resorted to and this "strike" was reported to have cost the union nearly Rs. 20,000, which the officers of the union stated had been spent in giving relief doles to unemployed members. But this explanation of the diminution of the funds was not accepted by many of the members of the union. The position then was that the Government shipping brokers did not forward any orders at all to the union and engaged all the necessary crews they required both from non-unionist and those members of the union who refused to obey the mandate of the president of the union not to accept employment offered by the brokers. The policy of the executive created a considerable amount of discontent among the members and they refused to pay their subscriptions to the union until such time as a proper account was forthcoming of the manner in which the union's fund had been expended. The members of the union held a meeting on the 15th March, 1926, at which various questions in connection with the re-organization of the whole union were discussed. About 500 members, however, declined to continue as members under the existing management, and they decided to start a new union under the name of the Bombay Seamen's Union. By the 15th April, 1,500 persons had joined the new union and this number was doubled by the 1st June. The new union raised a special fund of Rs. 3,000 for the legal expenses in connection with the prosecution of I. J. Athaide, President of the Indian Seamen's Union, on a charge of alleged criminal misappropriation of funds amounting to over Rs. 18,000, which were held to the credit of the reserve fund of that union in the names of its president and secretary. The charge was, however, not sustained and Mr. Athaide was eventually honourably acquitted, after a protracted trial, the legal costs of the defence of which completely crippled the financial resources of the Indian Seamen's Union. In July, 1926, the Indian Seamen's Union decided to make the union thoroughly representative of all classes of seamen, and as a result of extensive propaganda work succeeded in registering 5,968 khalasis, serangs, tindals, etc., from engineering and deck crews as members. The constitution was remodelled and at a meeting of the members held on the 19th October, 1926, Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., was elected treasurer, and Mr. Syed Munawar, M.L.C., was appointed general secretary. The union was registered under the Trade Unions Act on the 1st December, 1927. Mr. N. M. Joshi was elected president of the union about the middle of the year 1928, and Mr. S. V. Parulekar, another member of the Servants of India Society, was appointed treasurer. The membership of the Indian Seamen's Union stood at 21,512 as at 1st March, 1929, and that of the Bombay Seamen's Union at 8,548. Several efforts were made by disinterested outsiders from time to time to try and bring about a reconciliation between these two unions with a view to an amalgamation. The members of the Bombay Seamen's Union, however, refused to listen to any proposal for a combination unless the Indian Seamen's Union abandoned its policy of extending its membership to departments other than saloon crews. As the latter union has now fully committed itself to the policy of admitting persons employed as deck and engine hands, a reconciliation appears to be highly improbable. A third seamen's union in the Presidency was formed at Karachi, in July, 1927, under the name of the Indian Seamen's Union, Karachi, but the membership of this union as at 1st March, 1929, stood at 25.

The following figures illustrate the growth of membership of the two unions of seamen in the Presidency :—

Name of Union.	Membership as at 1st June of—							
	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.
The Indian Seamen's Union.	10,000	10,000	11,000	12,000	11,597	15,436	19,931	21,512*
The Seamen's Union.	—	—	—	—	2,900	8,000	8,555	8,548*

\* As at 1st March, 1929.

Mr. CHARLES T. LETTON, OFFG. CONTROLLER OF PRINTING AND STATIONERY, INDIA.

*Introductory.*

For the execution of the printing and binding work of the offices of the Central Government comprising the Secretariat Departments of the Government of India and their attached and subordinate offices at Simla and Delhi and the Army Headquarters, the five major presses are: (1) Government of India Press, Calcutta; (2) Government of India Press, Delhi; (3) Government of India Press, Simla; (4) Government of India Press, Aligarh; (5) Government of India Forms Press, Calcutta, and are maintained directly under the control of the Controller of Printing, Stationery, India. In addition to these, there are also certain minor presses, which, though not strictly under the administrative control of the Controller, are still subject to his technical supervision, some of which are occasionally utilized to a small extent to take up the overflow of work in the major presses in times of stress. These minor presses are: (1) The North-West Frontier Province Press, Peshawar; (2) The Residency Press, Hyderabad; (3) The Residency Press, Bangalore; (4) The Central India Agency Press; (5) The Baluchistan Agency Press. The information furnished in this memorandum relates mainly to the major presses.

**II.—Staff Organization.**

*Recruitment and Training of Subordinate Supervising Staff—(i) Methods in force; (ii) Facilities for training and promotion of workmen.*—Consequent on a stringent economy campaign by the Government of India relating to their printing and stationery department, which commenced about the year 1922, as well as the introduction of mechanical composition, it was necessary to make considerable reductions in the staffs of all the presses. There has since been little or no recruitment of industrial staff and where additional labour was required, it was recruited from the men who had been retrenched. Therefore, as regards the industrial staff it may be said that any special method of recruitment has for some years now been uncalled for.

Men are recruited to the permanent or temporary establishment under the orders of the manager. Candidates for the posts of readers may be required to appear in an examination to show their proficiency before they can be employed in any of the Presses. Compositors are recruited only after trial before one of the supervising officers. They are classified after three months' earnings on piece only, after which their classes are fixed according to the rules for classification of pieceworkers in the Government of India Presses.

The measures adopted for securing appointment of the members of minority communities to clerical establishment of the Government of India Offices were not previously adhered to in making appointments to the industrial establishment, but it has lately been decided by the Government of India that the procedure laid down for the recruitment to clerical establishments should also be adopted in the case of industrial establishment, subject to the condition that the communal composition of the staff should be determined with reference to the aggregate strength of the Press.

In order to provide for the training of Indians for supervising posts in the Government of India Presses, five apprentices are trained in the Government of India Press, Calcutta. The period of apprenticeship is five years, during which an apprentice is paid Rs. 50 per mensem as subsistence allowance. The apprentices are placed under the direction of the supervising officers in the various branches of the Press. Examination to test the progress made is held from time to time. Facilities are also provided for the higher training of apprentices in England at the rate of one each year details of which follow.

*Recruitment of the Subordinate Supervising Establishment.*—Under the instructions issued by the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, letter No. A-369, dated the 2nd February, 1923, paragraph 2 (8), vacancies in the grade of sectionholders are alternatively filled from assistant sectionholders and duly qualified compositors. Apart from this and the apprenticeship scheme mentioned above, there are no methods in force at present regarding the recruitment and training of the subordinate supervising staff, and we have to content ourselves with what material we have in the lower ranks, and promote them to the

subordinate supervising staff as vacancies occur. These men undergo no specific training beyond what they can learn in the course of their duties and in their own time. Such staff, therefore, generally consists of workmen who have qualified themselves for supervising duties by reason of their experience and service in their respective branches. It is not possible to recruit outsiders for such duties, who possess no experience of press work, especially of Government presses. So far no difficulty has been experienced in finding suitable men to fill vacancies that have occurred, but I am afraid that in this respect the future does not look too bright, as there are now very few men in the Presses really capable of taking up supervising work. This, I think, is due to the fact that of recent years the type of man taking up printing as a livelihood has deteriorated, due, I think, to the fact that the emoluments available offer insufficient inducement to the type of men we obtained 20 or 25 years ago.

The rules relating to the recruitment of apprentices will be found in the new handbook.

Scholarships in the Printing and Allied Trades are awarded by the Government of India. Since the institution of the scheme apprentices have been sent each year to England for training, selected from amongst those undergoing training in the Government of India Press, Calcutta.

*Training of Apprentices in India.*—The training of apprentices at the Calcutta Press is not altogether satisfactory, but under conditions prevailing, I doubt whether any considerable alteration or improvement is possible.

The method adopted is practically identical with that exercised in England. The apprentices spend a part of their apprenticeship in all branches of the Press to work side by side with those employees actually carrying out the work of each branch. There is, however, one great difference; the apprentice in England works side by side with fully trained men, and is able, from the commencement of his career, to glean absolutely expert advice from the workmen. If he is ambitious, he is able to attend evening classes at technical schools for a thorough theoretical training in subjects not generally dealt with in detail in the ordinary workshops. These conditions do not prevail in India in the printing trade. Practically all the workmen have a very elementary knowledge of the art. The number of fully trained technical staff employed at the Government of India Presses is insufficient to permit of their imparting a thorough knowledge of the art to the workmen; they are only able to advise or instruct as occasion arises.

The position at the Calcutta Press for imparting good technical knowledge to the apprentices does not improve as time advances, chiefly on account of the fact the overseers' posts are being filled, at present, by men who possess only the Indian workmen's knowledge of the art. Whatever help and advice is possible is given by the trained officials and the apprentices are instructed to approach the fully qualified technical officers with any difficulties they experience.

That two apprentices failed in the past is not sufficient cause to condemn the present system, seeing that there is no alternative at present. From what I saw of the apprentices' work in the last examination held, I am of the opinion the men can, and do obtain sufficient grounding to justify their being sent to England to complete their training. We should not, and do not, detain apprentices the full five years if they do not show adaptability to the work, or it is considered that they are not sufficiently interested.

The result of the examination given to the apprentices periodically should be such as to satisfy the management they are likely to acquire such a knowledge of the trade after three years' training, especially from a practical point of view, to justify their being sent to England to gain the more advanced knowledge. I am convinced, however, that if they are prepared to work and study hard in England, they will learn more during their three years study there, than we are able at present to impart to them over many years in India.

I am unable, under present conditions at the Press, to suggest more helpful methods of instruction than at present exist. It must be recognized a good deal depends on the apprentice himself, if he is sufficiently interested and ambitious he will seek knowledge from those he is aware are able to give it, and I am sure the instruction will be well and freely given.

There is at present under consideration in Calcutta by private printers and the Government of Bengal a scheme for training, in the technical school there, of youths in practical printing. The Government of India need to be associated with and to encourage this movement, which will be for the good of the industry in general and the Government Presses in particular.

*Holders of Government Scholarships in Printing and Allied Trades now under training in England.*—The following gives the particulars of the holders of Government scholarships in Printing and Allied Trades now under training in England :—

Names.	Dates of their apprenticeship in the Calcutta Press.	Dates of commencement of their training in England.	Date due to return from England.
1. Mr. A. C. Sen ..	1st May, 1922 ..	23rd August, 1926	September, 1929.
2. Mr. B. K. Roy	1st May, 1924 ..	23rd August, 1927	September, 1930.
3. Mr. M. K. Mazumdar.	Unpaid apprentice from 18th February, 1926. Paid apprentice from 1st January, 1927	* September, 1928	September, 1931.
4. Mr. A. N. Sen ..	Unpaid apprentice from 23rd January, 1926. Paid apprentice from 1st October, 1927	* September, 1929	September, 1932.

\* Exact date not yet reported by the High Commissioner.

*Works Committee.*—Works committees have been established in the Calcutta, Simla, Delhi and Aligarh Presses to afford the employees regular opportunities of discussing with the supervising staff inequalities and difficulties which may arise under working conditions. The rules for works committees will be found in the new handbook.

Considerable difficulty has been experienced in keeping the works committees alive in some of the Presses latterly. While that in Calcutta became defunct in 1924-25, that in Simla flourished from the start while I was manager of that press. I found the committee of substantial assistance, and ready to co-operate on all questions arising for the benefit of the workmen in general or the Press in particular. On taking over charge of the Calcutta Press, I resuscitated the committee there, and up to 1927, when I handed over charge, I found it also substantially advantageous to the management and to the workmen. The elections for representatives were keenly contested each year, and the committee soon realized the benefits it conferred. That committee is a real live committee as a perusal of the minutes, especially those recently received, will show. In Simla, however, I regret to note that since I handed over, there has been a change for the worse. The manager of that Press now reports :—

"The works committee has been revived on more than one occasion, and though still in existence here, it has been lacking in interest in the performance of its legitimate duties for some time back. It is extremely difficult to say exactly why this state of affairs should persist. Efforts have been made, more than once, to bring home to the men that the works committee is not functioning as it ought to, but with no permanent results. I have even suggested matters that could be taken up by the works committee, and drafted questions for them which at the time seemed to waken them up a bit, but they soon fell asleep again.

"One thing is morally certain, and that is the reason for this lack of interest cannot be because there are no grievances to ventilate. That would be a state of affairs too utopian to contemplate, and hardly to be found in any factory. From my experience of works committees during the past five years I am inclined to the view that employees expect that whenever suggestions are put up by them they ought to be carried out, and when, for administrative reasons these are turned down, they get disgruntled and protest by silence. Employees are also very fond of taking up matters through the works committee which are outside the scope of the committee, and when informed the matter cannot be discussed, they get quite annoyed, though they know full well they are in the wrong. The invariable reply is 'What is the use of a works committee if we cannot take up any question we want to?'

"Then again there is the Legislative Assembly. From many of the questions that have loomed up in that body lately, so far as the Simla Press is concerned, it would appear as if employees have found a more effective way of ventilating their grievances, for many of the questions have been such as could quite legitimately have been taken up by the works committee. I do not for a moment consider that

"the men obtained any more favourable results by this method, but they have certainly gained wider publicity, which is apparently what they are after, and which undoubtedly gives a certain amount of satisfaction, and creates a feeling of something gained, however small."

In Delhi the works committee is functioning satisfactorily, but in Aligarh it has not been a success. I have on more than one occasion had to communicate with the management on the subject. In 1927 I had to insist on this committee being resuscitated. Only recently I have had to call the manager's attention to the fact that more anonymous letters reach the Controller from this Press than all the others combined, and yet this is the only Press which continually reports the works committee as not meeting because there is no business.

That there is something in what the manager, Simla Press, says in his last paragraph, is borne out by a communication I have received from the manager of the Calcutta Press, forwarding the undermentioned notice which he found posted up in the Press, and it may well be that the employees prefer to air their grievances publicly in this manner :—

#### PRESS EMPLOYEES' ASSOCIATION.

(Founded by Deshabandhu Das in 1919.)

Head Office : 175, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta, the 29th July, 1929.

To—All Compositors, Government of India Press, Calcutta.

Dear Sirs,—I beg to inform you that autumn session of the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly will commence its sitting shortly. I shall, therefore, be glad to receive all grievances for interpellation within two days.

Trusting this will receive your prompt attention.

Yours faithfully, (Sd.) M. DAS GUPTA,

*Acting Secretary, Press Employees' Association.*

*Relations generally between the Supervising Staff and the Rank and File.*—Relations generally throughout all the Presses are fairly satisfactory. There are occasions, but they are of very infrequent occurrence, when the employees, through the works committee, bring to notice the fact that the relations between the manager and the employees leave something to be desired. The grievances of the employees are mostly to be attributed to what they consider to be the insufficiency of their emoluments than to any dissatisfaction with the management of the several Presses.

#### III.—Housing.

In the Calcutta Press, accommodation is provided for the menial staff only, i.e., durwans and sweepers.

In the Delhi Press there are at present 342 quarters of various types at its disposal, out of which 311 are occupied by Press employees. The number of employees is 410. Therefore housing is found for 76 per cent. The remainder live in the city either for preference or family reasons.

A statement showing the description of each class of quarter, and to which class of employees actually allotted, is given below :—

Type of quarter.	Number allotted.	Description.	Status of employees to whom the quarters are allotted.
" C "	37	4 rooms, with 2 verandahs, 1 store room, 1 servant's room, 1 kitchen, 1 bath room, 1 latrine and courtyard.	Clerks, readers, supervising staff, operators, mechanics, etc.
" D "	7	As in " C " type, except 1 servant's room.	Clerks, readers and operators, etc.
" E "	224	2 rooms, with 2 verandahs, 1 kitchen, 1 bathroom, 1 latrine and courtyard.	Assistant sectionholders, compositors, binders and warehousemen, clerks, pressmen and machinemen, etc.
" F "	74	Constructed 6 in a block, containing 17 rooms and 2 latrines.	Inferior servants.



Under the orders of the Government of India, the recovery of rent from the Indian staff for accommodation, furniture where provided, and water is limited to 5 per cent. of salary. For the purpose of salary of pieceworkers class rates are taken. Peons are allowed free quarters.

It may be mentioned in this connection that the Government of India have sanctioned the construction of the following accommodation at the new site in the city extension area, to which place the Press will be shifted as soon as the new building is ready for occupation :—

*For Officers.*

1 bungalow for gazetted officer ..	Class "C."
1 bungalow for non-gazetted officer ..	Class "D."

*For Establishment.*

1 orthodox clerk's quarter ..	Class "B."
2 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "C."
5 unorthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "C."
37 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "D."
29 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	New type.
191 daftries' quarters.*	
61 peons' quarters.	

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The sanctioned strength of the Press establishment is 410 ; so it appears that it is proposed to provide accommodation for 80 per cent. of the staff.

In Simla, with the exception of 21 quarters on the ground floor of the Indian Clerks' Barracks situated on the Cart Road, and 12 on the Press premises for peons and chaukidars on the permanent establishment, there is no house accommodation provided for the employees of the Simla Press as is the case at Delhi. The quarters on the Cart Road are occupied by 19 men out of a total strength of 353. The accommodation available is one room measuring 10 ft. by 10 ft., with a small kitchen and latrine adjoining the room. These are provided at a rent of Rs. 47 per annum plus electric charges of Re. 1-4 annas per mensem, and are subject to the conditions that they will have to be vacated should they be required for occupation by secretariat clerks. Though this has not been necessary so far, presumably on account of the limited accommodation and poor condition of the quarters, the stipulation is nevertheless laid down by Government for all Press employees. There is very little doubt in my opinion but that this question of quarters has produced much discontent. Personally I am of opinion that the provision of quarters at a reasonable rent will go a very long way towards alleviating the present discontent. Moreover, it will, I feel, be distinctly advantageous to Government as owing to the accommodation question in Simla a man living in Government quarters will hesitate before he resigns or gives cause for dismissal involving removal from these quarters, with the possibility of finding none elsewhere even at an exorbitant rent. Therefore, I think the provision of quarters at a reasonable rental will not only of itself go a long way towards attracting men to the Press, but contribute towards retaining the men we have got. Failing the building of suitable quarters for Press employees, I feel that the demands for house rent allowance will have to be considered.

In the Aligarh Press no quarters are available except for a few menials.

#### IV.—Health.

The information to be furnished under this head will depend upon the maintenance and examination of health and vital statistics relating to the Press employees in the cities in which the Government of India Presses are located. Statistics will also have to be collected showing the extent to which Press employees are susceptible to local diseases prevalent in certain cities, such as malaria and beriberi in Calcutta, fever, small-pox and lung diseases in Delhi, etc., and the common ailments which compel them to be absent from work from time to time. It will also be necessary to know the extent to which local diseases supply the causes for premature retirement from service, and other causes leading to their being invalided. Statistics on these points are not available, and the figures kept by the municipal committees of the towns do not show separately the health conditions of Press workers. It is not therefore possible to furnish any information on this point, and if it is desired that statistics under this head should be collected in future, the health departments of

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\* It has since been proposed to convert 96 of these to a new "E" type.

The various cities in which the Government of India Presses are located will have to be asked to maintain separate figures for the purpose, and render an annual return to the Controller of Printing and Stationery for examination and review. If, however, the general health can be judged by the number of medical certificates received daily in each of the Presses from the employees in support of their applications for leave, then I am afraid the only conclusion to be arrived at is that the health of the employees is, indeed, in a bad state. This, however, may not be a genuine test of health conditions, as in order to prevent leave being refused otherwise, recourse is had to medical certificates for any and every minor ailment. There is no doubt, in my mind, that with very few exceptions, the physique and stamina of the Press workers in all Presses is very poor. How much of this can be attributed to any of the following reasons is a matter of opinion, i.e., standard of living, arduous labour, hours of work, insanitary working conditions. Certain it is that in the Simla Press the building and surroundings are ideal. In the Calcutta Press, they could not be much worse. Here a large number of the workers perform their allotted task daily with the aid of artificial light, as the workrooms in places are dark and badly ventilated. They are overcrowded.

In the Delhi Press it is noted that the physique of the workers appointed locally appears to be somewhat better than that of the Bengalee employees who were transferred from Calcutta, who appear to have suffered from the effects of the Delhi climate and also from malaria.

In Delhi a new Press building is going up, and like Simla, there should be no complaint about conditions of work there. Working conditions in the Presses, however, have improved considerably during recent years, but there is still room for improvement in the following directions:—The Calcutta Press should be rebuilt without any further delay. In Delhi and Simla a reduction of the hours of attendance during the Legislative Sessions is called for. House accommodation should be provided where the Press is difficult to get at as in Simla.

*Establishment of a Provident Fund to provide for the Widows and Children of deceased Employees.*—Statistics are not readily available, but I venture the opinion that very few Press workers live to enjoy their pension for any lengthy period. I have been struck by the large number who die at or about the pensionable age.

*Extent of Medical Facilities provided and utilised.*—In Calcutta a dispensary has recently been attached to the Press. It is manned by a sub-assistant surgeon and two compounders, and their services are readily availed of by the employees.

In Simla a sub-assistant surgeon visits the Press every second day, and quite a number of men seek his advice. Owing to the distance of the Press from the hospital a coolie has recently been sanctioned by Government for bringing medicines from the hospital, to the Press. Medicines are supplied free of cost at the Civil and Military Dispensary. In addition to the above a first-aid medical box is provided at Government expense for emergencies, as it was not possible to open a dispensary on the Press premises.

Delhi.—During the malaria season following the monsoon, as a prophylactic measure, quinine is distributed free to the staff of the Delhi Press, and an annual expenditure of Rs. 150 is being incurred on this account.

Attached to the residential quarters of the Press employees, there is a provincial Government hospital named Balak Ram's House Hospital. It is staffed by an assistant-surgeon, sub-assistant surgeon and two compounders. This hospital is meant for all Indian servants of the Government of India residing in this area (Timarpur), including the employees of the Press who have the same medical facilities at this hospital as employees of other departments of the Government of India.

The sub-assistant surgeon attached to Balak Ram's House Hospital attends the Press during working hours for one hour on alternate days (thrice a week). A first-aid chest is maintained at the Press, and employees reporting sick for minor ailments are treated by him there. He also examines and prescribes for those who cannot attend at the hospital for some reason or other, but require medicines other than those available in the first-aid chest. These prescriptions are then dispensed from the Balak Ram's House Hospital. Serious accident cases requiring treatment or facilities not available at Balak Ram's House Hospital are sent to Civil Hospital, Delhi. Such a case happened in the year 1926, when a wall of the Press building collapsed. The victims were treated under direct supervision of the Civil Surgeon.

In Aligarh arrangements have been made with the District Hospital for providing free medical attendance and medicines for the employees of the Government of India Press, but it is stated by the manager that the men do not take full advantage of the concession. A first-aid cabinet and some medicines are provided in cases of emergency.

*Utilisation of Medical Facilities.*—The Press employees generally do avail themselves of the facilities provided. In Delhi, however, they are greatly handicapped by the Press working hours coinciding with the hospital hours, e.g., during summer the hospital opens at 7 a.m., and a number of Press employees have to leave their homes about that time to reach the Press, where their work commences at 8 a.m. During the winter they get no time at all, as they have to reach the Press at 8 a.m. and the hospital opens for work at the same time. In the evenings also they return late from the Press, and by that time the hospital is closed. It will thus be seen that except by absenting themselves from their work, the Press employees are not able satisfactorily to attend to their own or their family medical requirements. I am considering whether it is possible to provide facilities similar to those of the Simla Press.

*Extent of prevalence of Industrial Diseases.*—Certain sections of Press workers are employed in essential processes involving the use of lead compounds, both in the manufacture and subsequent use of type. Such workers, i.e., in the foundry and mechanical branches and in the composing room and distributing rooms, are liable to contract lead poisoning through the inhalation of absorption of lead fumes or minute particles of lead dust. Due precautions, e.g., the provision of exhaust fans, etc., etc., are in every Press taken for the prevention of this disease, and although the employees concerned must necessarily be affected to a certain extent, lead poisoning in its serious stages is very rare in the Government of India Presses. Its prevalence in the milder stages cannot be ascertained without a thorough medical examination of all Press employees liable to be so affected. It may therefore be said that cases of industrial disease have not so far come prominently to notice.

*Simla.*—The conditions in Simla are ideal, and the factory inspection authorities have expressed satisfaction with the conditions under which the employees work in that Press. In all the Presses exhausts have been installed to draw off the fumes from the metal pots of the mechanical composing machines. In Simla central heating has been installed for use in the winter months, and in the plains the Presses have been adequately supplied with electric fans. Washing facilities with soap, etc., have recently been provided in all the Presses.

*Delhi.*—In an endeavour to obtain some reliable statistics, the invaliding certificates of those members of the industrial staff of the Delhi Press who were invalided since 1st March, 1923, have been examined, and the result is as follows:—

Number of men invalided from 1st March, 1923, to date, 27; Number of men invalided suffering from lead poisoning, pyorrhea, defective vision, 11; number invalided for debility, tuberculosis, accidents, bronchitis, etc., 16.

There were two cases of lead poisoning in 1926, and one recently from the Delhi Press.

This Press will be housed shortly in a new building on another site, and it is hoped to make it a model Press in every way.

In Calcutta conditions leave a lot to be desired. The workrooms are overcrowded, and in places so dark that the electric light is kept burning throughout the day. The rooms, too, are not efficiently ventilated. The building is quite unsuitable, and a new Press should be built with the least possible delay.

*Aligarh.*—Aligarh has hitherto reported no specific case of industrial disease. Conditions in this Press are not unfavourable.

## V.—Welfare.

*Physical Welfare.*—As regards sanitation and hygienic conditions of residence and factory, it may be mentioned that in the case of press workers at Delhi to whom Government residences have been provided, necessary sanitary and hygienic arrangements have been duly provided by the Public Works Department. It has already been explained that in the Government of India Presses in which the men spend a major portion of the day on work, necessary hygienic arrangements exist for the removal of dirt, dangerous fumes, refuse water, etc., resulting from the operations of the employees. Satisfactory arrangements exist in the Press buildings for proper ventilation and regulation of temperature in the hot and cold weathers to enable the workmen to attend to their duties with due comfort and convenience. Electric fans are provided wherever necessary for cooling. In the Simla Press a special heating plant has been installed to keep the workmen warm during the winter and monsoon months. The existing arrangements are considered satisfactory, except perhaps in Calcutta, for the physical welfare of the workmen, in view of the fact that no complaints or representations have so far been made regarding their inadequacy in any other of the Government of India Presses.

As regards athletic clubs, gymnasia, etc., necessity has not been felt so far for Government to take steps to provide facilities for the workers to take part in suitable games and sports to maintain their physical fitness. In Calcutta, where football

is very popular with the Indians, the workmen have combined together to form a regular football club, which has been working satisfactorily. The staff of the other offices of the Printing and Stationery Department at Calcutta also participate in the game, and sufficient encouragement has been given by the management for the success of these private undertakings. Similar athletic organizations do not seem to have been started by the workers in Delhi, Simla and Aligarh, but in cases when any such clubs come into existence, the management will be glad to encourage the efforts of workers as far as possible.

*Intellectual Welfare.*—No educational facilities for the benefit of the workers themselves have so far been considered necessary by Government. Unlike in England, America and other foreign countries where special institutions exist for imparting technical instructions to workmen, even in big cities like Calcutta and Delhi no recognized technical schools or colleges seem to exist where workmen desirous of acquiring higher theoretical knowledge of the art of printing can attend out of their working hours to gain knowledge. The present facilities afforded by the Presses for the training and promotion of workmen in the various branches of printing are considered sufficient for present requirements, but it does appear necessary that steps should be taken to provide special educational and training facilities for the training of those workers who show sufficient aptitude to become expert in the art and in administration.

In regard to reading circles and libraries, attempts seem to be at present confined to private efforts of the workers themselves, and no necessity has so far been felt for special assistance from the management to encourage their formation or working.

*Social Welfare.*—It has not been found so far necessary to take any steps to encourage the social welfare of the press workers by helping them to form recreation clubs and societies, social gatherings, etc. In matters of this kind, the results of private enterprise of the workmen are in evidence in certain places, notably in Calcutta, where a dramatic club has been started by the staff of the Stationery and Printing Department, in which a number of the employees of the Press also participate.

No official information is available regarding the existence or otherwise of similar clubs and gatherings for the social entertainment and welfare of press workers in Delhi, Simla and Aligarh.

*Economic and Moral Welfare.*—Fuller information regarding thrift and co-operative societies of press workers has been furnished elsewhere. There is no indication that intemperance and drug habits prevail to an appreciable extent among the workmen of the Government of India Presses, who are generally sober and regular in habits. In the case of the Mohammadan employees, drinking is prohibited by their religion, and the majority of the Hindu workmen, being religious and orthodox to a degree, are not believed to be addicted to the drink or drug habit. No necessity for special temperance propaganda or efforts for the prevention of other pernicious habits has, therefore, arisen. Owing to the policy of the religious neutrality of Government it is not possible for the management to interfere with other moral activities of the workmen which more or less assume a religious character.

In Delhi, maternity and child welfare work is being carried on in Timarpur by the Delhi Notified Area Committee, among the families of Government servants who reside in that area. These include the clerical staff of the accountant-general, posts and telegraphs, the Government of India Press employees, and the clerks of that portion of the Army department which is located in Old Delhi during the cold weather. Maternity and child welfare activities were first undertaken in this area in 1927, by the Delhi Health and Baby Week Committee. In December, 1928, the Notified Area Committee took over this work and improved it by appointing a lady doctor in charge of this centre.

*Provision of Educational Facilities for Workers and their Children and the extent to which utilised.*—No facilities are provided at present at any of the Presses, and the employees have to make their own arrangements at the local schools if they can afford to do so.

I have proposed that provision be made for a primary school near the new Press building at Delhi. I have not the slightest doubt that any facilities in this direction which could be provided would no doubt be welcomed, although I doubt if any facilities are called for in Calcutta. Delhi is better off in this respect than the other Presses, as the Notified Area Committee, Civil Station, Delhi, maintains three day schools for boys and girls, and two night schools for adults at a cost of about Rs. 17,300 per annum.

The N.A.A.V. Middle School at Timarpur, imparts free primary education in Urdu, Hindi, Bengali and Tamil, and a fee, under the Punjab Education Code rules, is charged from the boys reading in the middle classes. Free and half-free concessions are given to poor and deserving students to the extent of 10 per cent. of the total number on the rolls.

There are two girls' schools for teaching, through the mediums of Urdu, Hindi and Bengali, up to the standard of V class. In these schools needlework and sewing is also taught by trained and well qualified mistresses. These three schools are highly spoken of by the educational authorities and the public.

Besides these there are two night classes at Chandrawal and Dhakka, where as many as 55 adult students are reading Hindi and Urdu. One night class at the Boys' School, Timarpur, which was started in August, 1927, at the request of the Press employees for teaching English, Urdu and Hindi, was closed last year owing to the meagre attendance due possibly to the long hours of attendance at the press or to apathy.

*Extent of Co-operative Movement.*—There is in Calcutta a very efficiently run co-operative society, which men of all the Calcutta branches are eligible to join. Copies of bye-laws are available from the Deputy Controller, Stationery, Calcutta.

In Simla also a Co-operative Thrift and Aid Society has been registered for many years under the Co-operative Societies Act, and the objects of which are stated in the bye-laws, copies of which are available from the Manager of the Simla Press.

There is in Simla another fund called the Bepunna Bandhub Fund, of a distinctly charitable nature, the funds of which were subscribed by Press employees about 40 years ago, and the interest on which is allotted for such purposes as small monthly allowances to the destitute widows and children of deceased Press employees. The control of these two funds is entrusted to the manager as president, and a separate managing committee for each, who are elected annually by the Press employees from amongst themselves.

#### VII.—Safety.

*Incidence of Accidents in Presses and their Causes.*—There have been two fatal accidents in the Presses in recent years—one in the Delhi Press in 1926, due to the fall of a wall under construction by the Public Works Department, and one in the Aligarh Press. In the former, two men were killed and three injured, and in the latter, one was killed. Accidents of a minor nature occasionally occur, due to the careless handling of machines which are power driven, but which are protected as required by the Factories Act and which are frequently inspected by inspectors under the Act.

In the Calcutta Press there were, in 1928–29, 17 minor accidents reported, of which three were cases of pure accident and the rest were due to negligence on the part of the men injured.

The Aligarh Press case mentioned above was that of a coolie who fell as the result of an electric shock while repairing some electric supply lines.

In the Delhi Press, besides the fatal accident due to the fall of a wall mentioned above, there were, in 1927–28, 13; in 1928–29, 11 minor accidents, in every case due to carelessness on the part of the injured persons.

*Measures for Accident Prevention (including "Safety First" Propaganda) and for the First Aid and Medical Relief.*—Notices giving precautions to be taken are hung near the machines and near any dangerous electrical equipment likely to cause injury by careless handling. The motors, shafting and belting in the various Presses are all protected. In Simla, which is the last Press to be reconstructed, the following protective arrangements have been adopted and will no doubt be adopted in the Delhi Press now under construction, and in the Calcutta Press if and when it is rebuilt.

The motors in various places are kept underground, and where this is not possible the motors are covered by wooden fencing. All the conduits for water and for electric heating and power wires are under the floor, which is of reinforced concrete. Machines are operated by trained labourers only. The casters, keyboard and air compressors are belt driven from shafts in trenches below floor level. Each printing machine has its individual motor belted direct and below floor level, and the electrical starter for each machine is conveniently placed for the machineman on a stanchion within easy reach of the feed-board.

The Press employees are entitled to free medical attendance and medicines from the hospitals, and dispensaries provided by the local Government. In addition, at Delhi, Simla and Aligarh, a first-aid chest is maintained in the Press, which is visited on every alternate day by a sub-assistant surgeon. In Calcutta a dispensary with a sub-assistant surgeon in charge has been established in the Press building.

An attempt is being made by the Delhi Health and Social Service Union—a union formed in Delhi under the guidance of the chief commissioner—to start classes, lectures, and courses on hygiene and first aid. Circulars have been circulated to the various offices and industrial concerns calling for names of candidates. If an adequate response is obtained, the classes will be started in various centres. It remains to be

on whether the response anticipated will be forthcoming. I do not anticipate a rush of candidates from the Press employees, as usually one branch of the Press is working overtime throughout the year and during the period the Government of India is in Delhi, the employees have to work so much overtime that they have no time in which to attend lectures. In the summer those who leave at 5.30 p.m. are so fatigued by the excessive heat during the day that they desire some form of recreation by which to recuperate. However, the syllabus of instruction proposed by the union is a very comprehensive one and if their efforts are successful, it will be another step in the right direction in the interests of industrial workers generally.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

The Workmen's Compensation Act came into force on the 1st July, 1924, and the following cases of compensation paid under this Act have been recorded :—

Date.	Name and designation.	Details of accident.	Nature of injuries.	Amount.
4.11.1926	Mohd. Khuda Bux.	Delhi Press, collapse of newly built wall.	Killed .. ..	Rs. a. p. 1,650 0 0
4.11.1926	Abdul Shakur	Do. ..	Do.	1,387 8 0
4.11.1926	Sarat Chandra Bose.	Do. ..	Compound fracture of left leg.	1,575 0 0
4.11.1926	Hem Chandra Singh.	Do. ..	Severe injuries, not specified.	1,750 0 0
4.11.1926	Mohd. Yakoob	Do.	Do.	787 8 0
27.6.1928	Narain ..	Fall due to electric shock while repairing electric supply lines.	Died of effects of fall.	450 0 0

Extraordinary family pension also granted for dependants of Khuda Bux and Abdul Shakur—Rs. 11-6 annas and Rs. 12-5 annas per month, respectively.

The case of Mahabir Prasad, a compositor of the Delhi Press, who was invalidated from the 2nd April, 1928, on account of his being affected by lead poisoning, may also be mentioned here. It is proposed to pay him Rs. 875 on account of his permanent disablement, involving the loss of one-fourth of his earning capacity, subject to a reconsideration of the opinion of the medical officer, Delhi, who has been asked to give a final opinion.

As a result of the call for information for this memorandum from the Delhi Press, it has been discovered that the undernoted persons were invalidated due to "chronic" lead poisoning :—

Name.	Designation.	When invalidated.	Reasons.	Amount of invalid pension granted.
(1) Kumar ..	Compositor ..	5.9.1926	Chronic lead poisoning.	Rs. a. p. 24 6 0 per mensem.
(2) Bose ..	Do. ..	10.9.1926	Do. ..	36 10 0 per mensem.

No compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act was paid to them, neither was any claim put forward by the persons concerned. As these men were invalidated after the Workmen's Compensation Act had come into operation, the matter is being examined to ascertain their title or otherwise to any compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

*Suitability of the Provisions of the Act relating to the Scales and Conditions governing the Grant of Compensation and Industrial Diseases.*—In Simla there have been no cases for the grant of compensation and, therefore, the suitability or otherwise of

the provisions of the Act have not been questioned there. In Calcutta, Delhi and Aligarh, no grievance has been forthcoming regarding the suitability of the provisions of the Act, and so far I have had no occasion to notice the unsuitability of the provision of the Act relating to the scales and conditions governing grant of compensation, neither have any representations regarding inadequacy of compensation paid been received from the dependants of the deceased or from the disabled employees. Perhaps the Act has not been in operation long enough to prove its suitability or otherwise in this respect, as it is only by experience and application of the relevant portion this can be definitely ascertained.

Employees, who come under the new leave rules, are entitled to injury leave to half-pay rates from the commencement of disablement if injured in circumstances which would give rise to claim for compensation in the case of a workman as defined under the Workmen's Compensation Act. This leave can be granted for so long as it is necessary subject to a limit of two years for any one disability and five years during an employee's total service. Leave salary payable under this rule would, in the case of a workman to whom the Workmen's Compensation Act applies, be reduced by the amount of compensation payable under Section 4 (1) D of this Act.

### IX.—Hours.

The ordinary working hours of the Presses are 48 per week, exclusive of meal intervals. The ordinary hours worked per day from Monday to Friday are 8½, and on Saturday 5½, making a total of 43 hours per week exclusive of meal intervals, but quite an appreciable amount of overtime is required to be worked in all the Presses except perhaps Aligarh.

In Simla and Delhi overtime is excessive during the period the Legislatures are in session, and when the Government of India Secretariat is in Delhi and Simla, respectively.

The Delhi Press has for this reason been exempted by the local Government from certain provisions of the Factories Act for a period of five months during the year, which permits the Press working 12 hours per day.

During the year 1928-29 the Delhi Press was open on 302 days, and on 235 days it was necessary to work ordinary overtime either in some or all branches, and emergent or special overtime was worked on 72 days. In addition to this the Press was kept open on a Government of India closed holiday and one Sunday. In Calcutta Sunday work obtains when His Excellency the Viceroy is visiting there.

For working on Sunday an allowance of 50 per cent. over the ordinary rates is now paid, if it is not possible owing to pressure of work to allow the men a day's holiday in lieu. This can only happen, however, when exemption from Section 22 of the Factories Act has been obtained.

The possibility of a reduction in the working hours of the Presses is a question which has periodically arisen during the last 20 years. There is no denying the fact that the amount of overtime which has to be worked in the Presses during the Delhi and Simla season must in the course of time affect the vitality of the workers, especially as the climate of Delhi during the hot weather is enervating and not recuperating.

Prior to the revision of 1920, the ordinary working hours were from 10 a.m. to 5 p.m., with overtime morning and evening, which was at that time practically unrestricted and abnormal. The revision increased the normal day for all industrial workers who draw overtime to 8½ hours on five days of the week and 5½ on Saturdays, but overtime was considerably curtailed under the revision which limited the working hours to 60 per week or a maximum of 250 hours, including overtime per month; thus the curtailment of overtime reduced the abnormal number of hours worked under the old system, but lengthened the normal working hours which must be worked daily and before overtime payment commences. I think I am correct in stating that this change of hours has always been brought forward from time to time as a grievance by the industrial workers.

From the management point of view, the hours worked at present are essential to cope with the enormous amount of work allotted to the various Presses, and also to cope with the demands made upon it by the departments, which in some cases are unfair and impossible.

The amount of overtime worked during the winter months has been curtailed considerably during the past two years, and the 12 working hours per day allowed by the exemption from Section 28 of the Factories Act has been adhered to in all the Presses, except perhaps on one or two occasions at Delhi. But even these hours are excessive, and it is most trying for the employees to work so many hours for at least 2½ months in the year. Extra staff for this period would not obviate the difficulty,

skilled labour is not available in Simla or Delhi in sufficient quantities ready to accept employment for 2½ months only in a year. If the labour were available, the introduction of a shift-system might be considered.

*Existing practice in regard to intervals and their relation to Fatigue and to Workers' Meal times.*—An interval of half an hour is allowed after every 5 hours as provided for under the Factory Act. This, however, is not paid for, and is over and above the ordinary hours of attendance. Men engaged on 8 hours basis attend in Delhi and Simla from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m., with rest interval from 1.30 to 2 p.m.—9 hours. In Calcutta an extra meal is taken at 10 to 10.30 a.m., making the total attendance 9½ hours daily. The employees usually take their meals before and after the above mentioned hours of attendance in Delhi and Simla; while in Calcutta food is taken during the first interval. The intervals chosen were decided as the result of referendums of the employees, who are at liberty to make recommendations or suggestions for changing them at any time should they find them inconvenient. The interval from 9.30 to 10 a.m. appears to suit the majority of employees, who take a meal at this period after working from 8 a.m. in Delhi and 9 a.m. in Calcutta. The next interval is from 1.30 to 2 p.m., and this interval is utilized generally as a rest period as very few employees take a meal during this hour. When overtime is worked, another interval of half an hour is allowed from 5 to 5.30 p.m., during which period some employees take refreshment according to their customs.

A few years ago it was a common practice for compositors to work during meal intervals, whenever an opportunity was forthcoming, in order to inflate their earnings. Formerly they were allowed to charge at class rates for these periods if engaged on hour work at the time of the interval, during which they would also do fresh composition. With the abolition of the payment for meal intervals, the prohibiting of employees to work during meal intervals, and stricter supervision, the practice has ceased.

## XII.—Wages.

The following tabulated statements show the rates of wages and earnings, and the movements of wages in recent years. Improvements in the rates of wages and in piece rates have taken place in recent years, and the statements show the effect thereof. The time allowed has proved insufficient to produce an exhaustive and complete statistical picture of movements of wages, and the following can only be said to show roughly the movements both as regards salaried men\* and piece-workers. These are separately shown.

The rates for timework and piecework are given in the new Handbook of the Government of India Presses.

Statement showing comparative statistics of hourly earnings of piece-workers in the Government of India Press, Calcutta, during the years 1919-20 and 1920-21, and for the period from the 1st July, 1928, to the 31st May, 1929.

### Compositors (Hand).

Class.	Average hours per month.			Average earnings per month.			Average earnings per hour.		
	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.
1	201.0	174.7	207	Rs. a. p. 11 15 7	Rs. a. p. 13 3 2	Rs. a. p. 57 5 0	Annas. 0-9	Annas. 1-1	Annas. 4-4
2	168.6	175.6	173	15 6 5	16 8 1	37 9 0	1-1	1-4	3-4
3	192.4	183.3	—	16 9 6	23 1 2	—	1-2	1-9	—
4	192.9	186.0	154	19 14 11	28 13 0	30 5 0	1-5	2-4	3-2
5	189.0	183.0	128	22 12 2	31 8 1	17 15 0	1-8	2-7	2-3
6	202.4	186.4	192	27 12 5	35 13 6	43 0 0	2-1	2-9	3-6
7	203.7	188.0	180	31 0 9	40 15 0	47 14 0	2-3	3-4	4-3
8	214.7	195.4	180	36 15 4	48 4 11	47 6 0	2-6	3-9	4-3
9	202.3	194.4	189	38 10 10	54 1 11	52 3 0	2-9	4-3	4-4
10	206.9	192.3	194	44 3 11	58 14 8	58 11 0	3-3	4-7	4-9
11	217.6	196.7	191	49 7 8	62 14 5	67 10 0	3-5	5-2	5-8
12	224.6	204.2	196	56 6 9	68 11 3	72 8 0	3-8	5-5	5-9
13	224.8	202.7	199	59 11 9	73 15 6	81 9 0	4-0	5-8	6-6
14	228.2	207.5	192	64 5 2	84 3 3	81 15 0	4-5	6-4	6-9
15	241.7	210.6	197	73 0 1	93 9 4	90 4 0	4-8	7-1	7-3
16	198.5	214.6	208	59 1 4	96 1 1	97 9 0	4-7	7-7	7-5
17	281.0	217.4	198	86 2 8	93 11 11	90 1 0	4-9	6-9	7-3
18	—	—	175	—	—	89 14 0	—	—	8-3
19	—	—	204	—	—	123 1 0	—	—	9-7
20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

\* The statements referring to the salaried establishment have not been printed. The present rates are given in the Press Handbook.



Statement showing comparative statistics of hourly earnings of compositors in the Government of India Press, Delhi, during the years 1919-20 and 1920-21, and for the period from the 1st July, 1928, to the 10th July, 1929.

Class.	Average hours per month.			Average earnings per month.			Average earnings per hour.		
	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29.
1	—	—	—	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Annas.	Annas.	Annas.
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	281.4	212.3	217.2	19 8 2	25 9 7	49 4 0	1.8	1.8	3.5
4	227.9	211.0	206.5	21 2 1	27 15 8	47 7 0	1.4	2.0	3.7
5	228.0	218.9	196.1	25 11 7	25 14 2	47 1 0	1.8	2.6	3.8
6	252.8	214.8	191.5	30 1 0	43 6 11	37 12 0	2.0	3.3	3.1
7	245.5	221.8	196.4	33 3 9	50 15 8	48 6 0	2.5	3.6	3.9
8	234.2	207.2	199.9	40 3 3	53 3 10	52 14 0	2.6	3.8	4.3
9	223.5	209.8	213.4	44 12 8	58 10 10	60 11 0	3.0	4.3	4.6
10	246.0	221.3	205.5	53 11 8	65 5 11	57 4 0	3.3	4.6	4.5
11	256.3	222.4	206.4	62 0 9	75 13 11	64 0 0	3.7	5.3	5.0
12	257.6	223.3	193.0	64 14 0	74 9 9	69 7 0	3.9	5.2	5.7
13	267.9	236.8	203.6	77 6 5	91 6 2	77 13 0	4.6	6.2	6.1
14	244.4	219.5	202.7	71 8 7	83 4 1	80 13 0	4.6	6.3	6.4
15	262.2	214.3	211.5	78 10 6	85 12 6	90 5 0	4.5	6.3	6.8
16	263.2	237.9	209.4	89 6 7	111 9 3	93 14 0	5.1	7.2	7.0
17	273.9	240.3	214.8	100 9 7	120 0 3	108 2 0	5.8	7.9	8.2
18	—	—	225.2	—	—	123 8 0	—	—	8.8
19	—	—	210.9	—	—	100 9 0	—	—	7.6
20	—	—	216.8	—	—	114 1 0	—	—	8.4
21	—	—	226.9	—	—	122 1 0	—	—	8.6
22	—	—	184.7	—	—	119 7 0	—	—	10.3

*Method of fixing Wages and extent of Standardisation.*—The rates of pay for various classes of press workers are sanctioned by the Government of India. The broad principles regulating fixation of wages are (i) cost of living, (ii) availability of the class of workers required, (iii) nature of the duties performed. Beyond this it cannot be said that any particular method is adopted in either fixing or standardizing wages in the Presses.

*Extent of Deductions made on account of Fining and their utilisation.*—Fines made are classified under three heads:—(a) Those credited to Government for neglect of duty or bad work involving extra expenditure to Government; (b) the pye-sorting fine imposed to re-coup Government for the cost of sweeping from the floor and sorting and replacing in the cases type thrown there by the compositors; (c) those imposed for petty misdemeanours involving no loss to Government.

As regards the last category, the Government of India decided, as a result of a representation made while I was in charge of the Simla Press and as a result of a works committee representation, to institute with effect from the 1st April, 1922, a fine fund for each of their Presses. To this fund are credited all fines realized from the workmen, excluding pye and such other fines as are levied for neglect or bad work entailing loss or extra expenditure on Government. The assets of the fund are applied to the relief of distress among workmen or their families in accordance with the rules which follow. This fund is quite separate and distinct from the general provident fund or any special provident fund established specifically for Press workers. For example, grants may be made to sick workmen or to families of workmen left in impoverished circumstances by the death of bread winner.

No grants are made except upon the recommendation of the manager with the sanction of the controller. It is open to the works committee to bring to the notice of the manager any cases which they consider deserving of relief from the fund. In fact, no grant is usually made unless agreed to by the works committee.

The amount of the grant is fixed with reference to the rate of pay, length of service, the necessities of the case and the balance available in the fund.

Recoveries of the funds are deposited in the Post Office Savings Bank to the credit of the manager of the Press, and regular accounts of receipts and expenditure are submitted to the controller and audited by the examiner, Government Press accounts.

The following statistics show the amount of fines levied for bad work involving loss to Government, and it may be noticed that considering the large number of employees the amounts in recent years are trifling :—

Year.	Calcutta.	Delhi.	Simla.	Aligarh.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1924-25 ..	—	3 8 0	1,510 0 0	28 4 0
1925-26 ..	379 15 0	2 0 0	477 6 0	33 1 0
1926-27 ..	40 9 0	27 5 11	787 1 0	25 15 0
1927-28 ..	17 2 0	Nil	851 8 0	11 15 0
1928-29 ..	1 5 0	0 12 0	744 9 0	33 13 0

*Pye Sorting Account of the Government of India Presses.*

Period.	Calcutta.		Delhi.	
	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1924-25 ..	700 11 0	* Nil	655 1 0	715 2 8
1925-26 ..	673 2 0	237 4 1	924 3 0	762 12 0
1926-27 ..	712 13 0	29 3 10	857 15 0	616 11 0
1927-28 ..	734 15 0	304 10 0	854 1 0	672 10 0
1928-29 ..	644 7 0	1,181 7 5	744 15 0	258 12 0

\* There was no expenditure in 1924-25, as no pye sorting was done; surplus pyed type having been sold off.

*Statement of particulars of the Fine Funds of the Government of India Presses.*

Period.	Calcutta.		Delhi.		Simla.		Aligarh.	
	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
1924-25	1,138 4	Nil	379 13	982 6	211 14	400 0	5 11	Nil
1925-26	1,307 6	Nil	291 11		205 7	150 0	92 14	Nil
1926-27	1,108 14	222 12	276 7		155 8	220 0	265 12	10 0
1927-28	1,249 12	1,138 14	170 13		188 7	330 0	280 12	108 0
1928-29	1,115 13	1,291 0	254 15		131 7	50 0	328 14	72 0

*Extent of Annual Leave allowed and taken by Workers.*—For the purpose of leave the industrial staff is classified into the following six categories :—

Classification.	Leave rules under which governed.
(1) Employees holding permanent substantive appointments prior to 6th September, 1928.	Fundamental rules.
(2) Permanent salaried industrial employees classed superior appointed substantively on or after 6th September, 1928.	Leave rules sanctioned in Annexure I to F.D. Resolution No. F.119/R.I./28, dated 6th September, 1928.
(3) Permanent piece - workers classed superior.	Leave rules sanctioned in Annexure II to F.D. Resolution No. F.119/R.I./28, dated 6th September, 1928.
(4) Temporary salaried employees appointed prior to 22nd May, 1929.	Supplementary rules.
(5) Temporary piece.. .. .	Sixteen days class pay leave in a year provided the employee is regular in attendance.
(6) Temporary salaried employees appointed on or after 22nd May, 1929.	Non-cumulative leave on full pay for 16 days in a year.

Permanent salaried industrial employees below the grade of overseer or assistant manager earn leave on average pay at the rate of one month's leave for every complete period of 11 months' duty, and as regards incomplete periods, one day's leave for every 11 days' duty, provided that no such leave can be earned by any employee who has four months' leave on average pay to his credit.

On the production of a medical certificate, leave on half average pay up to three months may be added to the leave mentioned above, and a further extension of leave on half average pay not exceeding three months may be granted on the production of a fresh medical certificate granted by the officer in chief medical charge of the district in which the employee is residing, provided that the total amount of leave on medical certificate during the employee's service shall not exceed two years. Leave without pay is granted when no other leave is due.

Injury leave at half-pay rates is granted from the commencement of disablement to all permanent salaried industrial employees below the grade of overseer or assistant manager irrespective of whether their pay exceeds Rs. 300 a month or not, who are injured in circumstances which would give rise to claims for compensation in the case of a workman as defined in the Workmen's Compensation Act. This leave is granted for so long as is necessary, subject to a limit of two years for any one disability and five years during an employee's total service. This is not taken into account in calculating the limits laid down for leave on medical certificate.

Permanent salaried industrial hands employed before the 6th September, 1928, enjoy 10 days' casual leave during a year.

*Permanent Piece-workers.*—Non-cumulative leave on average pay is granted to piece-workers according to their service as shown below :—

<i>Length of service.</i>	<i>Leave admissible.</i>
Less than 10 years .. .. .	16 days in each calendar year.
10 years but less than 15 years ..	23 days in each calendar year.
15 years and above .. .. .	31 days in each calendar year.

In calculating the length of service, the period of continuous temporary service rendered by a piece-worker up to the date of his being brought on to the permanent establishment is taken into account. Gazetted holidays actually enjoyed are, at the option of the piece-worker, counted against any leave admissible to him, and if so counted will be paid for.

Leave on medical certificate on half average pay is earned at the rate of one month's leave for every complete period of eleven months' duty and as regards incomplete periods, one day's leave for every eleven day's duty. It is cumulative and is granted only when no average pay leave is admissible.

Leave without pay is granted when no other leave is due.

No continuous period of leave with pay shall exceed one year; any extension over one year shall be leave without pay.

Injury leave is granted as mentioned above.

*Temporary Establishment.*—Temporary salaried industrial hands who were in employ before the 22nd May, 1929, are allowed 10 days' casual leave in a year plus leave under Supplementary Rule 285, but those recruited on or after the 22nd May, 1929, are allowed 16 days' leave in a year. Those who come within the first category have the option to take 16 days' leave in a year in lieu of the leave to which they are entitled. The option once exercised is final. Temporary piece-workers are granted 16 days' leave in a year.

Quarantine leave is granted to salaried industrial hands and piece-workers, whether permanent or temporary, on the occurrence of infectious diseases in their quarters or when they are detained in plague camps, with full pay up to 30 days. This leave is not debited against any kind of leave which is due to them. If the period of absence exceeds 30 days, the employees are allowed leave with leave salary of any kind which is due to them and thereafter leave without leave salary.

In the case of a Press worker bitten by a rabid animal, to enable him to undergo anti-rabic treatment in a Pasteur institute, he is granted, under Rule 2 of Appendix 8 to Civil Account Code, Volume I, one month's casual leave, or when the appointment of a substitute is found necessary, one month's extra leave on average pay, which will not be debited to his leave account, any leave required in excess being granted under the ordinary rules.

As the leave rules in the fundamental rules were considered unsuitable for industrial establishments like the Government of India Presses, a new set of leave rules for the new entrants to permanent superior industrial establishment and the existing permanent superior piece workers were introduced in September, 1928. In the said rules new concessions regarding leave on average pay and medical leave on half average pay were also, for the first time, given to piece-workers.

*Extent of Leave taken.*—Except in rare cases, piece-workers avail of all the leave on full class pay admissible to them in a year. An examination of the amount of leave on average pay taken by the permanent salaried industrial employees of the Delhi Press during the year 1928-29 shows that out of a staff of 141, leave on average pay was taken by 93 men to the extent of an average of 1 month and 4 days per head. The minimum and maximum amount of leave on average pay taken during the year varied from one day to 8½ months. Taking into account all sorts of leave taken by the industrial staff, comprising 360 men during the year 1928-29, it has been found that on an average 13 per cent. of the staff is absent daily on leave of one kind or another.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

*Effects of Trades Unions.*—There is an organization founded in 1919 with its headquarters in Calcutta called the Press Employees Association. This organization has not yet received recognition by the Government of India, as it does not conform to the requirements under which such organizations are to be recognized.

A phase of its activities is to be seen by the letter given under *Works Committees* and it is stated by one manager that its activities such as those which have detracted from the interest formerly taken in the works committees by the employees who prefer to have their grievances ventilated in the Council Chambers.

Personally, while in charge of the Simla and Calcutta Presses, I have had no reason to complain of the activities of this Association.

I have no information of the present existence of any organization of the employees of the Delhi Press. In March, 1928, a meeting of Press employees was held at Timarpur, at which a prominent Labour member of the Legislative Assembly presided with the object of organizing a trade union of Press employees amongst those engaged in that industry in the Delhi province which, presumably, meant a branch of the Calcutta Press Employees Union. A temporary working committee was appointed and, I think the union functioned for some time, but I have no official information of its present existence in Delhi; therefore, the effects of the Trade Unions Act, 1926, and any organization of the operatives have been nil so far as the Delhi Press is concerned.

*Effects of Trade Union Act.*—As no organization is yet in existence which is recognized by Government, I have no remarks to offer.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

*Extent of Strikes and Lock-outs in Presses, with Causes, Duration and Nature of Settlement—Calcutta.*—In September, 1905, influenced by the Swadeshi and Boycott movement in Bengal, the employees of the Government of India Press, Calcutta, struck work. The position was at the very outset taken in hand, and the Comptroller-General gave a sympathetic hearing to the grievances of the strikers. The main demands of the strikers were increased overtime and payment for Sundays and other holidays. The Controller of Printing and Stationery instituted enquiries into the matter, and effected what appeared to be a settlement, but it subsequently proved to be merely a lull in the storm. About seven ringleaders who were at the bottom of the whole trouble were dismissed. Some of these were also arrested by the police on a charge of threatening the men who did not join the strikers. This revived the strike, and about 50 per cent. of the employees absented themselves. Although they were informed by the Controller that modifications were called for in some of the rules and conditions that regulated the Press, they did not appear to be interested neither would they represent any grievance in the proper way. They convened meetings under the auspices of the leading politicians, as a result of which the trouble was exaggerated. Efforts were made to pacify the excitement by persuading the strikers to submit their grievances, but in vain. Work was carried on with the co-operation of the local private presses, and with the assistance of the Provincial Government Presses. Briefly, the grievances were :—(1) Payment for Sunday holidays; (2) Payment for Gazetted holidays; (3) Imposition of irregular fines; (4) Grant of leave on medical certificate and average pay; (5) Higher rate of overtime; (6) Re-instatement of dismissed men. Settlement on the following terms were offered and accepted by the strikers, and the trouble was brought to an end in November, 1905, after a little over one month :—(1) List of Bengal holidays was incorporated in the Press Rules; (2) Reduction in the rate of deduction for pye-sorting; (3) Provision of more coolies for carrying compositors' cases; (4) Payment to salaried men for working extra hours; (5) Fine register was maintained regularly. The men who were dismissed were not re-instated.

The last strike in Government of India Presses took place in July, 1920, which affected the Presses at Calcutta, Simla and Delhi.

The strike of 1920 was confined in the main to the piece-workers, although the machinemen of the Delhi Press, who were and are still salaried men, and many other salaried hands joined the strikers, as also did the bindery staff, who at that time worked solely on hour rates. The remainder of the staff worked throughout the strike.

In the Calcutta Press practically the whole of the operatives left their work whether salaried or otherwise.

The duration of the strike was about two months, i.e., from July 20th to September 19th, 1920, in the Delhi Press, but the operatives of the Calcutta Press left their work on or about the 14th July, 1920.

Before the strike concluded it had, more or less, developed into a fight between the piece-workers and the Government of India for fixed salaries *versus* piece-rates, but the original reason for the operatives leaving their work was their dissatisfaction with the revised terms of service, increase of rates, etc., published in a Government of India Resolution No. A-31, dated July 15th, 1920, from the Board of Industries and Munitions.

For some time previous to the strike the Press employees had been in receipt of temporary war allowances, and the Resolution previously referred to abolished these and increased the rates of payment by an amount which the Government of India thought adequate, but the operatives thought otherwise and left their work.

The Government of India gave an assurance to the strikers that the main object underlying the Government Resolution was to enable operatives to earn higher wages than heretofore, and to work shorter hours. The operatives, however, were not satisfied with the revision of emoluments, and remained away from their duties for two months. During this period some of those who went out on strike returned to duty and negotiations took place between the representatives of the strikers and the Government of India, which resulted in their resuming work on the same terms with which they had expressed their dissatisfaction by going on strike. The period of absence without permission was not treated as a break in service for the purpose of pension, etc., and no man was in any way penalized or punished as a result of the strike.

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#### THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR SUPPLYING MEDICAL AID BY WOMEN TO THE WOMEN OF INDIA (COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN'S FUND).

For the information of the members of the Royal Commission on Labour, it is desirable to state the nature of the organizations on whose behalf the following memorandum is submitted.

The Women's Medical Service of India has a cadre of 44 members recruited in the proportion of 50 Europeans and 50 with Indian domicile. The majority of the latter have both Indian and European qualifications. The Service is administered by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund Committee, which receives a grant of Rs. 3,70,000 from the Government of India for the purpose. The Chief Medical Officer, besides being the head of the Service, is consulted freely on questions relating to the supply of medical aid to the women of India, and is intimately acquainted with all the many problems involved. She is also secretary to two other organizations which deal with questions affecting the health and welfare of women.

*The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund* was established in 1902 to promote the training of indigenous midwives (or dais).

*The Lady Chalmersford League for Maternity and Child Welfare* undertakes three main pieces of work:—(1) Propaganda of various types; (2) Organizing schools for the training of Health Visitors; (3) Grants-in-aid to organizations in Government of India areas. It is also in correspondence with numerous organizations throughout India, which seek its advice on matters relating to maternity and child welfare schemes, and is in touch with the movement all over the world. Apart from the help given in advice, the League has been the means of supplying health visitors to various societies for employment.

On account of this knowledge of the medical and health needs and problems of the women of India, I beg to submit the following remarks under the heading :

#### IV.—Health.

23. (ii) *Birth-rate and Infant Mortality.—Methods of registration.*—The figures for infant mortality in industrial areas compare unfavourably with those in other towns and in rural areas. In the report of the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India (1926) the following figures are quoted :—

Calcutta 372 per mille, Howrah 339, Ahmedabad 436, Cawnpore 484. It is doubtless true that these figures are vitiated to some extent by the exodus of women for child-birth to their villages, and the death of the child on their return to the town, but the fact remains that the conditions of life for children in industrial areas, whatever the cause, are not those that make for health. Investigation on this point is urgently required. Medical women in India have repeatedly pressed for an enquiry into the causes of infant mortality. An enquiry of this kind would enable suitable measures to be taken to try and reduce the mortality, and such an enquiry would naturally embrace in its scope the question of the causes of high death-rate among the children of industrial workers. No response has yet been made to this request for investigation, though it is obvious that it is a *sine qua non* for the formation of proper child welfare schemes.

Registration is known to be very faulty, and the penalties attached to failure to register are insufficient to act as deterrents. Accurate vital statistics are said to be the foundation of proper public health work. If that is the case it is difficult to see how the latter can be satisfactory in India.

The registration of the *causes* of death is even more unsatisfactory hence the necessity for an enquiry.

In this connection I should like to point out the usefulness of the work of Health Visitors. Were Health Visitors at work in an industrial area they would be able to aid registration in various ways, e.g., they would have knowledge of the cases of delivery expected in their area and would know what proportion stayed in the locality and how many went to their villages for confinement; they would be able to detect unregistered births and urge registration in their visits to the homes; they would be able to check, to a certain extent, the causes of death.

24. *Extent of Medical Facilities provided.*—In dealing with this point my evidence is based not so much on actual experience of industrial areas as on general knowledge of the demand for and need of medical women, health visitors and midwives. My remarks concern 24. (iv) more particularly, but I have not found it possible to separate the four sub-heads.

The cadre of the Women's Medical Service is very small, and it is composed of relatively expensive and highly trained women. The services of these can be seconded to a provincial Government or a private body by arrangement, and are sometimes asked for in this way. With the exception of the cases noted below no doctor has ever been asked for in connection with work for women in industrial areas, either Government or private.

In 1921 the Department of Industries considered seriously the possibility of giving effect to the recommendations of the International Labour Conference at Washington regarding the employment of women before and after child-birth. A scheme was drawn up which proposed the employment of medical women, health visitors and midwives. As a preliminary, the services of two medical women were asked from the Countess of Dufferin's Fund for investigating the conditions of women's labour in Bengal and Bombay. These two medical women belonging to the Women's Medical Service were lent for this purpose, their grade pay being paid by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund.

These two officers submitted their reports,\* which in addition to the results of their investigations on the effect of factory and other work on the health and physique of women workers, contained various suggestions and recommendations regarding the provision of medical and health facilities for women workers. These suggestions, which could well form the basis of schemes at the present day, have hardly been acted upon and no first class medical women have been asked for for this work. Medical women are employed by some of the Bombay and Nagpur mills, but not so far as we are aware by any of the jute and other mills near Calcutta, or in any other industrial concerns in India, either private or Government.

Health visitors have been employed in small numbers, e.g., in Bengal, one health visitor was appointed in 1922 and another in 1926. I believe others are about to begin work in the jute mills near Calcutta, but the numbers employed are certainly very inadequate to the need. Health visitors have been employed in Cawnpore for some years under the B. I. Corporation.

\* *Maternity Benefits to Industrial Workers*, Dr. F. D. Barnes, Bombay Labour Gazette, September, 1922. *Women's Labour in Bengal Industries*, No. 31. *Bulletins of Indian Industries and Labour*.

In Bombay, Ahmedabad, Nagpur and Sholapur some provision is made for nurses, and creches are also established in certain mills for the care of infants of women employees, but it is certain that the needs of women and children have not been met by these provisions either by Government or by employers. Occasionally voluntary societies have started work which should properly have been undertaken by the employing bodies, e.g., creches and dispensaries in Ahmedabad and health visitors in a few places. (In the hydro-electric scheme of the Punjab at Mandi a health visitor is working. The scheme was at first entirely financed by the Lady Chelmsford League, though the Punjab Health Department is now meeting some of the expense.)

The conditions of work of health visitors are frequently difficult, as they may be placed in situations where they are lonely and unprotected. The pay given does not always compensate them for these drawbacks.

Midwives are sometimes asked for by employers, and difficulty has been experienced in securing suitable women. It has to be realized that the difficulties involved are very real. The midwife may have the same disadvantages to cope with as the health visitor, and in addition she has to face competition of a serious kind from the indigenous untrained midwives who are on the spot. These latter women are either local midwives (or dais) or else they come from the villages with the workers. They must in either case earn their livelihood, and it is a very poor one, so that they resent the intrusion of paid midwives, who take no fees. They do not scruple to spread absurd and lying rumours about the new comers, which may make their work impossible.

In considering this problem (i.e., 24 (iv)) it is necessary in my opinion to take a large view of it.

It is obvious that, where numbers of people are gathered together as in industrial centres, the need to guard the health of workers is specially great. This is generally recognized as a principle in such matters as housing and sanitation, and the prevention of epidemic disease, even though in practice it may be imperfectly realized. In so far as women and children are part of the population of these areas, they share in the benefits of such schemes of improvement. It is, however, a fact that women and children have special needs in industrial, as in other, areas, due to the peculiar conditions of life in India, and very little attempt has been made to meet these needs. This no doubt partly due to the fact that the needs have not been realized, but it is also due to apathy and to unwillingness to spend money on the purpose, or inability to do so. In this connection it is to be noted that this special provision is needed, not merely for women actually working, but also for the wives and children of workers.

The circumstances that render necessary the provision of special facilities for medical treatment and for health work among women and children are as follows:—

(1) The fact that the majority of women, even when not observing "purdah," do not care for the attendance of men doctors for gynaecological complaints or at the time of child-birth.

(2) The fact that the majority of confinements in India are presided over by untrained indigenous midwives (dais). These ignorant women, belonging frequently to low castes, are the sole attendants, and they serve the function of midwife and nurse, and frequently also of gynaecological consultant.

(3) The small experience of most men doctors of midwifery and gynaecology and also of diseases of children for the reason given under (1).

(4) With special regard to health work, the difficulty of penetrating the house and home of the worker with any teaching in health matters or securing any supervision of what occurs there, which may be greatly to the detriment of the health of both the home and community at large.

A complete scheme of medical women with health visitors and midwives working under their control is what is likely to meet the problem. It is almost impossible to ask individual women to undertake the necessary work. Without inspection, control and encouragement such workers, even if they are ready to stand up to the conditions involved, tend to get into ruts over their work, and fail to uphold a good standard. It is very difficult for men doctors to effect this necessary supervision for various reasons.

Such a scheme would not be difficult to carry out. In a really large concern the expense could be met by a single firm. In other cases a group could unite to employ one good medical woman to supervise the work of several mills or factories, the lower grade of workers being paid for by individual firms. For even smaller units, part-time services might be utilized. No doubt such schemes would require careful organizing, but there is no reason why they should not be successful.

The presence of women assistants to the Directors of Public Health in the provinces would materially assist in the advancement and smooth working of such schemes. This was in fact recommended in the reports alluded to above, and has been repeatedly urged by medical women since.

At the time of the scheme suggested by the Industries Department in connection with maternity benefits, the doubt was expressed that medical women would be available in sufficient numbers for the purpose outlined. Though many more medical women are available at the present time, that doubt is still voiced. It is also expressed with regard to the provision of health visitors and midwives. I believe this does present some difficulty, but at the same time I have not much doubt but that, if posts were created, applicants would come forward. Since the demand has been so little made, the supply is not apparent. Were the demand to increase, the supply would increase. Good conditions must, of course, go with such appointments in order to attract the right type of workers. It has to be remembered that the earning power of all professional women in India is greater than that of men, so that their work is relatively expensive.

It may be pointed out here that substantial benefits would accrue to the employing bodies through such appointments. The complaint is frequently made that labour is unstable; and this involves loss to the firms concerned. The provision of good medical and health facilities for women would prevent to a large extent the exodus of women to villages for confinements, and would tend to correct the disturbance of the sex ratio in industrial areas. No one can doubt that both these factors would help to stabilize labour. With regard to the women who are actually working, improvement in their physique would undoubtedly increase their value to the employer and mean less absence for sickness. Such provision as I have outlined for women workers or the wives and children of workers, need not therefore be regarded as pure philanthropy, but as an investment which will bring in a return.

25. (ii) In the reports of Dr. Curjel and Dr. Barnes above alluded to, the fact was brought out that women take very little advantage of the provision made by mill and factory authorities for medical help. I give above my reason for this state of affairs. My opinion is based not only on these and other reports of those acquainted with the conditions in industrial areas, but on my own knowledge of the facts as applied to the general public. It is true that in many parts of India women have no objection to attending general dispensaries for ordinary complaints, but when anything gynaecological occurs, they will not seek advice from men, nor be attended by them in child-birth. The women of Madras Presidency are perhaps an exception to this rule, but, even there, many women would prefer a woman, even though the services of a man might not be actually banned. Where adequate medical facilities exist, and in this I include the provision of health visitors and midwives, and are suited to the conditions, they are fully utilized and appreciated.

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LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR EDWIN H. DE VERE ATKINSON, K.C.B., K.B.E.,  
C.M.G., C.I.E., MASTER-GENERAL OF THE ORDNANCE IN INDIA.

*General.*—Detailed replies to the questionnaire have been sent in by four arsenals and seven factories. It would be difficult without reiteration to collate these in detail, as the local circumstances differ so much in establishments spread over an immense area as involved in India.

It must be borne in mind that in arsenals, the majority of the labour is unskilled, and in factories the majority is skilled.

In the following memorandum I have endeavoured to provide what has been asked from me, which is a general statement on the most important points, and not a detailed reply to each sub-item of the questionnaire. Technical details such as time-keeping, payments, safety, compensation, etc., are more or less the same in all factories, and have been dealt with by superintendents.

#### I.—Recruitment.

Migration of unskilled labour is, as is to be expected in an agricultural country, chiefly due to seasonal causes when men return to their crops.

Changes in skilled labour are mostly due to the varying needs of the army. As the load on the factories varies with the yearly demands on them, so the number of skilled employees has to be changed to meet the varying load. Any large turnover is to be strongly deprecated from a point of view of efficiency.



Recruitment of labour varies in methods :—(a) Through existing employees ; (b) Labour Bureaus and trade tests, and registration of applicants ; (c) Apprentices ; (d) Notices at factory gates ; (e) Through sirdars, or gangers.

There is no doubt that the best method is an efficient and well-organized Labour Bureau. These have been existent in most factories for years, and have lately been introduced into arsenals.

The functions of a Labour Bureau generally are :—(i) The recruitment and grading of all skilled and unskilled labour ; (ii) The maintenance of records of service of workmen and of their earnings and punishments ; (iii) The records and location of all discharged men.

The efficiency of the work depends, however, greatly on a first class manager.

The duties as detailed in the rifle factory, Ishapore, are heavy, and it is hoped all other bureaus will develop on these lines.

The worst method is (e) through sirdars or gangers. The breaking up of this system in the clothing factory, Shahjahanpur, was responsible for a strike in 1926 (Vol. III., Part I., page 303). The custom was for a ganger, who was not often even a tailor, to produce so many tailors and take a percentage of their pay. When it was settled to introduce piece-work and pay a man according to his skill and industry, it was necessary to abolish gangers. They naturally resented having their soft method of livelihood taken away and organized a strike. Certain tailors, however, refused to strike and accepted the new terms, and on their experience the strikers soon returned when they saw the advantages to themselves of the new system.

*Unemployment Insurance.*—This would be far more difficult and expensive in India than in the West, but if possible would be a great boon to skilled workmen, specially trained for ordnance manufacture, but if generally introduced the burden on Government and the employer would be immense.

*Turnover of Labour and Public Employment Agencies.*—Superintendents have given details of turnover generally. There are, however, some aspects they are unable to touch on.

The volume of work in any ordnance factory is dependent on the army demand, and this is not a constant quantity, hence the majority of our employees have to be kept on an elastic basis. In a few cases it is practicable and advisable to keep out-turn fairly constant, and let variations in stock cover variations in consumption ; examples are small arm ammunition, cartridges .303 in. Such cases can only occur when the military necessity of readiness for mobilization justifies the expenditure of more cash than the minimum visible demand would cost. In the majority of cases this is not practicable, and variations in labour staff required become inevitable with consequent turnover.

In recent years army provision methods have improved, and very great fluctuations in demand have been eliminated.

The labour records now kept enable us to keep to some extent in touch with labour that has left, and we have evidence that some at any rate of the private firms are beginning to use army factory labour records as a convenient method of getting hold of semi-skilled and skilled men to deal with the variations in demand which are equally inevitable in the private trade.

I am informed that certain firms when they sell machine tools advise the buyers to get men trained at Cossipore or Ishapore. Some firms are openly approaching factory Labour Bureaus for this purpose. Others, however, do not do this, though we know they depend very largely on ordnance factory men.

Up to a point we are welcoming this type of turnover, as it increases the reserve of skilled or semi-skilled labour in the country available to meet mobilization needs. Moreover, the wider experience obtained tends to more fully trained men for supervising posts.

The above facts indicate that there are already openings for general labour bureaus in the country. I am in doubt, however, whether the time is really ripe for them, and it is possible they would lead to "graft." A difficulty is the immense distances in India and the sparse distribution of trades. Though Indian labour does not mind considerable migration, yet the cost of journeys has in the long run to be borne by the cost of goods, and the margin available for such extraneous charges is none too large. The evidence for readiness to migrate is available from ordnance factories.

Aruvankadu (Nilgiris) employs men recruited in Calcutta and Madras. The map of recruitment at Jubbulpore shows a range from Tuticorin to Kabul. Metal and Steel Factory regularly recruits certain types from Mirzapore. Shahjahanpur taps Sialkot.

A further difficulty is the uncertain standard of training. Apparently in England a man's union ticket is a real guarantee of a minimum standard of skill. There is nothing like this in India, and a man must be classified by trial on arrival.

In Appendix IV, I give some analyses of the uneconomical effect of a large labour turnover, which were worked out to help our proposal for a provident fund for daily men, in so far as it would tend to keep our turnover as steady as possible.

## II.—Staff Organization.

The staff organization of the army ordnance factories at army headquarters is as follows (details for arsenals not given).

The *Master-General of the Ordnance* is responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

*Director of Ordnance Factories and Manufacture.*—This officer is responsible for the administration of all the factories. In addition, in conjunction with the Director of Technical Organization, he is responsible for keeping in general touch with private manufacture in the country to see what army stores can be produced in India, and thus avoid importation.

He has under him :—(a) Deputy Director.—Responsible to the director for all questions concerning personnel and stores, also spade work of finance ; (b) Civil Engineer Adviser.—Responsible for all questions concerning plant, buildings and methods of working ; (c) Assistant Civil Engineer Adviser (I).—Responsible for regulation of output to meet needs. Cross feed between factories and allied work. This officer is also responsible to the officer in charge of army provision for placing orders for supply of all army needs, after quantities and cash available have been approved, and for following up rate of supply. He is also responsible to the Director of Technical Organization for placing these orders in the way best calculated to ensure possibility of requisite supply in war ; (d) Assistant Civil Engineer Adviser (II).—In primary charge of material provision section, and spade work in assistance to Deputy and C. E. A.

*Finance.*—The factories are essentially financed from the value of orders placed on them. Each item of manufacture is priced at a sort of catalogue rate by the financial authorities, called "Priced Vocabulary Rates." Normally this rate is the lowest at which recent supplies have been made. Prices are assumed to remain constant for three years and are then revised.

The sum total of the value of orders so placed at these rates, plus any incidental receipts such as sale of waste materials, is the available cash at the disposal of the Director. This cash has to pay for all expenses of the factory, including all wages from that of the Director downwards, depreciation charges, police charges, etc.

This system has had great effects. It has brought home to all concerned more or less definitely that the more the individual and system together earn, the more there is available for increasing the real money value of all wages, whether directly or by means of increased comfort and other conveniences.

The Director allots funds to the individual factories on practically the same system, but allows for variations in the amounts of available stocks.

In each factory the organization is essentially identical, and is fairly self explanatory :—Superintendent ; works manager, production ; works manager, non-production, including stores ; works inspection officer ; assistant works managers as needed ; sections (typical) ; 1 foreman ; 1 assistant foreman ; chargemen as needed ; 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade supervisors as needed ; gang or line mistries ; workmen ; store section, 1 store-holder ; assistant store-holder, receipts and issues ; assistant store-holder, provision ; chargemen as needed ; godown-keepers as needed, each responsible for holding a small group of stores.

The works inspection officer is responsible that correct material is used, and for all stage inspection.

An independent army inspection staff inspects final out-turn, and any key stages desired. This has no connection with factory costs.

An independent accounts organization, which is, however, charged against factory out-turn, compiles and audits all factory accounts and supplies factory management staff with necessary figures.

In any given factory or section any one or more posts or grades may be eliminated if necessary. For instance, one factory has only one officer representing the assistant works manager and upwards.

Details of the organization in each factory and arsenal are given in their printed statements.

*Recruitment and Training.*—The various schemes under which the ordnance factories endeavour to train men for their various charges is given in Appendix I—'Extracts from a note on Vocational Training in the Ordnance Factories.'

(iii) Appendix II shows sanctioned permanent establishment in the Indian ordnance and clothing factories, and arsenals.

Appendix III shows the average present strength of employees in the Indian ordnance and clothing factories, and arsenals per diem.

*Works Councils, Associations and Trade Unions.*—Brief histories of each that exist are as follows. It will, however, be seen from the detailed reports that various workmen's councils have been started and tried out, but have generally died out.

*Civilian Gazetted Officers' Association of the Ordnance Factories.*—Application for Government recognition of the Association was first received in December, 1925, and Government recognition was accorded in 1926. The membership of the Association is open to the civilian gazetted officers employed in the ordnance and clothing factories and the inspection section. The Association deals with questions relating to the status, conditions of service, concessions, remuneration, etc., of the above-named officers.

On the 28th March, 1929, the Association had on its books 37 members, out of 58 officers eligible.

*Foreman's Association of India.*—This was the first Association in the ordnance factories which was recognized by Government in 1919.

In their application for recognition it was stated that the Association was an incorporated body, duly registered, and requested that it might be recognized by Government as representing the civilian mechanics of the ordnance department, and at the same time assured Government that the object of the Association was to loyally assist the Government in every effort to better the prospects of the civilian mechanics and raise the standard of the department all round.

As this was the first definite application for recognition received by the Government of India from a body of Government servants, the matter was considered in all its bearings between the various departments of the Government of India with regard to such combinations of organized labour in India and their effect on the authority of Government in dealing with them. The matter was ultimately discussed in Viceroy's Council and the principle of recognition accepted. The official recognition was accordingly accorded to the Foreman's Association of India on the conditions laid down in the late Indian Munitions Board letter No. E.-1024, dated the 23rd May, 1919 (see Appendix VII).

The Foreman's Association of India as at present constituted is designed to protect the interests of the non-gazetted staff (principal foremen, foremen and assistant foremen) of the ordnance factories, inspection section and arsenals. Various representations and memorials have been received from time to time for the improvement of their terms and conditions of service during the last four or five years, and have been dealt with by this branch in the usual way and with due expedition.

*Precis of Formation of Whitley Councils, their present condition and work done so far.—Formation.*—In June, 1923, the Foreman's Association represented to the late Director-General of Ordnance that they desired the formation of Whitley Councils applicable to the civilian technical non-gazetted officers of the Indian Ordnance Department.

On examining the question in detail it was found that the system in force in England was not in all ways applicable to India, but it was decided to endeavour to form modified Whitley Councils.

The M.G.O., therefore, formed a representative committee consisting of:—One representative of the director of ordnance factories and manufacture, five representative officers from five factories, six members of the foreman's association, to meet in July, 1925, with a view to settling the drill to be followed in regard to the formation of the proposed Whitley Councils. In this meeting the object and functions of the proposed councils were drawn up and after some discussion, the Government of India in September, 1927, accorded an official recognition to the Whitley Councils.

The councils consist of:—

*Factory Councils.*—In each factory, consisting of two gazetted or commissioned officers and two members of the association.

*Central Council.*—Consisting of one gazetted or commissioned officer and one member of the staff side from each factory council.

*General Council.*—Consisting of the members of the central council with a representative of the M.G.O.

(This council is to meet not more than twice in a year and only if asked for by not less than three factory councils.)

All local questions are dealt with in the factory councils. Those that cannot be dealt with in the factory councils are referred to the central council and such matters as cannot be dealt with by the central council are referred to the general council.

The object and function of the councils are :—(i) Provision of best means for utilizing the ideas and experience of the staff ; (ii) to make recommendations regarding the general principles governing conditions of service, e.g., recruitment, hours, tenure and remuneration of the staff ; (iii) the encouragement of further education of the staff and their training in higher administration ; (iv) improvement of office machinery and organization ; (v) discussion of the general principles governing superannuation and provident fund rules and their application to the staff ; (vi) discussion of any promotion in regard to which the staff side considers that the principles of promotion have been violated.

*Present Condition and Work done so far.*—Members of the factory and central councils were chosen for the first session and the first meeting of the general council was held on 27th November, 1928. The following points were discussed in this meeting :—(a) Interpretation of the objects and functions of the councils ; (b) drawing up of bye-laws for the factory and central councils ; (c) procedure to be followed in affording executive experience to the non-gazetted staff ; (d) procedure to be followed in filling vacancies in junior gazetted and in non-gazetted staff ; (e) revision of the I.O.D. provident fund rules ; (f) adequacy of the present medical concessions ; (g) revision of the existing travelling allowance rules.

Items (a) to (d) have already been settled.

Regarding item (e), this is awaiting revision of the provident fund rules on the railway side, as the I.O.D. provident fund rules are based on those rules.

As regards item (f), the concessions asked for were :—(i) Medical attendance by an R.A.M.C. or an I.M.S. officer or by a qualified civil doctor ; (ii) provision of a motor ambulance in each establishment for carrying cases to hospitals ; (iii) treatment in military hospitals or where a military hospital is not available, treatment in civil hospitals.

(i) Is already provided for in the regulations ; (ii) this is under consideration ; (iii) treatment in military hospitals of civilian European gazetted and non-gazetted officers has been sanctioned in Army Department letter No. Z./4380/2 (D.M.S.), dated 9th August, 1929.

As regards item (g), the concessions asked for were :—(x) First-class travelling allowance and daily allowance for non-gazetted staff ; (y) actual expenses incurred for journeys within a radius of five miles of headquarters.

(x) Has been negatived ; (y) this is under consideration.

*Précis of History of the Cordite Factory Labour Union.*—In the first instance on the formation of the Cordite Factory Labour Union, the master-general of the ordnance had to inform the members that there were no existing rules under which the union could be recognized, but that he would be pleased to meet the members informally whenever he was in Aruvankadu. This he did several times, and came to the conclusion that the union if properly run was likely to be of great assistance to the administration.

Rules having been set forth by the Government of India, the Cordite Factory Labour Union was officially recognized by Government in 1928, on the understanding that the union would not amalgamate with other trade unions not composed of Government employees, and under the further conditions set forth in the rules (see Appendix VIII) regulating the recognition by Government of associations of Government employees. The registration of the union under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, was not considered necessary by the Government.

The union consists of workmen and supervisors on the temporary establishment of the Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu.

On 27th August, 1928, the union had 459 members on its books out of a total eligible strength of about 700. It had a balance to their credit of Rs. 578 on 1st July, 1928.

Representations received from the union from time to time have been given sympathetic consideration and two of the important concessions asked for by them, e.g., grant of leave with pay to daily paid men and provision for old age in the shape of a provident fund, have been recommended to Government and are likely to be in force shortly. Various minor recommendations have been carried out.

*Précis of the History of the Harness and Saddlery Factory Labour Union.*—The Harness and Saddlery Factory Labour Union applied for official recognition in January, 1928, and was officially recognized by Government in June, 1928, on the understanding that the conditions set forth in the rules regulating the recognition by

Government of Associations of Government employees are complied with. The registration of the union under the Trades Union Act of 1926 was not considered necessary by Government.

The union consists of workmen and supervisors on the temporary establishment of the Harness and Saddlery Factory, and of the Inspectorate of Stores and Clothing. The union had 350, out of about 1,800 eligible, members on its books on 31st March, 1929, and had a credit balance of Rs. 48 on that date.

The leaders of the union appear to take their advice from outside rather than inside the factory.

Since its recognition, no representation has been received from this body. An article appeared in the local newspaper "Mazdoor," in February, 1929, written by the honorary secretary of the union, accusing certain members of the Harness and Saddlery Factory staff of corruption, but the writer subsequently retracted it and apologized.

*Association—Clerks, Ordnance Factories.*—Clerks of ordnance factories have an All-India Association, with its headquarters at the Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore, and branches at other ordnance factories. The Association was recognized by Government in 1924. Its aims are mainly to watch the interests of the clerks of the ordnance factories. The membership of the Association as reported by the Association in November last stood at 297, out of approximately 400 who are eligible to join.

There is also an All-India Arsenal Clerks' Association.

### III.—Housing.

There is no doubt that all over the world generally wages have ceased to be the sole consideration in labour problems, and while wages have increased considerably faster than prices, discontent has grown out of the very discovery that money cannot purchase alleviation of the conditions under which men work. With education, the desire for a higher standard of living has increased and labour demands that it shall no longer be bought and sold as a dead commodity, but that its remuneration shall be regulated on the basis of the human needs of a family living in a civilized community.\*

In India, labour has not, except in a very few exceptional cases, arrived at the above pitch of reasoning, but there is no doubt that Indian labour at the present moment looks with appreciation at all attempts made to provide it with decent housing.

As stated in my evidence, I considered that the State should show the way to private concerns in giving decent accommodation to its workmen. Unfortunately, the amount involved was a large one and it has been possible to provide only a small amount in every year for workmen's lines.

Further, this has not merely a moral aspect but a financial one. From statistics kept and information obtained from acquittance rolls, it has been proved in Jubbulpore, that men living in the factory village compared with men living in the bazaar showed an average increase of efficiency of 17.5 per cent. equivalent to 436 annas per man per hour. The men had been for years engaged on piece-work so that their earnings were a measure of their efficiency.

Appendix V† shows what we have been able to do recently for housing workmen and Appendix VI our expenditure on welfare schemes.

### IV.—Health.

The following is the best we have been able to do, but there is no doubt in my mind that there is a strong feeling among workmen for the provision of medical and hospital facilities for themselves and their families:—

#### *Hospitals and Dispensaries.*

Metal and Steel and Rifle Factories, Ishapore.	(1) European park dispensary. (2) Central dispensary and 6-bedded casualty ward for Indian workmen. (3) Gate dispensary for first aid.
Ammunition Factory, Kirkee .. ..	2-bedded dispensary.
Cordite Factory, Aravankadu .. ..	(1) Central dispensary. (2) Maternity ward and child welfare centre.

\* Hobson.

† Not printed.

*Hospitals and Dispensaries.—Contd.*

Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore	..	The Factory subscribes to a local charitable 60-bed hospital.
Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore	..	(1) Factory dispensary. (2) Lines (3) 12-bedded hospital under consideration for epidemics.
Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore		Central dispensary.
Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur	..	(1) Hospital for 2 European and 6 Indian beds. (2) First-aid dispensary.

**V.—Welfare.**

It must be borne in mind that all expenditure on health and welfare has to be met out of the factories Budget, which, as explained under Finance (Staff Organization) depends on the rates fixed by the accounts officers for work turned out by the factories. It is only from profits made by efficient work and administration that any money is available, and further the existence of any profit depends on the total factory load being large enough to carry the fixed overhead charges.

Then again the success or otherwise of all the measures depends on the enthusiasm of the staff. The outstanding success of the rifle factory schemes is almost entirely due to the whole-hearted enthusiasm of the late Superintendent, Lieut.-Col. Lenfestey, R.A., and I am glad to be able to place this fact on record.

*Co-operative Societies.*—These valuable societies only exist in five factories, as their existence must depend on local enthusiasm, being self-supporting. Their objects are :—(i) To issue loans to members and free them from debt, and for marriage purposes ; (ii) Supply of stores when co-operative stores do not exist ; (iii) To encourage thrift through a deposit account system ; (iv) To pay home allowances to members' families.

By far the most successful is the Rifle Factory, Ishapore, which on 13th March, 1929, had—members, 2,958 ; working capital, Rs. 2,08,055 ; loans outstanding, Rs. 1,42,686 ; reserve fund, Rs. 20,960.

*Co-operative Stores.*—These again depend on local enterprise, and at present are only running in three factories. The Cordite Factory, for an invested capital of Rs. 7,500, has a turnover of Rs. 95,500 and 410 members.

*Other Welfare Measures.*—1. An Indian Club has been started at Ishapore at a cost of Rs. 25,000 with tennis and Badminton courts.

2. An educational cinema has been installed at the Technical School, Rifle Factory. For this purpose His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief gave a grant of Rs. 1,500 from his special fund.

I would also like to place on record that nearly the whole of the machinery in use at the Technical School has been received as free gifts from various Calcutta engineering firms.

*Grant of Leave with Pay to daily rated and monthly paid Men.*—Our daily rated and monthly paid men in factories at present only get leave with pay as follows :—(a) Leave for two days for plague inoculation ; (b) Short leave for broken periods of a day ; (c) Enforced casual leave for not more than one month at a time when the man himself or a member of his family or household is suffering from an infectious disease, or when he is sent to a Pasteur Institute for antirabic treatment.

A scheme has now been approved to follow railway practice and grant, in addition to the above, 15 days' casual leave with pay (to cover absences on account of non-gazetted holidays, sickness or leave) in each year to daily rated, but monthly paid, artisans, workmen and piece-workers, subject to the following conditions :—(i) That the man has been in the regular employment of the factories or inspection sections for the previous 12 months ; (ii) That the leave cannot be claimed as a right, nor can it accumulate.

*Provident Fund for monthly and daily rated Supervising and Clerical Staffs, Workmen and Piece-workers employed on Temporary Establishments of Ordnance and Clothing Factories and Inspection Sections.*—A proposal for making provision against old age and incapacity was mooted by the Cordite Factory Labour Union, Aruvankadu, in 1924. After prolonged consideration of this proposal the Government of India decided recently that the institution of a contributory provident fund for these workers is justified. Government have come to this decision not only from the point of view of the welfare of the employees, but with also the object of preventing the

pecuniary loss to Government caused by the fact that skilled workmen of the factories have frequently been tempted away to other workshops which offer inducements in the shape of provident fund, bonus and gratuities such as railway workshops. Government also preferred a contributory provident fund over a direct increase in emoluments of the workers concerned chiefly on the grounds that the provident fund enables a man to save money which otherwise, under the family system prevailing in this country, would go to his relatives or be spent on weddings and other ceremonies also that a provident fund has a great value in developing thrift and strengthening the position of the employer.

2. The Secretary of State has now approved the Government of India's scheme generally, but while leaving the detailed approval of the proposed rules to the Government of India, made certain suggestions. These suggestions may take some time in complying with, and then when funds can be made available the scheme will be brought to being (probably on 1st April, 1930). The provident fund scheme thus approved provides for subscription to the proposed fund by men with three or more years' continuous service in the factories or inspection sections, and includes certain safeguards against the men resigning their employments in order to obtain the provident fund money at their credit. Government contribution to each subscribers's account will be 50 per cent. of the money subscribed by him. This, though meeting to some extent the case of future workmen, does not legislate for the loyal workers of long service, who shortly have to leave through ill health or old age. The only way to meet these cases is the payment of bonuses from the fine funds, which is not an ideal method of meeting the obligation.

*Fine Funds.*—A fine fund is maintained by each ordnance and clothing factory. Its income is derived from fines realized on the following account from men on the extra and temporary establishment, whether monthly paid, daily paid or piece-workers :—Lateness, absence, bad work and breach of rules.

The fund is utilized for the benefit of the workmen and their families generally. The following is legitimate expenditure from the fund :—(a) Gratuities or donations may be given to workmen on discharge, but they must not exceed those permitted by regulations, though they may be given in addition to them ; (b) Donations to widows and families of deceased workmen ; (c) Allowances to sick or injured men in special cases ; (d) Relief in deserving cases, e.g., losses from floods or fires in the houses of men who have claims on the factory ; (e) Cost of construction and maintenance of such buildings and institutions as rest and dinner sheds, grain and other shops and schools for the benefit of the workmen and their families, provided that the entire expenditure on this account, initial as well as recurring, is met from the fine fund, and no portion thereof is charged against the working expenses of the factories.

Bonuses may be given periodically for good attendance or long service or for special good services.

## VI.—Education.

There is no doubt that education of workmen and their families leads to efficiency of work, better workmen, and the power for workmen to recognize the efforts that are being made, and that ought to be made, for their own comfort, health and well-being.

The amount of work we have succeeded in doing, with the funds at our disposal, is detailed in Appendix I.

## XII.—Wages.

Ordnance factories are distinct in a way from civilian factories, in that they are a branch of the army. They have to keep, in many cases, a larger nucleus of keymen, buildings and equipment than might be necessary in peace, to be ready for instant mobilization and enormous expansion in war. They do not require their men to serve under fire, but they do expect men to work somewhat under the same spirit of self-sacrifice as soldiers do, and to put their last ounce of effort into a job in the nation's service.

Their wages must vary in various factories, depending on local conditions, climate, race, etc., but the general principles for fixing wages are as follows :—

Wages are to be fixed in the first instance at the lowest rate that we can persuade efficient workmen to engage, which rate must be sufficient to keep them in such a state of fitness and keenness at all times that they may turn out our goods at the lowest practicable cost. Superintendents are encouraged to exercise full responsibility in the matter, and to take into consideration, in addition to actual money, education, quarters, welfare and other amenities. They have in their evidence detailed their local methods.

The higher management generally scrutinizes to see that the standard of fitness and keenness aimed at is not in excess of what is economical, having due regard to repercussions on the army at large and on local industries.

The criterion for testing these amenities is precisely the same as that for testing whether a new pattern machine is advisable ; (a) Have we cash available to authorize these ? (b) Money paid in the event of a man being hurt ; (c) Is it reasonably probable that they will not cause unwelcome repercussions in the army at large ?

It will be seen from the detailed reports that having fixed the minimum, in most factories work is graded into various scales, and the probationer is trade tested and his grade provisionally fixed. The trade test, in addition, is to ascertain whether it is safe to allow a man to try his hand at a specific job without undue risk of loss, by waste of material, of machine time, or of planning time.

In ordnance factories 95 per cent. of the workmen are paid on piece-work rates, and so the trade test not only fixes a nominal daily rate which only governs (a) money paid for a holiday with pay ; (b) money paid in the event of a man being hurt, but also the scale of piece-work rate.

The piece-work rate is fixed with the intention that a man of average intelligence with the necessary minimum skill, after a short experience, can earn about 25 per cent. over his nominal daily rate. Exceptional men can attain to three times the normal wage. If a man fails to earn sufficient he either leaves on his own, or is discharged by the factory for being a nuisance.

If it is found that an insufficient number of men stop, it is necessary to increase the piece-work rates or improve the standard of planning, whichever is most economical.

*Daily versus Monthly rates of Pay.*—From the fact that the load on factories depends on the yearly variation of demands from the army, which itself depends on the size of the army, the changes in patterns of equipment and lethal weapons, policy and economy, the ordnance factories have to be in an elastic position as regards the majority of their labour. Further monthly paid men clamour for every holiday, which in India are most numerous ; whereas daily paid men clamour for the factory to be kept open on holidays, which adds to efficiency and economy.

We restrict monthly paid men to those who normally do not do much overtime, but are essentially whole-time Government servants, keymen, and those cases where a man's job ought to carry a special " izzat."

The additional arguments on either side are as follows :—

*Daily Wage Men.*—(1) They are not whole-time servants of Government ; (2) They are therefore entitled to overtime ; (3) Unless specifically agreed to the contrary, they can go absent at any time without penalty, and in any case the penalty is small ; (4) They can be paid at piece-work rates, without difficulty, and allocation of time to a job is simple ; (5) There is no difficulty, other than funds being available without injustice to others, in arranging for a limited amount of leave with pay ; (6) Rates of pay are by custom fixed locally, and can follow market conditions.

*Monthly Wage Men.*—(1) Are whole-time servants of Government ; (2) They are therefore not entitled to overtime, and special sanctions have to be obtained to pay it ; (3) In theory one day's absence without leave ends their service, and washes out all previous service unless absence is specially condoned. In practice this is arranged for, but at any time they are at the mercy of audit, which is necessarily soulless ; (4) Piece-work payment is difficult if not impossible, and time allocation to a job is harder ; (5) They are automatically entitled to privilege leave under certain conditions annually ; (6) Rates of pay have invariably to be sanctioned by higher and non-local authority, and payment has to be subject to pre-audit. It is in consequence difficult for rates to follow the market ; (7) From the old idea of what are now considered illegitimate " perquisites," the rates of pay which will initially attract are low, and this leads later to dissatisfaction.

*Regularity of Employment and rates of Pay.*—The question has been asked whether we have to pay higher wages owing to irregularity of employment. There is no such thing as absolute constancy of employment in any job which depends on demand. The army is commonly regarded as constant employment, and yet in the war temporary engagements were innumerable.

This impossibility of guaranteeing continuity is common to all firms employing labour of the class we do. We endeavour to keep labour as constant as possible because anything else is expensive, not in direct wages, but in lost material and time.

We have repeatedly made comparisons with other firms, and do not seem to pay more at any rate, either in money or money's worth.

The question has further been touched on in the detailed replies from factories (see Metal and Steel Factory, para. 101).



### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

The questionnaire as it stands is very difficult to deal with. Workmen's efficiency depends very largely (a) on efficient management, administration and plant, while (b) it also depends on welfare, health, education, standards of living, etc.

In my opinion, to undertake a given volume of work a larger number of Indian workmen and a larger number of men employed on supervision and planning is necessary than is the case in England.

While as regards (a) we can have a standard as equally high as in England, as regards (b) we are a long way behind, and this seems the avenue along which to increase efficiency.

The experience of ordnance factories from 1796 onwards has shown that with efficient management, Indian factories can compete effectively with imported goods, and in the long run definitely undersell imported goods of identical quality and similar numbers, provided always they are produced by the same methods, i.e., mass production or general engineering methods. It is obvious that an article in either country produced by general engineering methods cannot compete with one produced by mass production. The point, however, is that it takes from two to five years to do this, after all plant is ready and manufacture started, and it will only be obtained if the management is accustomed to make the best advantage of the peculiarities of Indian labour.

One further difficulty has inevitably to be faced. If a new industry starts in England, a "by product" market exists or can be developed. In India "by product" markets are very difficult to find.

Though only speaking for ordnance factories, I believe that the same experience will be found in commercial work. The fact that ordnance factories have to carry greater capital and nucleus staff in peace to insure meeting war needs is balanced by profit and interest on capital, which has to be taken into account in commercial enterprises.

Generally speaking, we consider that there are ample margins for the standard of comfort and education to rise considerably without undue difficulty to the management in keeping costs competitive, provided the workmen continue to realize that to get greater advantages, they must earn them. This, I think, they are shrewd enough to realize.

### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

The Indian workman as a whole is singularly unvoiced, and it is, in consequence, very hard to always ascertain what grievances exist. If one can do this, it is often easy to remove the grievance. Their very voicelessness, however, makes them suspicious of changes, and it is often difficult to get rid of imaginary grievances.

If a grievance cannot be accurately located, their voicelessness is an unmitigated nuisance. What, for want of a better word can only be called political agitators, find it easy to get hold of them. In this event strikes are apt to be long drawn and futile, and the removal of the real grievances does not always lead to contentment.

An example was the introduction of the Labour Bureau at the Rifle Factory. The first and immediate effect of the Labour Bureau was to put a somewhat abrupt end to the system which had grown up and was justified by tradition, whereby gang mistries and various higher grades got a rake off from individual workmen on employment, and promotion, and had considerable say in discharges. Although the men, who lost traditional perquisites and power were given small increases in pay, they did not appreciate the innovation. The workmen even were suspicious, as they imagined at first they were losing the old protection from above. The suspicion was taken full advantage of by outsiders to boost "non-co-operation." After some six weeks the men came back unconditionally, but it still took some time to get them to fully realize that they were better off.

The break up of the gang system at Cawnpore led to similar trouble, but more sporadic.

Delays in dealing in 1920 with a known and located grievance at Jubbalpore led to a long drawn out strike, but it took several years to really re-establish confidence.

In the case of this grievance the cause was located at Kirkee, and was common to all India. During the war the cost of living rose, and earnings during the war period (which in factories continued throughout the Afghan war and later) kept pace with this owing to overtime and increased intensity of planning. When the pressure ceased all earnings, particularly piece-workers, fell below the minimum necessary for a reasonable standard of comfort. The cause was obvious, and increased rates were ordered forthwith, together with a strict scrutiny of all workmen's jobs to ascertain

whether they were workers or passengers. Passengers were eliminated as far as justice would allow. The result was to give individuals enough pay without any appreciable rise in the cost of goods. The increased efficiency soon removed even the slight rise in the latter.

Rapid action was taken in all factories except Jubbulpore, and elsewhere there was little or no trouble. At Jubbulpore there was delay, and the superintendent was moved elsewhere.

This voicelessness of the Indian workmen makes the higher management ready to welcome labour unions. A union which will give the management coherent intimation of incipient grievances is invaluable. At the same time not every union can be welcomed, it must really represent the men, and have their interests at heart. If the union presses for abnormal privileges for one group, it is merely raising discontent elsewhere. The Indian workman is intensely shrewd. An analogy to his village system is easily followed. When reductions of staff become necessary, for example, they will instantly appreciate why their village cannot afford to keep more than two blacksmiths to look after 200 cattle. A union that brings this shrewdness to bear is invaluable, one that does not is damaging in the long run both to the management and workmen.

The question of recognition is complicated. For example, it is hard to expect a Government to recognize a union which definitely announces that one of its objects is to destroy that Government. At the same time if the union is reasonably sane, no difficulty is experienced in practice whether there is formal recognition or no. In any case the management, higher and lower, do meet union representatives and do hear their views, and such action is taken as is practicable.

## APPENDIX I.

### *Technical and Vocational Training.*

The whole of the various schemes now working in the factories are shown in extracts from the report made by the Master-General of the Ordnance in 1926 on his proposals for revision and improvement. Most of these recommendations have been carried out except as regards gazetted officers, which latter are still under consideration with the Secretary of State, and this part has been omitted as it will not apparently interest the Labour Commission.

### *Report on Vocational Training in the Ordnance Factories in India with proposals for Revision and Improvement.*

Part I.—General; Part II.—Boy Artisans; Part III.—Apprentices; Part IV.—Apprenticeship training in individual factories; Part V.—Schools; Part VI.—Hostels; Part VII.—Financial proposals.

#### *Abbreviations used.*

R. F. . . . .	..	..	Rifle Factory, Ishapore.
M. & S. F. . . . .	..	..	Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore.
G. & S. F. . . . .	..	..	Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore.
H. & S. F. . . . .	..	..	Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore.
G. C. F. . . . .	..	..	Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore.
A. F. . . . .	..	..	Ammunition Factory, Kirkee.
Cord. F. . . . .	..	..	Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu (near Ootacamund).
Clo. F. . . . .	..	..	Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur.
M. G. S. . . . .	..	..	Master-General of Supply (now Master-General of the Ordnance in India).
D. O. F. & M. . . . .	..	..	Director of Ordnance Factories and Manufacture.

## PART I.

### *General.*

1. Vocational training has been carried on in various ways in ordnance factories since their inception. A revised apprenticeship scheme was sanctioned as lately as A. D. letter No. 1048-4 (O. 3), dated 19th January, 1924, but no attempt was made to place schools and boy artisan training on a satisfactory footing. The apprentice scheme has done good work, but experience has shown that it requires revision and pruning, while a co-ordinated, all-embracing scheme of vocational training, if now sanctioned, may lead to very successful results. It is hoped that this report will show that the authorities concerned are very whole-heartedly keen on making a success

and giving the inhabitants of India a chance to train in ordnance factories. Naturally, as practically the whole expense is borne by the army, the interests of the ordnance factories is the predominating feature, but there is no obligation for those trained to remain in the factories; so successful scheme must undoubtedly react wholesomely on India in general.

It will be noted that the additional expenditure asked for, both initial and recurring, is very small, compared with the importance of the results, which may be obtained.

2. Ordnance factories not only cover, a very wide field of production, but the products must be of a high standard, as in use they are subjected to severe conditions at a time when failure may be disastrous. Further, they are products of precision and inter-changeable, requiring accurately adjusted machinery, high grade tools, and work of a high degree of exactitude. As weight is a very important consideration, strength must be obtained by quality, not quantity of material. Taking steel as an example, this means that the material must be perfectly treated and subjected to physical, chemical and microscopic tests. The critical constants must be determined by the thermal curves. It is then forged at definite temperatures, normalized and macrographs taken to examine the flow of grain. It is then machined, and it is often necessary to relieve the stresses by annealings. It is hardened and tempered, the process being controlled by pyrometers. The results being checked by the Brinell impact test, tensile tests, photo-micrograph, etc. An equally careful and scientific procedure is required for other materials. This, however, is not now a laboratory, but a workshop operation, and in the hands of workmen who have to deal with expensive and delicate appliances.

To enable the best to be made of material as outlined above, experience and knowledge of a high degree are required, and this is brought to the workshop in the form of supervision. In old days, the good workman rose to foreman, but he would be quite incapable of supervising the processes mentioned above. Now, to properly exercise this supervision a comparatively high professional and scientific training is necessary, together with manual dexterity acquired by experience, and this is even more necessary in India than in other countries in view of the general low efficiency of the labour that has to be supervised. It is further obvious that supervision can now only be entrusted to the educated, and can be only efficiently exercised by men with long experience and training.

3. The above paragraph is an attempt to show very briefly why the ordnance factories have to engage their supervision in England, and why it is vitally necessary for them to educate and train men in India to enable English recruits to be replaced. This is the object of our apprentice schemes.

4. Further, as regards workmen, the Indian shows considerable intelligence, and has proved himself capable of work requiring the highest skill, but generally he is handicapped by lack of elementary education, and the average of skilled labour is very low and largely illiterate. Hence we also require to educate boys to become tradesmen, with highly developed manual skill, combined with sufficient elementary education to read and write English, to enable them to have access to engineering tables and data. This is the object of our boy artisan classes.

5. We require in factories :—(a) *Gazetted officers*, who must be men of high education, great technical knowledge, ripe experience and the necessary qualities to make leaders of men. It is seldom that they will be found by promotion from (b) *Foremen and others engaged in supervision* (see Part III). These men must be absolute experts at their trades to command respect from their workmen, combined with sufficient education to efficiently exercise the functions of supervision sketched in paragraph 1. Grit and personality are very important qualities; (c) *Skilled tradesmen* (see Part II).

6. We will now deal with these three grades in the reverse order.

## PART II.

### *Skilled Tradesmen supplied by the Boy Artisan Class.*

1. *Field of Recruitment and Numbers required.*—As far as possible, they should be sons of our workmen, and their numbers might be unlimited, both for the sake of the factories on mobilization and for the general good of India.

The numbers that can be entertained, however, depend on the load on the factories. If working at full output, a large number could be entertained, but working, as we are at present on reduced output, the numbers must be restricted both because of the reduced flow of work, and because too large numbers would mask production costs.

The existing numbers and the numbers recommended at present are :—

	R. F.	M. & S. F.	G. & S. F.	H. & S. F.	G.C.F.	A.F.	Cord.	F. Clo.	F. Total.
Existing .. ..	19	16	28	18	84	14	18	Nil.	197
Recommended .. ..	30	20	30	25	50	20	10	20	205

The M. G. S. should be empowered to raise these numbers to a maximum of 300, if time and experience show they can be absorbed without detriment to factory output.

2. *Education*—(a) *Theoretical*.—This will be compulsory for boy artisans in factory schools, which now require to be placed where necessary on a sound basis. This is a transferred subject, and the local education grants only finance a school to the same extent as money is provided by the local body, which is the factory. This question of schools being a lengthy one is dealt with in Part V. It must be understood that not only boy artisans are concerned, but the general question of workmen's children and half-timers working in the factory.

(b) *Technical*.—This should be practically in one trade or in one or two branches thereof, and the object is to produce skilled tradesmen, and from these in time higher grade of extra temporary supervision than is now obtainable.

(i) The training should normally be for 4 years, but in certain trades may be extended to 5 years, at the discretion of the superintendent.

(ii) There will be no obligation to employ or render service at the termination of the training.

(iii) Age of recruitment should not be less than 12 or more than 17, but each factory may fix its range at the discretion of the superintendent to suit the various trades it caters for.

(iv) There should be approximately 10 hours per week theoretical instruction in school, of as high a standard as the factory can provide or the boys assimilate. Where it is more convenient or efficient to give this in night schools, it may be done.

(v) A minimum of 6 hours a day to be spent in the shops as soon as possible, and as far as possible on production work.

(vi) Maximum pay as follows, but pay to be fixed by each factory superintendent to suit the circumstances of the station. Promotion to be based on proved earning capacity (but see note below) :—

1st year .. ..	..	..	..	..	8 annas per diem.
2nd " .. ..	..	..	..	..	8 " "
3rd " .. ..	..	..	..	..	10 " "
4th " .. ..	..	..	..	..	12 " "
5th " .. ..	..	..	..	..	14 " "

One anna extra per diem for good colloquial English, and a further one anna for reading and writing English. Further, in cases where boy artisans show great skill and proficiency, they may be placed on piece-work rates at the discretion of the superintendent. Eight annas a month to be contributed by each boy artisan to the schools. Eight annas a month to be passed to the credit of the boy artisan in a deferred pay fund, and only to be paid over to him on his completing his course to the satisfaction of the superintendent.

Note.—In cases where a lad who is already earning satisfactory money in one branch of a trade (e.g., milling) is changed over to another branch (e.g., slotting) for training, he should have his daily rate continued, whatever his earnings, for such period as it is considered by the Superintendent reasonable for him to take to attain the equivalent degree of skill.

3.—*Cost*.—Boy artisans have been trained in the ordnance factories for over 50 years, but no attempt has been made to definitely settle their status. They have been treated as unskilled workers and, as stated under apprentices, the fluctuating load on factories means constantly "hiring" and "dismissing" men. Whenever a new unskilled workman is taken on he is put on a daily rate, but for some time he costs an appreciable sum. Till he knows his work he spoils machines, materials and tools, and takes up the time of mistries and foremen in teaching him. This is part of inevitable expenditure against the factory.

Boy artisans are treated in the same way, and in some factories boy artisans soon earn their pay, but in others they do not.

For example, in the R. F. he is carefully selected, for 140 days he is attached to a selected skilled workman, usually a relative. After 140 days without pay, he gets his share of the profit or of this gang of two, or may be permitted to work alone, and very soon earns his pay.

In other factories, it is impossible to get boys to work without pay, and in some cases the workmen object to having them in their gangs.

Further, he has to go for two hours schooling, which deducts from his production. No provision is made for theoretical tuition, books or apparatus.

Further, average lads may earn their pay, but the lads above the average, whom we specially want to train for the extra temporary supervision, require special arrangements, and often, in consequence, cannot earn their pay.

On the sanction of the apprentice scheme, some difficulty arose with regard to boy artisans as the accounts rightly contended that they did not all earn all their pay, and it was decided to charge, wherever possible, direct to production, and the balance to a special work order A.-67, which was the apprentice grant, and limited to Rs. 50,000, and already too small for the apprentice scheme.

Now, it is requested that the scheme may be regularized, and a definite sum sanctioned by Government as a maximum and placed at the disposal of the D. O. F. & M. for allocation to factories.

The factory allotment should be placed to a special work order Training of Boy Artisans, which will be debited with the pay of each boy, and credited with his productive out-turn, the account of each boy being kept separate. Taking a four years course as a normal, the average pay proposed works out at As.  $4^a=9\frac{1}{2}$  annas per diem. Add 50 per cent. of the extra 2 annas allowed for English = 1 anna. Average pay  $10\frac{1}{2}$  annas. As shown, any definite estimate for a fair charge direct to production is impossible, and a conservative guess may be 5 annas, leaving  $5\frac{1}{2}$  for indirect charge. Add  $\frac{1}{2}$  anna for equipment, prizes, miscellaneous, making 6 annas in all. Taking working days at 24 a month, this works out to 9 rupees a month per boy artisan or Rs. 108 a year.

It must be understood that the whole is now borne by the factory, and the above is only a convenient method of watching results, and allocating to indirect charges or direct charges.

It is requested that this may be sanctioned up to a maximum of 300 boy artisans, provision being made in the budget for the actual numbers anticipated in the coming year. If experience shows a greater percentage can be charged direct to production, the budget provision can be altered.

Further, it is found that it is often very efficient to give a bonus to selected artisans for instructions, and sanction may be accorded for a bonus up to Rs. 4 per mensem to be given when considered necessary by the superintendent, and charged to the special work order.

### PART III.

#### *Apprentices.*

1. *General.*—The existing scheme is as sanctioned in army department letter No. 1048-4 (O. 3), dated Simla, the 19th January, 1924, and has generally shown signs of success, but experience now enables us to more accurately define its scope, and make some improvements and alterations. The existing scheme is in some ways based on the system followed at the Royal Ordnance Factories, England.

2. *Object.*—It must be definitely understood that our object is to train men *who can build on their apprentice training, by work as improvers*, and ultimately fit themselves for chargemen, assistant foremen and foremen as their individual capacity and personality dictate. A few may rise to higher things, and provision is being made for these.

It will be understood that the opportunities, trades, standards, etc., possible, vary enormously in the different factories, and each must be considered separately, but there are some general principles common to all factories.

3. *Recruitment.*—Recruits are available in far greater numbers than our requirements or capacity for training, and in many cases we can demand a high educational qualification. The following principles should be laid down:—

(i) Apprentices will be recruited from every race and creed found suitable for performance of the work required. They will include a proportion of Europeans, Anglo-Indians, Mohammedans, Hindus, Sikhs, Punjabis, Madrasis, etc. It is most undesirable that any one class or caste should predominate.

(ii) Too great stress should not be laid on purely educational qualifications, and social standing, physique, health, character, skill at games, etc., must be considered. Candidates successful in the qualifying examination should be personally interviewed before final selection.

(iii) The entrance qualification should be generally a "sound general education." The exact qualifications to be fixed by each factory to suit their peculiar circumstances and to be sanctioned by the M. G. S.

(iv) *Period of Apprenticeship*.—To be five years, except in certain specialized trades (e.g., plumbing), where a longer or shorter period is required and is customary. Also the term is extensible in case of unavoidable sickness. It is to be sanctioned by D. O. F. & M.

(v) *Scope of Apprenticeship*.—"General Engineering Apprenticeship" to be limited to four factories—those at Ishapore, the Gun Carriage Factory at Jubbulpore and the Ammunition Factory, Kirkee. The other factories to have specialized apprentices. *Apprentices*.—Most of the apprentices at the Metal and Steel Factory will be "special."

(vi) *Pay*.—The maximum rates of subsistence pay, as at present sanctioned, are as follows, but rates may be fixed within this scale in each factory, to suit the circumstances of the locality and this will be sanctioned by the M. G. S.

					Rs.	
1st year	..	..	..	..	40 p.m.	} If housed by the State, Rs. 20 p.m. to be deducted. (See, however, para. 5 below.)
2nd "	..	..	..	..	50 "	
3rd "	..	..	..	..	60 "	
4th "	..	..	..	..	70 "	
5th "	..	..	..	..	80 "	
6th "	..	..	..	..	100 "	

10 per cent. of an apprentice's pay will be deducted and placed in the Post Office Savings Bank or a recognized deferred pay fund. It will only be paid to him if he completes the full apprenticeship to the satisfaction of the superintendent, and no other charges are outstanding against him.

(vii) *Rules*.—Conditions of service, indentures if any, rules, etc., to be based on a common principle, but to be drawn up to suit the individual needs of each factory and sanctioned by the M. G. S. as is done at present.

4. The present number of apprentices sanctioned is 290, and the existing number is 171 (1925).

I propose the following maximum numbers for the factories :—

R. F.	M. & S.	G. & S.	H. & S.	G. C. Fy.	A. F.	Cord F.	Clo. F.	Total.
60	30	20	24	32	16	20	20	222

or allowing for contingencies, say 230.

I propose therefore that instead of the intricate rules existing, there should be a fixed grant of Rs. 22 per apprentice.

5. *Deduction of Rs. 20 p.m. for Rent*.—The present rule is that if an apprentice is housed in a hostel, a deduction of Rs. 20 on account of rent is made. This is regarded as a grievance. The rates of subsistence pay have been given with a view to a living wage for boys apprenticed a long way from their homes, and we propose to embrace all India. I strongly recommend this deduction should be done away with altogether, but if this is not approved it should be reduced to a nominal figure. It should be recognized that a subsistence pay is for a definite purpose, and all charges, such as rent, lighting, water tax and conservancy should be a book debit against training and not recoverable.

#### PART IV.

*Consideration of the Conditions of Apprenticeship Training in individual Factories.*

1. *General Engineering Apprentices*—(a) *R. F.*—This factory has gone far ahead of all others, and has a successful system of apprenticeship developed. The educational qualifications of applicants is high and so selection is easy, but it has the inherent disadvantage that up to date practically only Bengalis have been admitted. This is now being changed, and letters issued to all Governments in India to nominate candidates for the entrance examination.

This is the only factory which does and can aim at two classes of apprentices :—

(a) Student apprentices ; (b) Trade apprentices.

*Student Apprentices*.—The entrance qualifications and entrance examination are fairly stiff. The object of the theoretical and practical training is to turn out lads for trades which require general engineering education. The apprentice will still require to work as an improver, but this time may be spent in any selected factory or workshop. He should rise rapidly to charyman and assistant foreman.

It is emphasised that the training of student apprentices does not mean the lads are being trained for gazetted ranks, but rather for trades such as draughtsmen, gauge, tool and fixing designers, etc., which require general professional engineering training. The training is intended to be of a standard which would enable a lad to compete for a Whitworth scholarship, if such existed in India. It must be recognized that attaining to higher posts is a matter of personal qualifications, including experience, and a certain few of the best will be eligible for further training.

Lads who cannot keep pace with the work will on the recommendation of the superintendent, be permitted to join the trade apprentice class. The number sanctioned is five per annum.

*Trade Apprentices.*—This is the general type of apprentice we cater for, and while learning one trade thoroughly, apprentices are given opportunities of learning a reasonable amount about allied trades (e.g., a toolmaker will be trained primarily as a fitter and turner, but will do a certain amount in smithy, pattern making, drawing office, etc.). It is intended the lads should be thoroughly useful tradesmen, so trained that the most ambitious and capable will not be handicapped by lack of technical knowledge from rising to the posts of foremen. This paragraph may be taken to apply to all trade apprentices in all factories. The R. F. is well equipped for high grade tool production and for plant maintenance, but otherwise has little machinery of a general engineering character and the trades which can at present be taken on are:—(1) Toolmakers; (2) Millwrights; (3) Blacksmiths; (4) Joiners and pattern makers.

The number sanctioned is the number necessary to bring the total number of apprentices at any given time up to 60. It will be seen that this scheme is very much more complete than possible in any other factory, and it is recommended that for the R. F. in addition to the Rs. 22 a month per apprentice, the following be sanctioned:—

	Rs.
(1) Hostel * superintendent at average pay 273 .. .. .	3,276 per annum
(2) Full-time lecturers at 273 .. .. .	6,552 ..
	9,828 ..

The monthly allowance will be required for the part-time services of members of the staff, equipment, etc.

Ten student apprentices have completed their training. Eight have been retained as improvers, one has obtained employment in the M. & S. F. and one in the inspection branch.

Four trade apprentices have passed out; one is employed in the M. & S. F. and two in the Calcutta Corporation, and one in the Stocking (woodwork) section of the factory.

(b) *M. & S. F.*—This factory has no apprentices at present, but a scheme is now under consideration. They will all be trade apprentices, and the following trades can be catered for:—(1) Non-ferrous worker; (2) Blacksmiths; (3) Steel rollers; (4) Moulders; (5) Electrical engineers; (6) Millwrights; (7) Toolmakers.

The apprentices will attend for theoretical work the class in the R. F. for the technical instruction of trade lads, and may be required to take such classes with the international correspondence schools as the superintendent may direct.

*Notes.*—It has been found that very few, if any, Indians will take up apprenticeship at the M. & S. F. The work is very heavy and hot.

(c) *G. & S. F.*—The apprentices are of the class of trade apprentices, and carry out their theoretical training at the Calcutta Technical Evening School, and are given lectures of a semi-practical and technical nature by the factory staff.

There are at present 16 apprentices, and 10 have passed out. Two are supervisors in the factory. The rest were offered work as improvers, but selected to leave, and of these, six are known to have obtained appointments with engineering firms of repute.

(d) *G. C. F.*—The following trades are available for trade apprentices:—(1) Machine workers; (2) Fitters and erectors; (3) Smiths; (4) Moulders and pattern makers; (5) Carpenters; (6) Power station work.

Theoretical work is at present done by the factory staff. The present number is 36.

\* See Hostels.

Seven have completed their course of training. One has been selected by the Central Provinces Government for a 3-year improver course with an engineering firm in England. Another has entered the Manchester Works of the Metropolitan Vickers Co. on a 2 years' scholarship. Three have been engaged by the factory, one in the inspection branch and one in the electrical department of the G. I. P. Railway. As this is a very promising field for apprenticeship, it is recommended that a hostel be built (*vide* Part VI). Further, this year for apprentice training, a physical and chemical laboratory has been provided in the main office block. The present allowance for a senior chemical instructor is 50 p.m. and a junior 25 p.m.=Rs. 900 per annum.

The work is done by two chemists on the factory staff, whose salaries less the above 900 are charged to works inspection. As they devote more than half their time to apprentice training, it is considered only fair that half their salaries, viz., Rs. 2,250 be charged to apprentice instruction being an increase of 1,350 per annum.

2. *Specialized Trade Apprentices*—(a) *Harness & S. F.*—Apprentices take the following courses:—

A. Tanning	..	..	..	..	..	4 years.
Currying	..	..	..	..	..	2 ..
B. Harness and saddlery	..	..	..	..	..	5 ..

Local arrangements are made for hostel accommodation. There are at present eight apprentices, only one has completed the course, and has gained a post in a local tannery. No alteration recommended.

(b) *A. F.*—There are at present 18 apprentices. Three have passed out, one being appointed to the factory, one has proceeded to England, and one has obtained employment in India. The trade apprentices at the A. F. do a general engineering training. A new scheme is now under consideration. The Poona Engineering College gives students a three years' course of theoretical and practical training in mechanical and electrical engineering, and then places them for two years with the Tata Iron and Steel Works, Jamshedpur; M. & S. M. Railway Workshops, Perambur; E. I. Railway Workshops, Jamalpur; B. N. Railway Workshops, Kharagpur; B. B. & C. I. Ry. Workshops, Ajmer.

It is proposed that the A. F. should become a training centre for these apprentices. It is thought the factory will get a far better trained apprentice at a reduced cost of training as the factory has very poor facilities for theoretical education. I recommend that the power to inaugurate this scheme be vested in the M. G. S., provided that the cost does not exceed that at present sanctioned for 16 apprentices allotted to the A. F., viz., pay as per Part III, paragraph 2 (vi), plus 22 per mensem per apprentice.

(c) *Cord. F.*—The trade apprentices are here necessarily specialized, and the object of training is to provide men who can be employed in a supervisory capacity in chemical works. The scope and numbers are consequently limited. Two years are devoted to machine tools, fitting, carpentry, smithy, repair and maintenance of electrical plant, steam boilers, and two years to practical operations involved in cordite manufacture (excluding the manufacture of nitro-glycerine). The rules, etc., are satisfactory, and no alteration is recommended.

This factory should be given Rs. 300 per mensem, till the number of apprentices reaches 14. It should also be given an initial grant of Rs. 3,000 per annum for three years to provide all the necessary equipment, etc., which starting a scheme involves.

(d) *Clo. F.*—This factory has only been recently taken over by the M. G. S. branch and rebuilt and reorganized. It has no schools, apprentices, boy artisans or welfare scheme.

## PART V.

### *Schools.*

Schooling for children of employees is imperative from the point of view of the moral obligation of the employer, and the ultimate efficiency of the factories. It will be seen from the following report on existing schools that the circumstances and success of the existing schools vary and seem greatly dependent on local initiative. Some have been built and supported or partly built and partly supported from the Workmen's Fine Fund which severely cripples the Fine Fund.

In certain cases there are no teachers, except volunteers from the staff.



Schools are required not only for boy artisans, but for the large number of half-timer boys working in the factories, and also for the children of workmen, or families living on the estate.

The existing situation in each factory will be reviewed separately, and the immediate needs to place the schools on a satisfactory footing noted. Education is a transferred subject, and the local Governments have assisted, but in some cases shortage of funds is, as usual, in the way.

I. R. F.—This is by far the most elaborate system and consists of :—

(a) The ordnance Village Infant School. For children below 8 years of age.

(See M. and S. F.)

(b) The ordnance Village Primary School. Provides a four years' course of primary education, especially adapted for requirements of an engineering career. It caters also for the M. and S.F. The boy artisans attend the school, and also special evening classes.

(c) Missing link—a technical school—dealt with afterwards.

(d) Continuation classes. These are held in the factory by Indian personnel, such as clerks, supervisors, draughtsmen, godown keepers, etc., and comprise such subjects as fitting, turning, English, elementary mathematics and are self-supporting.

2. *The Technical School.*—This is the missing link as under the existing system there is a break in the education of boys between the age of 12, when they leave the primary school, and the age of 15, when they join the factory.

It will also provide evening instruction for the purpose of raising the status of men in employment, which they cannot do at present. The school has only just been sanctioned. The capital cost will be Rs. 50,490.

*Recurring Cost* Rs. 540.

The Bengal Government have agreed to contribute Rs. 25,000 capital and Rs. 3,600 per annum.

3. *Staff of the Primary School.*—Towards this we receive a grant-in-aid for three years from the Bengal Government which covers the cost of staff (excluding part-time instructors, 40 rupees p.m. paid from the Fine Fund). Local Governments, as a rule, only pay half the cost and owners the rest, but the reason for their generosity is that they paid nothing to the cost of buildings and their grant-in-aid will be reduced to half in 1929. The Fine Fund also contributes a sum of about Rs. 1,000 per annum for electric light, equipment and prizes which should be really a Government contribution.

I recommend that the following expenditure should be sanctioned, viz., Rs. 1,500 p.a. at present, and Rs. 3,760 p.a. from 1929 onwards.

4. *Buildings.*—Excellent buildings exist, the funds for which were originally sanctioned from the Fine Funds of the R. F. and M. & S. F., but the M. & S. F. could provide no funds except for the Infant School, so the rest of the cost has fallen on the R. F. This consisted of :—

	Rs.
Buildings .. .. .	about 12,000
Equipment .. .. .	2,000

5. Inspectors' reports have been very satisfactory.

II. M. & S. F.—This factory has only a Primary School for boys and girls up to 8 years, which it shares with the R. F.

No funds are available, and expenses are met from the Fine Fund. An application to Government for Rs. 100 a month for the maintenance of the school in 1922 was held up pending the result of the Inchcape Committee recommendations. This was again held over in 1923 while the Inspector of Schools, Presidency Division, Calcutta, stated his allotment was only sufficient to meet existing grants.

I recommend a recurring grant of Rs. 1,000 per annum be sanctioned to cover cost of teachers, prizes, equipment, etc. Efforts will still be made to get a grant from the Bengal Government.

III. G. & S. F.—This factory has an Anglo-Vernacular School situated in the factory, and attended by 78 boys employed in it, including boy artisans (under 18).

The staff consists of six teachers and one secretary from the factory clerical staff, who receive no remuneration.

Extra expenses are met from the boy artisan fund. The boy artisans subscribe a monthly subscription of  $\frac{1}{4}$  anna per rupee of pay, and thus support the school.

The services of the factory staff are hardly voluntary, and the system causes inconvenience and discontent.

I recommend that a permanent staff of three teachers on Rs. 60, 50 and 40 per mensem be sanctioned. The annual cost being Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 200 for equipment, prizes, etc., making an annual grant of Rs. 2,000 in all.

IV. G. C. F.—This is a more elaborate system. It consists of two schools, viz. :—  
(a) Anglo-Vernacular and Middle School, including boy artisans and half-timers ;  
(b) Primary.

These two schools are housed in an excellent building, obtained by extending old buildings and consists of 9 rooms.

*Finance—*

	Rs.
Annual grant-in-aid—Boy Artisan and Anglo-Vernacular and Middle Schools—from Central Provinces Government .. .. .	933
Annual grant-in-aid—Primary School—from the Central Provinces Government .. .. .	808
Factory .. .. .	1,020
Fees from boy artisan students .. .. .	1,032
Fees from Anglo-Vernacular Middle and Primary School students ..	1,129
	4,922

*Requirements.*—For the last two years the lowest class has consisted of 80 boys. These are divided into two portions and occupy two rooms. Already this year 25 applications have been refused for want of room. Further, class VIII was formed this year, and there is one room short. Two additional rooms are required at an estimated cost of Rs. 3,000. Seven electric fans are required at a cost of Rs. 1,134.

The present factory contribution is Rs. 1,020, and it is recommended this be increased to Rs. 1,250 to meet the cost of replacement of furniture, equipment and up-keep of library.

V. H. & S. F.—There only exists a primary school which is held in some open sheds, and is attended by 29 boys employed in the factory, whose attendance is compulsory, and 44 children of workmen (who pay 8 annas a month).

It works in 3 shifts of 2 hours, each boy attending for 2 hours.

*Finance.*—Factory grant Rs. 600 per annum ; United Provinces Government grant Rs. 576 per annum ; each boy who earns over Rs. 6 a month is charged a fee of 8 annas.

There is an undoubted want of a better school and decent buildings. It is proposed to add an Angle-Vernacular School, and the estimated cost of buildings and equipment is Rs. 14,000. Additional staff would be required, and though no details have yet been worked out, it is anticipated that Rs. 2,600 per annum would be sufficient.

VI. A. F.—Here the circumstances are very different. The whole schooling is done in the Alegaonkar Brothers Schools. These brothers were factory clerks who gave up their professions to start schools.

There are six day schools and seven night schools situated in Kirkee, and various suburbs and villages where the workmen dwell, and are partly financed by the local Government.

Factory boys who attend are given an increase of six pies per diem on the principle that an educated boy is of more value than an uneducated one.

Eight annas a month is collected from the pay of these boys and paid to the school. Last year the amount was Rs. 1,460.

The Fine Fund paid Rs. 2,000 to assist in new school buildings, and in 1926 Rs. 1,000 to maintenance. This factory has a large number of children of school-going age employed in the factory, viz., 524 (in 1925) out of which 246 were attending the Alegaonkar Schools.

I am of opinion that in addition to what the Fine Fund can afford, we should give Rs. 2,000 per annum, and a special grant of Rs. 5,000 to the Building Fund.

If more information is required regarding these excellent schools, it can be furnished.

VII. *Cord F.*—This factory only has a night school. Average attendance 70-75.

The staff is financed by a provincial grant.

The situation in Aruvankadu is somewhat different to most other factories, and after consultation with the local educational authorities, it is recommended that a Higher Elementary Anglo-Vernacular School be instituted. It is estimated that about 260 scholars will attend.

The local education authorities should provide half, so our expenses would be :—

	Rs.
Initial .. .. .	16,500
Recurring .. .. .	3,726

VIII. *Clo. F.*—This factory has recently been taken over by the M. G. S., and has no school or educational facilities, technical or otherwise.

I recommend there should be (a) Infant school for children under 8 ; (b) Anglo-vernacular school for boys over 8 and for boy artisans.

A rough estimate of the cost of the building is Rs. 20,000 and equipment Rs. 2,000.

Endeavours would be made to get the local Government to pay half the initial and recurring cost.

## PART VI.

### *Hostels.*

Hostels are required at the R. F., which will include accommodation for the apprentices of the M. and S. F. and at the G. C. F.

*Rife Factory.*—Accommodation is required for 90 apprentices. At present two old war-time barracks provide accommodation for 20 each and 8 class X quarters which will be used for hostel superintendent, teachers, sick boys and six apprentices. Total available 46. So additional accommodation is required for 44 apprentices. The dormitory principle, which has been successful at Ishapore for six years, is recommended.

Three cook-houses with connected messes are required for (a) Mohammedans, (b) Hindus of Bombay and Madras, (c) Hindus of the rest of India. Ablution shed and drying rooms and latrine with water-borne sewage will be provided. Modest provision for a library is provided, and for health and recreation purposes a small gymnasium and 3 pucca tennis courts.

The rough estimate is taken at Rs. 3,400 per head, approximately Rs. 1,50,000. This includes equipment as follows :—Tennis courts, gymnasium, library, beds with mosquito poles, mosquito nets, chests of drawers, kit boxes, tables and stools.

G. C. F.—A hostel here is a necessity for the proper execution of a factory scheme.

(This hostel has not so far been built owing to scarcity of funds.)

## APPENDIX II (abridged).

*Sanctioned permanent establishment in the Indian Ordnance and Clothing Factories, and in Arsenals, Ordnance and Clothing Depots in India.*

10 Factories.	Non-gazetted staff, e.g., Foremen, Assistant Foremen, etc.	Clerical establishment.	Medical establishment.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
(1) Metal and Steel Factory Ishapore .. ..	55	56	15	5	131
(2) Rifle Factory, Ishapore	59	38	—	—	97
(3) Ammunition Factory, Kirkee .. ..	63	43	1	—	107
(4) Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu ..	45	26	6	4	81
(5) Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore .. ..	46	65	3	2	116
(6) Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore .. ..	64	58	6	—	128
(7) Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore	37	44	2	—	83
(8) Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpore ..	21	28	2	22	73
(9) Clothing Factory, Madras .. ..	7	26	—	35	68
(10) Assembly Factory, Rawalpindi .. ..	5	3	—	—	8
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>402</b>	<b>387</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>892</b>
<b>Arsenals (7) .. ..</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>423</b>
<b>Ordnance Depots (6) ..</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>Clothing Depots (3) ..</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>88</b>
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>502</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>614</b>

208 permanent artificers are sanctioned for the various arsenals, and 22 clerks in addition to arsenals.

## APPENDIX III.

*Temporary Establishment.*

*Average present strength of Employees employed in the Indian Ordnance and Clothing Factories and Arsenals per diem.*

	Skilled labour.	Unskilled labour.	Others (including clerical staff, etc.	Total.
<i>Factory.</i>				
(1) Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore	970	1,250	313	2,533
(2) Rifle Factory, Ishapore .. ..	2,542	747	186	3,475
(3) Ammunition Factory, Kirkee ..	904	3,435	223	4,562
(4) Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu ..	115	561	45	721
(5) Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore	1,782	418	345	2,545
(6) Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore	1,453	1,253	118	2,824
(7) Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore .. .. .	1,427	355	178	1,960
(8) Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpore	470	140	175	785
(9) Clothing Factory, Madras .. ..	147	125	36	308
(10) Assembly Factory, Rawalpindi ..	2	47	17	66
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>9,812</b>	<b>8,331</b>	<b>1,636</b>	<b>19,779</b>
<i>Arsenals.</i>				
(1) Rawalpindi .. .. .	570	612	—	1,182
(2) Ferozepore .. .. .	693	854	—	1,547
(3) Kirkee .. .. .	521	430	—	951
(4) Allahabad .. .. .	383	482	—	865
(5) Quetta .. .. .	285	271	—	556
(6) Madras .. .. .	264	271	—	535
(7) Mingaladon .. .. .	200	250	—	450
<i>Ordnance Depots.</i>				
(1) Agra .. .. .	78	150	—	228
(2) Bombay .. .. .	8	136	—	144
(3) Cawnpore .. .. .	4	104	—	108
(4) Drigh Road .. .. .	14	50	—	64
(5) Fort William .. .. .	125	142	—	267
(6) Lahore .. .. .	13	334	—	347
<i>Clothing Depots.</i>				
(1) Shahjahanpore .. .. .	10	254	—	264
(2) Madras .. .. .	—	44	—	44
(3) Quetta .. .. .	—	56	—	56
<b>Total (Arsenals and Depots) ..</b>	<b>3,168</b>	<b>4,440</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>7,608</b>

## APPENDIX IV.

*Analysis of the uneconomical effects of a large Labour turnover.*

*Tailors.*

One tailor draws on piece-work 6 annas per unit of work done.

The standing charges for one day per tailor come in round figures to 12 annas a day.

A man who has had about 12 months' experience does 3 units a day, and there is definite evidence that with 3 years' experience he could do 4 units. If he does 3 units the cost is—

Piece-work rates	.. .. .	18 annas.
Standing charges	.. .. .	12 ..

**30**

or 10 anna per unit in all.

A new man only does  $1\frac{1}{2}$  units at first and reaches 2 units after about a month's work, and the cost is—

Piece-work rates	..	..	..	..	12 annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	12 ..
					24 ..

or 12 annas per unit.

The extra expense in consequence of having new hands is 2 annas per unit or  $16\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of the man's earnings. This loss occurs for at least six months, and means that 8 per cent. of the man's earnings are lost by each turnover of labour.

There is further but very small loss of material by spoil work.

To maintain a force of 1,200 men last year 2,836 were engaged, stopped a short time and then left.

#### *Cordite Rifle Pressing.*

The machines can in theory do 73 cycles per shift.

A really trained man (12 months' experience) will get 72 cycles and a yield of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. per cycle, equivalent to an output of 96 lbs. The cost of these 96 lbs. excluding material is—

Day work rate...	..	..	..	..	12 annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	84 .. (700 per cent.)
					96 ..
					= 1 anna per lb.

An unskilled man will only get 64 cycles after a month, and a yield of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lbs., equivalent to 72 lbs. per shift.

The cost is the same as the skilled man's 96 lbs. or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas per lb. The extra cost for an output of 960 lbs. is therefore 240 annas.

This means that each turnover of labour per year costs nearly 100 per cent. of the day workers' earnings per annum.

In addition there is a very appreciable loss by the expenditure of acetone and labour on reworking the waste; which would amount to about 1 anna per lb.

This is the case when the plant is fully loaded. In peace, however, the plant is half empty, and we rarely employ extra men, which means that the cost of 96 lbs. goes up to 100 annas or an increase of  $33\frac{1}{3}$  on the man's day rate.

The turnover in this factory, which is only manned with a nucleus staff, is 10-15 per cent. per annum.

#### *Cartridge Making.*

One operation in this is drawing. This is done on a machine which can in theory do 108 strokes per minute.

Experience has shown we can only get 400 working minutes in a shift of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  hours.

A really experienced hand will get 95 effective strokes per minute out of the machine, or a yield of 38,000 cases per day. He gets  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an anna per 1,000 at piece-work rates, and costs are per 38,000.

Wages ..	..	..	..	..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..
					38 ..
					or 1 anna per 1,000.

A new hand will only get 80 effective strokes per minute after one month's work, or an output of 32,000 per shift. These cost—

Wages ..	..	..	..	..	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..
					36 ..
					or $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas per 1,000 = 1.13.

In addition there are very heavy spoil work charges; experience has shown that the difference in expenditure between new and old hands throughout is—

Old hands	..	..	..	..	·275 cwts. per 1,000 cases.
New hands	..	..	..	..	·315 " " "
Difference	..	..	..	..	<u>·040</u>

This, however, has to be divided among 10 operations, and hence the loss for the one considered is per 1,000 cases—

$$\cdot 004 \times 90 \times 16 \text{ annas} = 5.76 \text{ annas.}$$

Rs. 90 is the loss in value for each cwt. of brass cups damaged. The total increase in cost is thus 5.92 annas per 1,000 cases, which is over 100 per cent. on the experienced man's earnings, and the full extent of this loss is felt on each change in labour for at least two months, and then rapidly diminishes. Turnover of labour in this group averages 25 per cent.

In these three groups of unskilled labourers the loss on each turnover of labourer comes to per annum—(a) Tailor group about 8 per cent. of the man's earnings; (b) Cordite group about 16 per cent. of the man's earnings; (c) Cartridge group over 100 per cent. of the man's earnings. This loss is distributed over expenditure on—(1) Increase of labour staff payments; (2) Wear and tear of plant; (3) Wastage of material used. American labour experts estimate that each new hiring costs 25 per cent. of the man's annual wages.

It is worth trying to stop this loss; the attempt can be made in two ways—(a) by increase of labour rates, which is only of temporary effect, but requires no sanction. It would be relatively expensive, about 10 per cent. of the wages bill; (b) by a provident fund, which will cost about 2½ per cent. of the wages bill at most. This has been suggested by the labour unions. Even if success is only very limited the savings which follow will recoup us, and in consequence I am prepared to certify that no extra cash is needed, though I cannot specify whether the actual saving will show by diminution of—(1) number of labourers, i.e., reduction of wages total bill; (2) reduction in amount of material expended; (3) reduction in indirect expenditure on repairs. If there is any appreciable saving as a result the army gets the benefit at the next periodic revision of P. V. S. rates.

#### APPENDIX VI.

##### Cost of Welfare Schemes in Ordnance and Clothing Factories in India.

N.B.—The figures are approximate.

Serial No.	Name of Measure.	Existing Buildings and Welfare Institutions.		Proposed Schemes.		Remarks.
		Initial.	Recurring per annum.	Initial.	Recurring per annum.	
1	Housing schemes	Rs. 9,22,600	Rs. 37,300	Rs. 62,96,000	Rs. 86,500	Approval of Government has been accorded to provision of quarters for about 50 per cent. of the labour strength of factories during peace time. The total cost of this scheme, which includes 3 hospitals and 4 schools, comes to Rs. 69.74 lakhs, out of which Rs. 6.78 lakhs has been spent during the past 6 years, and the balance, Rs. 62.96 lakhs, is still to be spent. Approximately Rs. 2 lakhs are provided annually for this scheme. In addition to Rs. 9.22 lakhs spent during the last 6 years on quarters for workmen a considerable amount has been spent sporadically during the 160 years and more that the factories have been in existence.

## APPENDIX VI.—contd.

Serial No.	Name of Measure.	Existing Buildings and Welfare Institutions.		Proposed Schemes.		Remarks.
		Initial	Recurring per annum.	Initial.	Recurring per annum.	
2	Factory Clubs for Indian employees	Rs. 14,290	Rs. 200	—	—	This is for the Ordnance, Indian Club at Ishapore.
3	Hospitals and dispensaries, including Maternity Wards.	1,25,000	(x) 82,000 (y) 1,720	(z) 34,400	470	(z) On hospital and dispensary staff and equipment. (y) Maintenance of hospital and dispensary buildings. (x) Initial cost of proposed 12-bedded hospital at G. C. Fy., Jubbulpore, for workmen and their families.
4	Dinner sheds and tiffin rooms for workmen, clerks, etc.	64,900	—	—	—	Rs. 50,200 spent from Government funds and Rs. 5,700 from the Fine Funds of the factories.
5	Co-operative Credit Societies Stores and other stores.	(a) 26,900 (b) 3,000	—	—	—	(a) Erected from Fine Fund at Rifle Factory, Ishapore. (b) Erected from Fine Fund at Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore.
6	Education of workmen's children.	(c) 1,30,700	(a) 37,690  (b) 1,530	—	—	(a) On school staff and equipment. Local Governments contribute Rs. 13,740 per annum towards this expenditure. (b) Maintenance of school buildings. (c) Cost of factory schools—Rs. 1,11,000 spent from Government funds and Rs. 20,000 from Fine Funds. Rs. 15,890 (cost) will be contributed by local Government towards cost of new school at Cordite Factory.
7	Provident fund for supervisors, clerks and workmen on temporary and extra temporary establishments.	—	—	—	1,15,900	
8	Grant of casual leave with pay to daily rated workmen and piece-workers.	—	—	—	2,10,000	
9	Free issue of ice, lemon, &c., to workmen employed on arduous work, such as on furnaces.	—	2,000	—	—	
10	Machinery, educational cinema plant and theatrical equipment for Technical School, Ishapore, and general instruction and entertainment of employees and their families.	5,250	—	—	—	Rs. 1,500 granted by His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief from funds at his disposal and Rs. 3,750 allotted from the Fine Fund of the Rifle Factory, Ishapore.
	Total ..	12,92,840	1,62,440	63,30,400	4,12,670	



## APPENDIX VII.

*Copy of Letter No. E-1024, dated 23rd May, 1919, from the Secretary, Indian Munitions Board (through the Director of Ordnance Factories), to the Secretary, Foreman's Association of India, Dum Dum, Calcutta.*

I am directed to acknowledge your letter addressed to the President, Indian Munitions Board, No. M.-5, dated 28th April, 1919, regarding the meeting which took place on the 31st March, 1919, between the Hon'ble Sir Thomas Holland and a deputation from the Association, when the question of the official recognition of the Foreman's Association of India was discussed.

2. Sir Thomas Holland has explained to your representatives that the attitude of Government towards such bodies as your own is a friendly one, and that there is no objection to their being officially recognized as representing in each case the class of Government employees concerned, subject to the observance of certain essential conditions. These conditions are :—

(a) That an Association can be recognized by Government only in so far as it represents a distinct class of Government employees employed under a single department of Government ;

(b) that Government can recognize only associations which employ no paid officer who is not in the active service of Government, and belonging to that class of Government servants which the Association represents ;

*Exception.*—This would not, however, preclude the employment as an office holder, of a pensioned officer of the same class.

(c) That an Association shall be allowed to represent the interests of a class but not of an individual ; the representation of a class may cover questions relating to conditions of work such as remuneration, hours of work, grant of leave and the like, which though they may relate directly to a single individual only, may also affect all the members or a group of members of the association concerned ; but it does not give the association any right to represent individual cases in matters of discipline, promotion, transfer or extension or in any matter which can only affect a single member of the staff ; such cases being dealt with by the ordinary memorial rule procedure, namely by application by the individual himself ;

(d) that an association must correspond with Government through the regular official channel as prescribed for individual Government servants of the class represented. Obviously, this procedure prevents a source of delay in dealing with a representation.

3. I am to say that the Government of India accordingly agree to grant official recognition to your association, subject to the observance of the preceding conditions and will be pleased to accord it such support as is practicable in its efforts to improve the technical efficiency of the staff represented, and generally to improve their amenities in such a way as to conduce towards their contentment. The Government of India observe that though, so far as is known, the present membership of your Association is confined to employees of the Indian ordnance factories, the Rules of Association would allow of other persons of similar status, belonging to other departments or private firms, also becoming members. It must be understood that the recognition now promised to your association is governed by condition (a) above. While there is no objection to your association comprising persons other than ordnance factory employees, you will understand that the Government of India can consider its representations only when they are limited to the interests of a specific class as already defined.

(Copy forwarded to the Department of Commerce and Industry for information.)

## APPENDIX VIII.

## RULES.

**PART A.**—*Rules applicable to Government Employees in Departments other than the Police and Prisons Departments.*

1. Government is prepared to accord official recognition to associations of its employees which comply with the conditions set out in the following rules. Representations from such associations, whether made orally, by deputation, or presented in writing, may be received by Government officers, subject to the conditions set out in these rules, and notwithstanding anything contained in the rule relating to the submission of petitions and memorials by Government servants.

*Notes.*—Nothing in these rules affects the discretion of the Governor-General and the Governor or other Head of a Province to receive or not to receive a deputation from any association.

2. The association must ordinarily consist of a distinct class of Government employees.

3. Every Government employee of the same class must be eligible for membership of the association.

4. Ordinarily Government will not object to persons who are not in the active service of Government being office-holders of the association, but Government reserves the right in particular cases of refusing recognition to associations of which all the office-holders are not either in the active service of Government or honourably retired officers belonging to the same class of Government employees as the association represents.

5. No representation or deputation will be received, except in connection with a matter which is, or raises questions which are, of common interest to the class represented by the association.

6. Government may require regular submission, for its information, of copies of the rules of the association and the annual statement of its accounts and of lists of its members. In the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered.

7. Government may specify the channel through which representations from the association shall be submitted and the authority by whom deputations may be received.

8. The officer who is empowered to grant leave to a Government employee will, so far as is possible, grant casual leave to an employee who is a representative of a recognized association to attend duly constituted meetings of the association. The grant of such leave will be subject to the exigencies of the service, of which the officer in question shall be the sole judge, and such officer will have complete discretion to refuse such leave if asked for more than once in any month.

9. (1) In these rules unless the context otherwise requires "Government" includes a local Government and a Department of the Government of India.

(2) A local Government or a Department of the Government of India may delegate any of its powers under rules 1 to 8 to any authority subordinate to it.

(3) A local Government or a Department of the Government of India may make subsidiary rules relating to the recognition of associations of classes of Government employees subordinate to it.

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COL. J. D. GRAHAM, C.I.E., I.M.S., PUBLIC HEALTH COMMISSIONER  
WITH THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

1. Prior to the introduction of the Reforms in 1921 industrial hygiene as a Division of the Health Organization was not regarded in India, and, indeed, in many other countries, as being of very material significance. Though, even at that time, signs were not wanting that the public and professional consciences in various countries had already demanded or were moving towards a demand for such an organization, the real awakening was just beginning, and throughout the British Empire outside of Great Britain, the movement is consequently hardly more than a decade old. It is little wonder, therefore, that India had at that period made practically no organized effort to collect any data, and to co-ordinate and control this work.

2. The peculiar circumstances surrounding the organization of the medical services in India—circumstances which have been detailed in full in a volume\* prepared for the League of Nations Interchange of Health Officers two years ago—were not calculated to produce in the post-reform period such a modern development as a Division of Industrial Hygiene. Such an omission, though it is partly, no doubt, the fault of the organization referred to, indicates a very definite gap in the central health organization as at present constituted.

3. In the pre-reform period a few of the provinces took limited cognisance of this subject in their annual health reports, but the information was always scrappy; in the post-reform period, so far from becoming augmented, this has tended to become even more scrappy. In verification of this one need only turn to the annual report of the Public Health Commissioner to see how meagre is this information in regard to

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\* Health Organization in British India, by Colonel J. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S.

industrial hygiene for an empire like that of India. It has now been arranged, however, to give greater provincial latitude to health directors in the arrangement of these health reports, and to break away from the stereotyped sectional headings of the past which have held the field for over two decades. In such instances industrial hygiene is being and will be given its proper place in these new schemes.

4. In pre-war days most civil surgeons throughout India were, where circumstances indicated, medical inspectors under the Factories Act; but I understand that this role has now ceased for many of them. Here and there certain directors of public health have been able to keep a finger on this pulse, even though the control was no longer vested in them, and have remained in visiting charge of some plants such as certain mining operations in Madras, the Burma Corporation works at Namtu, certain mines in Bombay, etc. In Bombay the officers of the Public Health Department still inspect factories, and in Madras and in the United Provinces directors of public health, certain civil surgeons and district and municipal health officers are "ex-officio" additional inspectors of factories within the limits of their jurisdictions. It is obvious that little information which was precise and in line with modern developments was likely to be available from such inspections, and a reference to the provincial reports bears this out. As a result there could be no systematic attempt to collect relevant data centrally, and such therefore do not exist. Whether, under the developments envisaged in Dominion Status, the central medical re-organization associated with such a future will be framed to include a division of industrial hygiene it is impossible to say; but there can be no doubt from the technical point of view of the necessity for its creation and organization.

5. In view of the closeness of the parallels to that of India, it will be profitable to examine briefly some other systems now in operation.

6. Great Britain has been a pioneer in this field and began early; but, if we glance hastily at this organization in other countries and in other parts of the British Empire, we see how recent is its growth.

7. In Canada it dates from 1919, and was a definite result of the British (War-time) Health of Munitions Workers Committee, which produced a realization of the main principles, of the fact that output and health are integrally related, and that health reacts delicately to all factors in the working environment. As a result of the Federal Committee on Industrial Fatigue in 1919, the assembly of a library and relevant data was made possible; and publicity and propaganda work were begun. In 1920 the former were in due course transferred to the newly created Division of Industrial Hygiene, which has functioned at Toronto for the last seven years. In 1928 a division was inaugurated for Quebec at the University of McGill. Both of these have concerned themselves with the formation of a library and information bureaux, with publicity, with propaganda, with full time medical services, and with the study of various occupational diseases both experimentally and in the field. As a result, though there is much still requiring to be done, a large number of important industries have now been investigated and are under hygienic control. Though legislation to date is scanty and there are no factory medical inspectors, the Factories Act has been administered through the Factory Inspecting Department.

8. In Australia this movement began with an enquiry into lead poisoning in Broken Hill Mines in 1893; but, at the time of Federation in 1901, there was no factory branch of any health department of State. Between 1901 and 1914 two royal commissions and various enquiries took place; but it was largely as the result, in 1917-18, of the stimulus from the Rockefeller Foundation's investigations into "hookworm" in New Guinea and Queensland that American experts were deputed to help for two years and that, in 1921, a division of industrial hygiene was established. This division, since its inception, has been exceptionally active at its three conferences of 1922, 1924 and 1927 by breaking new ground on each occasion, and by getting down to notification of occupational diseases, factory inspection, hygienic standards, morbidity statistics, child and female labour, accidents, the various poisonings, clothing trade and printing industries, flour mills, examination of Government employees, etc. The Royal Commission on Health in 1926 led to a Federal Health Council being established, and this is now functioning to the benefit of all such industrial questions. The Division of Industrial Hygiene now deals with statistics, the publications of special reports, industrial welfare services (medical, dental, nursing), medical examination of employees, uniformity of records, university training for medical officers in industrial health, and special surveys in order to set up Australian standards. In spite of all this progress and gradual improvement "State" inertia exists, and the position is still considered defective and incomplete, though it is recognized that Federation has made State co-ordination possible in a way which was not previously the case. It is realized, however, that a good start has been made, and that it is only a matter of time till employers grasp its significance and value.

9. The position in South Africa first centred round mining, and the problems associated with the importation of a large native labour population. Lord Milner, in 1903, was responsible for initiating enquiries, and in 1911 a Medical Commission on Miner's Phthisis was appointed. Since 1926 the big developments have taken place, and some of these have a special interest for us in India, in view of the composition of the labour force and the importation of much of it from Portuguese East Africa. Such diseases as silicosis, tuberculosis, hookworm, pneumonia, typhoid, scurvy as well as industrial fatigue in its various aspects have all been specially investigated with a view to scientific and rational control; and the more specifically urgent problems such as tuberculosis and pneumonia have received very special attention at the hands of the South Africa Institute for Medical Research.

10. In America this work began desultorily by its introduction over 15 years ago into certain of the more enlightened labour plants, and has since spread rapidly. I mention a few facts in this connection as examples of what is going on.

(a) The Tennessee Coal and Iron Railroad Company have, since 1913, organized and operated an Industrial Health Department very much on the lines of that of the Asansole Mines Board and the Jharia Mines Board in Bengal, thus controlling some 22 villages in six sanitary areas and establishing divisions of sanitation, medical relief, dentistry, and a social science department. This has been reproduced in scores of plants in other industries.

(b) In 1924 the New York State as a result of a conference between the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the Industrial Health Division of the State Department of Labour and the Reconstruction Hospital of New York State, established an industrial hygiene clinic in New York with devices to diagnose and treat industrial diseases, and to teach doctors in regard to these. This clinic is highly organized for the purpose with X-ray, electro-photo-hydro-mechano and occupational therapy.

(c) The Public Health Institutes created at Yale and Harvard are developing departments where highly specialized experimental research on such physiological problems as ventilation and illumination, humidity, atmosphere, etc., can be easily undertaken and efficient demonstrations given to students.

(d) Over nine years ago the Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons was inaugurated in America and this has done valuable work by publications, propaganda and advice on the various aspects of industrial hygiene.

(e) The Federal Government has a bureau of industrial hygiene and sanitation under its Division of Scientific Research. This is a very live bureau.

11. From the above brief references to what is happening outside of India it is obvious that not only is this a branch of recent growth, but that on these analogies a similar organization should exist in the Central Health Department of an empire like that of India. It is not for a moment suggested that nothing has been done in India in this regard. Problems of industrial housing and modern sanitation have been tackled in many industrial areas which the Commission will visit, more especially in Bombay, Nagpur, Cawnpore, Tatanagar, Calcutta, etc.; while problems specially associated with the control and prevention of infectious diseases and such tropical diseases as hookworm and malaria are being intelligently grappled with in the tea and rubber areas, in the jute factories, in the coal and iron areas of Bengal and in other places.

12. India has a wealth of disease problems; some of which are peculiarly her own; but those most in the limelight, so far as labour is concerned, are connected with the three infectious diseases—plague, cholera and smallpox—with tuberculosis, malaria, hookworm, skin diseases, including leprosy, drug addiction and, in a minor way, with venereal disease, cancer and respiratory diseases generally. The variety of "study" problems comprised in the term "industrial hygiene," in so far as India is concerned, is very great. Such problems, for example, as the examination of employees, housing, welfare of women and children in factories, fatigue and rest, nutrition, pregnancy, accidents and their relief, ventilation and lighting, child labour, malingering, noise, eye and mental strain, electric accidents, temperature, humidity, air movement, dust and health education generally are only some of those that must claim attention.

13. As Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India I feel it my duty to emphasize the necessity for the creation of a central bureau or division of industrial hygiene in any developments of the central health organization of the future. In view of the transfer under the Reforms Act and the Devolution rules of certain aspects of health work to the provinces, it may be necessary, however, to allay some slight degree of suspicion which seems to be in danger of developing between Provincial and Central Governments as a result of this transfer. The creation of a Ministry of Health would no doubt help to circumvent this; but, short of this proposal, the creation of a thoroughly representative Central Health Board would probably go far

towards meeting such difficulties as I have in my mind. The resolutions of such a Board, if it were sufficiently representative, should carry weight everywhere, and would allow of co-ordination of effort and, if necessary, legislation, on an all India basis. Such a Board would help to justify, from the administrative point of view, the creation of such a central bureau, and would be a great step forward for the wage earner, the employer, the individual doctor and society generally.

### CHIEF COMMISSIONER, AJMER-MERWARA.

#### *Conditions of Industrial Labour in Ajmer-Merwara.*

*Extent, Distribution and Classification.*—Ajmer-Merwara is a district of 2,711 square miles with a population, according to the 1921 Census, of 4,95,271. It is surrounded on all sides by various Indian States of Rajputana. There are no plantations in the district. Statistics with regard to industrial undertakings were collected at the time of the last census. Eight years have since elapsed, and changes have occurred, but the figures may be taken as approximately indicating the present position. They show that the number of industrial establishments in the district employing ten or more persons was 73, and the number of persons employed in them was 20,410, *i.e.*, about 4 per cent. of the total population. These establishments were classified as follows:—

Industry.	Number of Establishments.	Number of persons employed.
Mines .. .. .	24	736
Textiles .. .. .	19	2,405
Wood .. .. .	2	48
Metal .. .. .	1	30
Food industries .. .. .	6	146
Dress .. .. .	2	48
Furniture .. .. .	2	24
Means of Transport .. .. .	7	16,295
Physical forces .. .. .	1	24
Luxury .. .. .	8	511
Jail factories .. .. .	1	143
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>20,410</b>

The classification of these establishments (excluding the Jail Factory) with reference to size and the use of mechanical power or otherwise is shown below:—

Size of establishments.	Using power.		Not using power.	
	number of establishments.	persons employed.	number of establishments.	persons employed.
10—20 persons ..	3	47	17	237
20—50 .. .. .	10	315	23	710
50—100 .. .. .	6	434	3	185
100—200 .. .. .	5	576	1	164
200—400 .. .. .	—	—	—	—
400 and over ..	4	17,599	—	—
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>18,971</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>1,296</b>

*2. Strength of Labour.*—The last report on the working of the Indian Factories Act in Ajmer-Merwara, compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara—for the year 1928—shows that there

were 40 factories in the district subject to control under the Act, 35 of which worked during the year. Their classification and the average daily number of persons employed was as follows :—

Industry.	Number of factories.	Average daily number of persons employed.	Remarks.
Textiles .. Cotton (spinning, weaving and other) factories	5*	2,097	*Two are combined with cotton ginning and pressing factories.
Engineering .. Railway workshops ..	4	10,353	
Minerals and metals .. Foundries .. ..	1	17	
Paper and printing .. Printing presses ..	1	113	
Food, drink and tobacco .. Ice and aerated waters ..	1	14	
Gins and presses Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	23	2,277	
Total ..	35	14,871	

Of the 14,871 operatives employed in these factories, during 1928, 13,252 were males, 1,388 females and 231 children (between 12 and 15 years of age). Eighty-five per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the year, and 15 per cent. for four to six months, only the latter being engaged on seasonal work in cotton ginning factories.

3. The principal employers of labour in this district are the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company in their carriage and wagon and locomotive workshops in Ajmer, each of which employs about 5,000 men. Next in importance come the three principal cotton spinning and weaving mills which are located at Beawar in Merwara and employ over 2,000 persons. The cotton ginning and pressing factories also provide work for over 2,000 employees. The majority of these are located in Beawar and Kekri, but there are isolated factories at different places in various parts of the district.

4. *Recruitment.*—Recruitment of labour is not a serious consideration with the factory owners who do not attach any great importance to references except in the case of supervising and mechanical staff. The method adopted by the employer is frequently that of taking a worker for a week or more on trial, during which period wages are not always paid.

Labour in textile mills is mostly recruited from the agricultural classes, and to some extent from the artisans from neighbouring villages, but technical experts are imported principally from Ahmedabad and the United Provinces.

The B. B. & C. I. Railway Workshops, Ajmer, who employ skilled labour from almost all the neighbouring provinces, recruit mostly from the sons and relatives of their employees. The higher technical staff is imported from England.

5. *Unemployment.*—There is a certain amount of unemployment amongst workers in cotton ginning factories, the reason being that the cotton industry has experienced three poor seasons in succession. In textile mills there has been little or no unemployment during the past three or four years, this is due mainly to the fact that labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have increased the work in the textile mills of Ajmer-Merwara, and these mills have not only greatly expanded during recent years, but have also been working at full pressure.

6. *Mines.*—The mining industry is not of great importance. The mines are mostly surface mica mines scattered about the district. They are not worked very regularly or systematically and obtain labour, as required, from villages in the vicinity. As regards health, efficiency and standard of living, there is no distinction between the labourers so employed and the agriculturist. They are ordinary villagers, who from time to time take employment in the "mines" instead of working in the fields.

7. *Standard of Living.*—Generally speaking the standard of living of industrial labourers in this district is not different from the ordinary standard of living of the masses of the population. They live in the towns or villages, in or near which the factories and mills in which they are employed are located, and under the same conditions of life as any other residents of these towns or villages. As they have regular

work and in most cases adequate pay they are to this extent better off, and have more money to spend than the ordinary agriculturist who ekes out a precarious existence with uncertain harvests, dependent on the vagaries of the monsoon, and with land revenue to deduct from his profits. In some respects the establishment of mills and factories has definitely raised the standard of living of certain sections of the community. But the standard is still low, and the sustenance it provides is inclined to be inadequate. The final report of the last settlement of the district, written in 1910, contains the following observations in the section relating to the "condition of the people."

"The establishment of the railway workshops at Ajmer and the development of Nayanagar (Beawar) together with the frequent famines have had a great effect upon the condition of the artisan classes and the labourers. Formerly these village servants were paid for their work by doles of grain, or sheaves of the cut crop at harvest time, according to the amounts or rates fixed and recorded in the village's 'Wajib-ul-arz.' Uncertain and short payments of these, however, have yielded before the superior attractions of employment at regular cash wages always to be had at the workshops of mills. The workshops absorb all the labour that offers itself, and pay good wages. The previous village system has, therefore, largely broken down, but on the whole to the convenience of both parties, as the villagers now pay for the piece of work done, while the artisan class is on the whole well off, or where some of them have remained still in the villages can better themselves by moving into Ajmer or Beawar. These workshops and mills and the growing demand for labour for handling goods in the towns and at railway stations, have made things easier for the unskilled village labourers also, as in the intervals between ordinary agricultural operations they can generally find employment at good wages if they wish for it."

This was written many years ago, but serves to show that the effect of the mills and factories on the economic life of the district has been beneficial. It cannot now be said that the workshops and mills absorb all the labour that offers itself. Since 1927 there has been some reduction in the numbers employed in the railway workshops in Ajmer, and for the present at any rate they are taking on few new hands, and can employ only a fraction of the available supply of labour. In the hilly sub-division of Merwara agriculture is scanty and precarious, and cannot provide a livelihood for the whole population of the rural area. In the past the army has taken the surplus, but this outlet is now closed. The 44th Merwara Infantry was disbanded after the war, and recruitment in Merwara for other regiments of the Indian Army has been discontinued since 1927. At the same time the Mers and Merats already serving in the army were mustered out and returned to their homes. Many of these men, for whom there was no room on the land or in the mills, have sought employment outside the district, *e.g.*, in the Ahmedabad mills.

8. *Housing*.—Quarters are generally provided for the permanent staff such as managers, engineers, etc. The factories employing a limited number of workmen or those carrying on business operations during a part of the year have no apparent intention to house their labour. Two of the textile mills in Beawar have, however, made provision on a restricted scale for the accommodation of their operatives at a reasonable rent. The dwelling provided by the Krishna Mills, Beawar, are mostly constructed in corrugated iron sheeting, and are lacking in ventilation and sanitation. The quarters provided by the Edward Mills, Beawar, on the other hand, are of a somewhat improved type. The quarters provided in Ajmer by the B. B. and C. I. Railway Co., are only for their European and Anglo-Indian staff of higher grades, *e.g.*, firemen, chargemen, drivers, etc. (about 700). No quarters are provided for the lower grades of workers in the railway workshops. The housing conditions of the accommodation provided by the B. B. and C. I. Railway workshops, Ajmer, are on the whole satisfactory in relation to drainage, water supply and sanitation. The bulk of the labouring classes in Ajmer and Beawar live in privately rented quarters, while those employed in the cotton ginning and pressing factories throughout the district live in the various towns and villages subject to the conditions generally prevailing in them. In Ajmer the employees in the locomotive and carriage and wagon workshops with their families form about half the total population of the town. In spite of reduction each workshop still employs over 5,000 men. They are to be found residing in all parts of the town, and its suburbs and the adjacent villages, but the largest number is concentrated in the suburbs of Jones Ganj, Ram Ganj and Nagra, in the vicinity of the workshops.

9. *Wages*.—Wages, of course, vary considerably with the nature of the work. The average pay for unskilled labour is 12 annas a day. For skilled labour the average ranges from Rs. 15 per mensem for a press compositor to Rs. 60 per mensem for a fitter. In the Beawar Mills the average wage of a whole time worker is between Rs. 22 and Rs. 30 a month. In the Kekri cotton ginning and pressing factories the average wage is somewhat lower, but still compares favourably with the average daily

wage of an agricultural labourer, which is about four annas. In the two big railway workshops in Ajmer the average daily wage of an Indian adult workman for an eight hours day is 22 annas. It has trebled since 1914, and more than doubled since 1919. Boys (from 12 to 15 years of age) earn from three to six annas a day. For Indian adult workmen the minimum wage is seven annas a day, and the maximum Rs. 2-10 annas under the ordinary rates, and Rs. 3-4 annas under the special rates, the application of which is restricted to 20 per cent. of the men drawing the ordinary rates. There are certain grades of boilermakers, fitters and erectors, and turners who earn from Re. 1 to Rs. 11 a day. These are filled by Europeans and Anglo-Indians.

10. *Conditions of Work.*—Considerable improvement has been effected in the conditions under which employees in factories work, by enforcing the provisions of the Indian Factories Act; by introducing rules in connection with ventilation and humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills; by insisting on adequate arrangements for water supply and sanitation; and by preventing breaches of the rules prescribing proper intervals of rest, and a maximum of 60 hours work in a week.

11. *Health.*—As regards health industrial labourers suffer generally from the same disabilities and enjoy the same facilities as other classes of workers. They live in congested and unhealthy towns and insanitary villages. The majority of them live in Ajmer and Beawar, and the municipalities of these towns have under consideration extensive schemes for improving the sanitation and water supply, if funds are available. The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company contribute towards the municipal funds, and to this extent are helping to improve the conditions under which their employees live. The employees in the Beawar Mills and the railway workshops have special medical facilities provided by their employers. The former maintain for the benefit of their workmen dispensaries at which ordinary ailments can be treated, and first aid rendered in case of accident. The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway in Ajmer maintain a very well equipped central hospital, with 41 beds for in-patients, conveniently situated near the workshops. It has a thoroughly efficient staff, and provides excellent medical and surgical facilities, including anti-rabic treatment. There are also four branch dispensaries—one in the locomotive workshops, one in the carriage and wagon workshops and two others. Railway employees and members of their families are entitled to free treatment, if they attend at the hospital or any of the dispensaries at the fixed hours, or in their houses, if they are too ill to leave them. The following figures for 1928 indicate the extent of the work which the hospital and dispensaries are doing:—

New cases	.. .. .	31,004
Daily average number under treatment	.. .. .	628·07
In-patients:—		
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	.. .. .	173
Indians	.. .. .	509
		} 682
Major operations..	.. .. .	26
Minor operations..	.. .. .	3,414
X-ray examinations	.. .. .	203
Anti-rabic patients	.. .. .	128

The principal diseases are enteric, colitis, malaria, tuberculosis, pneumonia and trachoma. The standard of health of railway employees, other than those living in railway quarters, is not high. The sanitation of Ajmer being what it is, a high standard could hardly be expected. One of the principal localities occupied by railway employees is the suburb of Nagra, which is a particularly unhealthy and insanitary part of the town.

12. *General Sanitary Conditions.*—Sanitary conditions in the larger and well organized factories are on the whole satisfactory, but in smaller factories sanitation frequently leaves much to be desired, owing partly to the ignorance of the operatives and partly to lack of interest on the part of the factory management.

Latrines are provided for workers according to rules laid down in the Ajmer-Merwara factory rules: they are flushed and kept clean by persons especially appointed for the purpose. The habits of the labouring classes being generally dirty, latrines are frequently found to be in a very insanitary condition, due more to the workers themselves than to lack of provision for supervision.

13. *Efficiency.*—As regards the efficiency of labour the standard in the mills and in the ginning and pressing factories is not remarkably high. But in the railway workshops in Ajmer the standard is certainly high, and with regard to general efficiency the labour employed in these would probably compare favourably with similar classes of industrial labour in other parts of India.



14. *Education.*—In the way of providing special educational facilities very little is done by employers in Ajmer-Merwara. The B. B. & C. I. Railway maintain an anglo-vernacular school for boys for the benefit of their employees in Jones Ganj, and a vernacular Primary School for girls in the same suburb. Both are aided by municipal grants and the former also by a grant from Government. The railway spend about Rs. 3,500 on the boys' school and Rs. 600 on the girls' school. The enrolment is 98 in the former and 48 in the latter. There is also a Railway European Primary School for boys with an enrolment of 43. The railway expenditure on this school is about Rs. 3,000. Technical schools for training apprentices are also maintained by them. The educational efforts of the Beawar Mills are confined to grants to some of the local schools. Apart from the railway schools in Ajmer, employees in industrial establishments in this district are dependent on the schools maintained by Government and local bodies for educational facilities.

15. *Relations between Employers and Employed.*—The labour force in Ajmer-Merwara is mostly unorganized and illiterate. Relations between employers and employed in Ajmer-Merwara are good. As a general rule employers are not inconsiderate in their treatment of their workers, and are ready to redress genuine grievances. Attempts on the part of agitators, mostly not belonging to Ajmer-Merwara, to stir up discontent have not met with much response. Labour troubles in other industrial centres have their repercussions here, but they have hitherto not seriously disturbed the relations existing between the workers and their employers in this district. Ajmer-Merwara has been free from industrial disputes for the past ten years.

One trade union has recently been registered in Ajmer—"The B. B. & C. I. Railway Workers' Federation." It has 48 office bearers and committee members, 31 of whom are employees in the carriage and wagon workshops and 13 in the locomotive workshops. Its nominal membership is large, but it is doubtful if the majority are effective members who have paid their subscriptions and take an active interest in the affairs of the union. Two branches of railway unions, registered in Bombay and Ahmedabad respectively, have also been opened in Ajmer, but they are more or less dormant and are said to have had little success in enlisting members. The trade union movement has only just begun in Ajmer-Merwara, and it is too early yet to say how it will develop. On the whole, employees in industrial establishments here are well content with their lot. It is the ambition of nearly every boy of the classes which supply labour in Ajmer to obtain employment in the railway workshops and there is keen competition for any vacancies. There is no general dissatisfaction with rates of pay and conditions of work.

The *Workmen's Compensation Act* is working well, and employees get the full advantage of the benefits provided by it. Employers have evinced no desire to evade their obligations. 12,399 persons work in factories which come within the scope of the Act. In these 146 cases of accident, to which its provisions were applicable, were reported in 1928, and compensation, aggregating Rs. 7,762-4 annas, was paid in 141 cases to the persons injured or, in the cases of fatal injury, to their dependants.

16. *Co-operative Movement.*—Some mention should also be made of the co-operative movement, which contains great possibilities for advancing the welfare of the industrial labourer as well as the agriculturist. Fifty-two societies with a membership of about 1,000 have up to now been formed in this district among persons of the labouring class. The majority of these are in Beawar, their members being employees in the three big mills there. Their principal object is to encourage thrift, and there is ample scope for development in this direction. The industrial labourer no less than the agriculturist suffers from the evil effects of his own improvidence and the tyranny of his social customs. He spends large sums, altogether disproportionate to his income, on marriage and other ceremonies and consequently gets into the hands of the bania, and is saddled with a burden of debt. If the Co-operative movement can help him to escape from his own disastrous habits and customs, it will open up an avenue of progress at least not less promising than the avenue which trade unionism can provide by protecting him from unfavourable conditions of employment.

17. *Welfare Work.*—Except by the B. B. and C. I. Railway Workshops, Ajmer, very little is attempted for the welfare of the employees by the factories or other agencies in Ajmer-Merwara. The facilities for recreation provided by the railway company in Ajmer and the amenities which the railway institute offers (i.e., libraries, reading rooms, band and cinema shows) are provided for their European and Anglo-Indian employees only. It is, however, understood that the railway have given monetary assistance to a few recreation clubs started by their Indian employees. For the latter there is also an Indian Co-operative Association, at which they are able to purchase supplies at reasonable rates, and which thus exercises a moderating effect on prices generally, as its competition prevents profiteers from unduly forcing up prices of foodstuffs. Special sheds have also been erected for the operatives to take their meals in at meal times.

28. (ii) Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity in the cotton spinning and weaving mills came into force only last year. There are only five cotton spinning and weaving mills in which artificial humidity is being used at present, affecting about 2,097 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage, and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29. (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has been reported or has come to my notice.

## VII.—Safety.

43. *Railways.*—Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act, and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of workers. Apart from this, every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures, and to other requirements of the factory law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention, when these regulations are persistently violated prosecutions are instituted against the offenders.

44.—A reference to annual reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act in Ajmer-Merwara, will show that accidents have increased considerably during the past five years.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes :—

(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners, due to some extent to the strict administration of factory law.

(b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the factory inspector's office.

(c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting accidents they might get compensation.

(d) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers, still take frightful and unnecessary risks.

(e) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault, and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

(f) Investigations into the causes of serious and fatal accidents to workers on dangerous duties, such as maintaining of pulleys in order, oiling of bearings, etc., show that underpaid and unskilled workers are put on jobs of which they have no experience; there is no definitely laid down standard of a skilled worker, and it is therefore impossible to bring home to the employer his responsibility in this respect.

49. (i) During the year 1928, 77 inspections were made, resulting in one prosecution to enforce factory regulations.

The bigger and well-organized mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules, and make an effort to do so.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. Factory law permits working 11 hours a day, but not exceeding 60 hours a week. In perennial factories other than railway workshops is taken full advantage of.

56. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, or a substituted day, is observed as a complete holiday.

57. So far as workers are concerned, they have welcomed the 60-hours week since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable, especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers, few factories have yet adopted the

clocking in and out system, as a result considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to and from the actual job: it is improbable that in a 10-hours' day the average worker is on his job more than 8½ hours.

60. (i) *Existing Practice.*—(a) The break after putting in six hours' work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue.

(b) The break after six hours' work is utilized chiefly as a rest. The workers do not generally take their meals at this time, their meal hour being earlier in the morning, between 9 and 10, and again after their work in the evening.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

(iv) Ample holidays are given or taken by the workers, apart from the weekly holidays there are many public holidays which are given to workers either as extra holidays or substituted for weekly holidays.

61. (i) The day of rest is usually Sunday. It is, however, possible to change the weekly rest day at any time by giving previous notice to the inspector, and this is done whenever the necessity arises—public holidays are often substituted for Sundays.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

#### C.—Railways.

73. Railway workshops at Ajmer have a uniform eight hours a day or 48 hours a week.

74. Railway workshops work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

76. Rest intervals and weekly holidays are observed like other factories.

### X.—Special Questions relating to Women, young Adults and Children.

#### A.—Factories.

82. The admission of children into factories is discouraged. It is, however, difficult to always keep them out, because they are too young to be separated from their mothers.

83. The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men, except that the former cannot be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m.

84. The present law with regard to the employment of children appears to have worked satisfactorily.

### XII.—Wages.

96. (i) The prevailing rates of wages for the past five years are given below :—

Classification of Labour.	Average per Month.				
	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
<b>1. Skilled Labour.</b>					
Fitter .. .. .	Rs. a. p. 58 0 0	Rs. a. p. 58 0 0	Rs. a. p. 60 0 0	Rs. a. p. 60 0 0	Rs. a. p. 60 0 0
Blacksmith .. ..	35 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0	34 0 0
Carpenter .. .. .	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Engine driver.. ..	30 0 0	30 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	30 0 0
Boilerman .. .. .	30 0 0	30 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0
Oilman .. .. .	18 0 0	18 0 0	18 0 0	18 0 0	20 0 0
Mochi .. .. .	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Weaver .. .. .	33 0 0	33 0 0	33 0 0	33 0 0	34 0 0
Spinner .. .. .	30 0 0	30 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0
Dyer .. .. .	15 0 0	15 0 0	16 0 0	16 0 0	16 0 0
Reeler (woman) ..	25 0 0	25 0 0	25 0 0	25 0 0	25 0 0
Press compositor ..	15 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0	16 0 0
	Average per Day.				
<b>2. Unskilled Labour.</b>					
Coolie .. .. .	Rs. a. p. 0 11 0	Rs. a. p. 0 11 0	Rs. a. p. 0 11 0	Rs. a. p. 0 12 0	Rs. a. p. 0 11 0
Coolie (woman) on gins	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 6	0 5 6

**XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.**

112. The efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased slightly during the past five years, but in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed. In fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in factories. In my opinion health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of the workers, and unless the labouring classes are well fed by an increase in their wages, it is not possible to effect any improvement in this behalf.

113. I am of opinion that the foreign worker has proved to be more efficient than an Indian worker.

**XVII.—Administration.**

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation ; although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to get to know what the posters really mean.

139. (i) In this province which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction, namely, Punjab, Delhi, North-West Frontier Province and Ajmer-Merwara, the Factory Inspection staff consists of one full-time Inspector, one Industrial Surveyor under the control of Director of Industries, Punjab, stationed at Delhi, who is notified as additional Inspector of Factories under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act for Ajmer-Merwara.

The number of factories in this province at present is 40 and the staff is adequate.

It may be noted here that the local Government in the case of Punjab have decided to appoint one full-time Inspector with effect from 1st April, 1930, withdrawing the powers conferred upon the five Industrial Surveyors in the Punjab. Thus from April next there will be one Chief Inspector and one Inspector in the Punjab.

Should the Ajmer-Merwara Government follow the Punjab's lead in this respect, inspection of factories in Ajmer-Merwara will be much more efficient, as the big textile mills require considerably more attention from a fully qualified Inspector than can be given at present. The newly appointed Inspector for the Punjab will be an experienced technical officer, whereas the Additional Factory Inspector, Delhi, is notified for certain sections of the Act only.

(ii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of factory law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results.

(iii) During the year 1928 only one case under the factory law was instituted against the occupier of a factory, and the same resulted in the conviction of the occupier.

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Miss J. E. COPELAND, M.A., CHURCH OF SCOTLAND MISSION HOUSE,  
AJMER.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. There is practically no migration. The chief industrial centres are Ajmer, Beawar, Kekri. Most of the labourers particularly the women labourers, are residents of these centres, or they come in from neighbouring villages.

2. Some labourers live in their villages and walk to and from work daily. Others move into town, but go out to their villages on holidays.

3. There should be some organized system of recruiting labour. The need is specially urgent in the matter of getting boys into suitable employment when they leave school, and in the matter of securing a better system of apprenticeship and training, either within the area or beyond.

7. There is considerable unemployment. The B. B. & C. I. Railway, which is the largest employer of labour in the area, is reducing its staff of workmen.

**III.—Housing.**

The B. B. & C. I. Railway have quarters for their employees, but not in sufficient numbers. There is indeed great shortage of houses for working people in Ajmer. In Beawar the Edward Mills and the Krishna Mills have some workmen's houses, but no adequate provision.

#### IV.—Health.

23. Registration of births and deaths is not effectively carried out, so reliable statistics are not available. Working conditions are on the whole satisfactory in the bigger concerns. Where there are home industries as "tying and dyeing" and "gota weaving" in Ajmer, the conditions are not good, because of the low rates of pay, the bad sanitary arrangements of the city, and the small size and bad ventilation of most of the workers' houses.

It is, however, a welcome sign of progress that local Vaidhy has just published a book on the "Increased Mortality in Beawar, its Causes and Cure."

24. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway have good medical arrangements, a hospital, dispensaries, child welfare centre. There are also good Government and mission hospitals, numerous private dispensaries, a maternity home, child welfare centres and a supply of trained midwives.

In Beawar there is a Government hospital, with male and female departments. Private Vaidhys (five) also practise in the city. But these facilities are far from the mill area. There is urgent need for more medical provision in Beawar, and this should be near the mills. Two of the mills engage the services of Vaidhys, but these are not always at the works. The third large mill keeps first aid appliances in the mill. There should be a Government dispensary in the mill area contributed to by the millowners. There should also be a trained midwife whose special duty it would be to look after maternity cases among the wives of the millhands and among the women labourers. This midwife should be supported by the three large mills, and her services should be made available free to the labourers. It would also be very desirable to have a trained health or welfare worker who would look after the women's interests in other than maternity cases.

25. Such facilities as exist are made use of.

26. Sanitary arrangements in the larger factories are fairly satisfactory. The B.B. & C.I. Railway employ no women and the silk factory only a few. Drinking water arrangements are good in the city, but sanitary arrangements are bad. In Beawar, where most of the women labourers of this district are employed, separate latrine and bathing arrangements should be provided in another part of the compound from the men's.

In one of the mills the drinking water is too far away from the work buildings.

28. The question of humidification in the Beawar Cotton Mills is engaging the attention of the inspecting officers.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway provide two schools for workers' children, one European school and one Indian. The railway also organizes an annual sports day and a Christmas tree for the children. Apart from this no definite welfare work is being done among the railway Indian employees or in the mills and ginning factories of Beawar and Kekri. Some years ago, a beginning was made in the Beawar Mills with a monthly visit to each of the three large concerns of a lady social worker, who held a meeting for the women labourers. This attempt at welfare work should be resumed, and progress made along these lines. In Ajmer, sports, recreation and amusements are catered for by many agencies. The various churches and missions, also, have many strong effective and helpful contacts with the railway employees, but more could be done if the employers helped directly by organization providing opportunities, lending halls, etc. The W.C. Temperance Union and other temperance societies, by occasional meetings, public or other lantern lectures, and other propaganda are also helping to raise the standard of life and efficiency among the labourers, but here more also could be done if the employers co-operated directly. In two of the Beawar Mills there are shelters set aside for the infants of women labourers, but except the building, no other arrangements are made by the millowners. These shelters should be utilized for creches with a competent woman in charge. Each of the three larger mills should have such a creche, with full time though not necessarily highly paid workers, and one trained health or welfare worker should organize and supervise all three and look after the wider interests of the women labourers.

36. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway provides for the education of workers' children in two schools, one for European, the other for Indian children. In Beawar, the mills contribute to schools in the city, but these schools are not attended by workers' children, who are almost entirely illiterate. In Kekri, no provision for education is made by the ginning factories, and the workers and their children are almost entirely illiterate.

**VI.—Education.**

40. In Ajmer, there are Government (higher education only) municipal, mission and other private schools. These are for children not in employment. There are some privately-run night schools for boys or young adults at work during the day.

41. Facilities for industrial and vocational training are quite inadequate. The principal method in use is to put a new worker alongside an experienced man or woman. The method as practised seems to have many defects.

**VII.—Safety.**

46. In all the Beawar mills safety propaganda consists only in the expectation that old workers should warn employees as they work beside them.

48. First aid appliances are kept, and two of the Beawar mills employ Vaidhys who, however, are not usually or always at the works.

50. Women are not employed in any of the more dangerous operations in the Beawar cotton mills or Kekri ginning factories.

**IX.—Hours.**

55. Women workers in Kekri and Beawar work 10 hours per day, 60 hours per week.

56. Sunday is the usual off-day, except in Jain factories, where the 8th and 14th are observed as holidays. When a festival falls upon a working day in any week the workers must work on Sunday to make up for the holiday on account of the festival.

60. In the mills, workers seem to take their meals at any time, and there seemed a lack of concentrated effort. The working hours should be reduced to nine or eight per day.

**X.—Special Questions relating to Women, young Adults and Children.**

82. Infants play around in the factory and mill compounds, but are forbidden to go near dangerous places. More thorough arrangements are necessary and creches should be established in the Beawar mills, and perhaps also in Kekri during the busy cold weather season.

84. There are few children employed in the larger concerns.

86. Facilities for apprenticeship are totally inadequate even in the large B.B. & C.I. Railway workshops, and in other industries are non-existent in the true sense of the word "apprentice."

**LIEUTENANT-COLONEL G. M. MILLAR, O.B.E., I.M.S., CHIEF MEDICAL OFFICER IN RAJPUTANA AND CIVIL SURGEON, AJMER-MERWARA.**

23. *General Health Conditions of Workers.*—No separate returns of mortality, birth rate and infant mortality are maintained for workers in Ajmer-Merwara, but judging from the general appearance of the workers I consider that the general standard of health is good.

Working conditions on the whole are satisfactory. Out of a total of approximately 15,000 workers, about 12,000 are employed by four concerns, the B.B. & C.I. Railway workshops at Ajmer, the Edward Mills Co., the Krishna Mills Co., and the Maha Lakshmi Mills Co., the last three cotton mills at Beawar. The conditions at the railway workshops are excellent, and those at the three mills mentioned are very good.

The dietary of Europeans and Anglo-Indians calls for no comment, while that of Indian workers is the same as that used by the ordinary inhabitants of Ajmer-Merwara, the principal constituent of which is barley, to which is added a little maize and gram and occasionally wheat.

The physique of Indian workers is in general well up to the standard of this district, and does not seem to me to be adversely affected by working conditions.

No statistics are available to show whether there is any disturbance of the sex ratio, or to indicate the relation between housing and mortality.

24. *Extent of Medical facilities provided.*—The B.B. & C.I. railway maintain a large up-to-date hospital in Ajmer for their employees and families as well as four out-door dispensaries.

With this exception no hospitals or dispensaries are maintained by employers.

Factories exist at Ajmer, Beawar and Kekri, at which places Government controlled medical institutions are situated, to which workers have free access.

In Ajmer there is a mission hospital for women controlled by the Scotch Mission. In Beawar a lady sub-assistant surgeon is on the staff of the dispensary.

A maternity home at Ajmer, in which dais are trained, is maintained under the Lady Chelmsford League.

25. *Extent to which medical facilities are utilized.*—In general these facilities are utilized freely, and women on the whole now come freely to medical institutions.

26. *Sanitary Arrangements.*—Latrines in general in work places are sufficient and well kept, and the supply of water for drinking, bathing and washing is good and sufficient.

27. *Extent and Nature of Official Supervision.*—The Civil Surgeon is a Joint Inspector of Factories for the purpose of supervizing the sanitation of factories and the inspection of children employed in them.

There are four certifying surgeons, two at Ajmer, one at Beawar and one at Kekri, who examine and issue certificates to all children employed in factories.

In the railway workshops at Ajmer no person is allowed to work till he has been declared fit by one of the railway medical officers.

A large area in Ajmer is controlled by the B.B. & C.I. Railway, the health supervision of which is efficiently controlled by the railway medical officers and their sanitary staff.

There are no special plantations in Ajmer-Merwara.

28. *Suitability of existing Factories and Mines Acts and Rules.*—I consider the existing Acts and rules satisfactory and suitable for this area. The temperature in factories is not excessive considering the normal atmospheric temperatures which are prevalent.

Owing to the general dryness of the atmosphere throughout the greater part of the year humidifiers have to be employed in cotton mills. Those in use at present seem satisfactory, while the introduction of live steam to any room where the temperature exceeds 85° F. has been prohibited. The conditions at present prevailing do not seem to be injurious to the health of the workers.

29. *Disease.*—Industrial diseases have not occurred recently. In the past a few cases of lead-poisoning occurred in the railway workshops at Ajmer.

Cholera occurs, but epidemics are practically never severe. Malaria is endemic, but usually is not severe; hookworm and leprosy are not common. Dysentery is prevalent. No other tropical disease is sufficiently prevalent to call for comment.

In Ajmer city tuberculosis is very prevalent.

30 and 31. There is no provision for sickness insurance or maternity benefits.

48. *First Aid and Medical Relief.*—In the railway workshops at Ajmer the arrangements are very well organized and highly efficient. At Beawar a few drugs and dressings are available in the larger mills. It would, I think, be possible to arrange for instruction in first-aid to some of the workers in these mills.

84. *Suitability of Regulations affecting Children.*—These appear to me satisfactory. The great majority of children employed in the factories are strong and healthy. The minimum age of twelve and the maximum age of fifteen are suitable for this area.

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Mr. E. C. GIBSON, I.C.S., COMMISSIONER FOR WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION, AJMER-MERWARA.

## VIII.

### *Workmen's Compensation.*

51. During the four years subsequent to the year in which the Workmen's Compensation Act was brought into force (1924), the number of accidents reported from factories and coming within the purview of the Act, the number of cases in which compensation was paid, and the amount paid was as shown below. The figures are

taken from the Annual Report on the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, which is compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara :—

Year.	Number of accidents coming within the purview of the Workmen's Compensation Act.	Number of cases in which compensation was paid.	Total amount of compensation paid.
1925 .. .. .	284	281	Rs. a. p. 3,009 9 6
1926 .. .. .	459	458	3,924 1 0
1927 .. .. .	134	134	3,385 0 0
1928 .. .. .	146	141	7,762 4 0

Very few cases come before the Commissioner under the Workmen's Compensation Act. The number of such cases, which have been dealt with since the Act came into force, is 27 up to and including 1928. Of these cases 22 were merely for the registration of agreements; four related to claims for compensation contested by employers, and one to distribution of compensation to dependents of a workman fatally injured. Most of these cases came from the three big mills in Beawar. Naturally, the largest number of accidents occur in the railway workshops, but until recently cases of compensation to employees of these workshops have been dealt with by the District Magistrate, Abu, and not by the Commissioner, Ajmer.

(iii) *Effects on Industry.*—In the Statement of Objects and Reasons drawn up when the Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in 1922, some of the advantages that might be expected to result from this legislation were described as follows :—

"An additional advantage of legislation of this type is that by increasing the importance for the employer of adequate safety devices, it reduces the number of accidents to workmen in a manner that cannot be achieved by official inspection. Further, the encouragement given to employers to provide adequate medical treatment for their workmen should mitigate the effects of such accidents as do occur. The benefits so conferred on the workman added to the increased sense of security which he will enjoy, should render industrial life more attractive, and thus increase the available supply of labour. At the same time a corresponding increase in the efficiency of the average workman may be expected."

The Act has only been in force for five years, but the beneficial results anticipated are in process of achievement. It is probable that some workers, who fall below the higher standard of physical fitness which is now demanded by some employers, find it more difficult to obtain employment in the larger industrial establishments such as the railway workshops where, I believe, stricter medical examination before employment is now insisted on. On the other hand a system, under which only persons who are physically fit can obtain employment, must tend to increase the efficiency of labour in industrial undertakings.

So far as this district is concerned, the available supply of industrial labour is at present greater than the demand. In Ajmer this is partly due to the fact that the railway workshops are reducing the number of their employees. In Merwara I believe that a certain number of men have recently gone to Ahmedabad to seek employments in the mills there, because they are not able to get employment in the Beawar mills. This is partly due to the fact that as recruitment for the army in Merwara has recently been discontinued, military service, which formerly attracted considerable numbers of the rural population of this sub-division, is no longer open to them.

(iv) Insurance companies provide facilities for covering employers' liabilities under the Act and some, at any rate, of the mill and factory owners in this district do cover their liability by insurance. The value of this is presumably greater from the point of view of the employer than of the worker, though the latter must also benefit indirectly, since his chances of recovering compensation due to him under the Act are not prejudiced by the reluctance or inability of his employer to pay it, and any temptation to withhold compensation is removed when liability is transferred from an employer to an insurance company. No case, however, in which an employer has tried to evade or been unable to meet his obligations under the Act has come to my notice in Ajmer-Merwara.



(v) The scope of the Act is at present confined to industries which are more or less organized, and the classes of workmen benefited by the Act are, generally speaking those whose occupations are hazardous. Some system of compulsory insurance would probably be necessary if the provisions of the Act were extended to workers in unorganized industries. The difficulties and expense of administering such a scheme would, however, be very great.

52. Logically there seems to be no strong argument against the extension of the Act to unorganized industries and non-hazardous employments. It is very doubtful, however, if such extension of the Act could be made practically effective without a system of compulsory insurance, and whether the difficulties of enforcing any such system of compulsory insurance could be satisfactorily overcome.

53. I have not heard of any dissatisfaction on the part either of employers or workmen in this district with the provisions of the Act. No doubt they are capable of improvement in some respects. I think that they are perhaps most open to criticism as regards the *scales of compensation* payable to workmen on lower pay. Compensation for injuries received by such workmen are often, in my opinion, somewhat unequal and inadequate. I may quote as an instance the last case with which I have dealt. This was the case of a workman who, as the result of an accident while employed on his regular work, received injuries which necessitated the amputation of the four fingers on his right hand. His pay being Rs. 12 a month, the compensation to which he was entitled under the Act was Rs. 126. This amount seems to be hardly commensurate with the extent of the disablement. With only the thumb left he has practically lost the use of his right hand. Similarly, if a workman drawing Rs. 10 a month loses any finger other than the index finger he is, in accordance with the provisions of Section 4 (1) (c) (i) read with Schedule I of the Act, entitled to receive compensation amounting to Rs. 21.

The *waiting period* of 10 days provided for in Section 4 (1) (d) of the Act also, no doubt, causes a certain amount of hardship to workmen by reducing the amount of compensation payable to them. It is probably, however, undesirable to reduce the period, and I believe that the method of "dating back" for purposes of compensation has serious disadvantages. I understand that the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway pay their employees full pay for the first 10 days (or shorter period) of disablement. If this example were followed by other employers of labour, the hardship would be removed.

Owing to the habitual improvidence of the Indian labouring classes the system of paying compensation in a lump sum is not very satisfactory. In principle a system of *recurring payments* would certainly be preferable, but here, too, the practical difficulties would be great, one of the principal obstacles being the fact that much of the labour employed in factories is migratory.

As far as this district is concerned I think that the present machinery for administering the Act works on the whole satisfactorily.

**ROYAL COMMISSION**  
ON  
**LABOUR**

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**ORAL EVIDENCE**

**Punjab, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara**

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**Volume II**

**Part II**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH  
1930**

**MINUTES OF EVIDENCE**  
TAKEN BEFORE THE  
**ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR IN INDIA**

**PUNJAB**  
**THIRD MEETING**

**KHEWRA**

**Monday, 21st October, 1929.**

PRESENT :

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

The Rt. Hon. V.S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.O.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt., C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KAMR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S.

Mr. A. DIBDIN.

} (*Joint Secretaries*.)

**ALI HAIDER and HABIB KHAN, representatives of the  
Khewra salt miners.**

The *Chairman*: We have carefully considered your petition\* which was presented to us yesterday. The duty of this Commission is not to deal with detailed grievances which there may be in this and other working places in India. Our duty is to see if we can suggest here and elsewhere a system whereby all these grievances may have a proper hearing and be dealt with in a proper way. One of the paragraphs of your petition asks that the committee of the miners might be elected by yourselves.

B-1. Has that request been put before the management of the mine before to-day?—We have made the suggestion several times, but no heed has ever been paid to it.

B-2. In your petition you say that a change in the system of payment took place about a year ago; am I to understand that the miners would wish to go back to the old system?—That was better than the present system of work and payment; we consider that that would be better than what is being done at present.

B-3. Do you consider that you receive less on the average under the new system than you did under the old?—The old rates were not sufficient to meet the cost of living and the present rates are even less.

\* Not printed.

B-4. Am I to understand that the miners would be prepared to elect a committee who should speak for them on their grievances to the management?—Yes, we are prepared to do so.

B-5. The first paragraph of your petition relating to the question of the property in the mines is not a matter with which this Commission can deal; it is a legal question, which, if there are any rights that have not been observed, should be taken to the law courts?—We have mentioned the fact that we have these rights in the mines in order that you should appreciate that though we have owned this land for some time, we are not well treated even as labourers.

B-6. *Mr. Sastri*: In the petition the statement is made that outdoor work is not given to you miners, but that you would like to take it up; is that correct?—We are prepared to do the outdoor work if we are given sufficient wages.

B-7. Is it not a fact that you miners have been used for generations to indoor work and that you have an aversion to doing work outside?—We miners are accustomed to work inside the mine and we cannot work properly outside, but in order to get a living we are prepared to do so if sufficient wages are given.

B-8. I did not understand what was said about the houses in which you live, that if you repair or rebuild a house you have to execute some document?—Yes, we have to execute a bond in favour of the Salt Department that the house belongs to the Department and we cannot build without the permission of the Department.

B-9. So that it is not only the mine, but the whole of the house property here that now belongs to Government?—The conditions laid down in the deed are so stringent that even for ordinary faults miners can easily be turned out of the houses. Previously no bond was demanded, but now the conditions laid down in the agreement are such that miners can be ousted at any time even for an ordinary fault.

B-10. What is the daily average wage that a miner gets?—Four miners working together get Rs. 4-8 a day.

B-11. Do you mean that four miners work together?—Only one miner is shown as the actual miner, and he has three others to assist him; the output of the four is taken as the output of one miner and the payment is made in one miner's name.

B-12. Do those three other miners include the wife and children who may be labouring?—It includes their wives and their sons or others who go and work in the mines.

B-13. You have not yet told me the average wage; would it come to 12 or 14 annas?—It would come to 10 annas; the utmost they can get is 10 annas.

B-14. In other words, if instead of engaging their own wives and children, they engaged other miners, they would pay them 10 annas?—They are paid equal shares. Our wages are paid on output. The output is sometimes 4,000 maunds and sometimes 6,000 maunds. If the output is small we get less wages.

B-15. Are the miners usually able to employ their wives and all their children above 13, or is there a certain amount of unemployment?—There is unemployment; the miners do not get sufficient work here.

B-16. Do the miners take advantage of the school that is established here for their children?—Arrangements for education at this place are not so good, and the miners cannot afford to send their children to a school which is 5 miles away.

B-17. Is it a Government school?—There is a private school under the District Board.

B-18. I understand there is a desire on the part of the officers to employ miners' children as clerks; do you take advantage of that?—When we get no education, how can we get our sons employed as clerks? And those who are educated have been given no employment here.

B-19. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In reply to Mr. Sastri you said there was unemployment and you said you were willing to work outside. Why is it necessary to bring convicts to do the loading rather than to employ you; why will you not do this work instead of the convicts?—We are prepared to do it if that work is given to us.

B-20. At what rate of wages?—We are quite prepared to do that work at wages a little higher than are paid to the convicts, because, after all, being prisoners, they are prepared to do it for a smaller wage. We are prepared to do that work if no restrictions are placed on us and we are allowed to complete the work; but we are compelled to work for a few hours in the morning and then continue in the evening for 8 annas a day. Such restrictions should not be made.

B-21. You have never been asked to work for 8 annas a day where the convicts have been working for 10 annas a day, have you?—We were offered the same wages, but that work could be done by three persons and they insisted that we should engage at least 6 persons.

B-22. If they engaged three persons they would have to pay three times 10 annas, which is 30 annas; whereas if they engaged six persons, they would have to pay six times 10 annas, which is 60 annas?—More wages should be given per person if the work is being done by three persons than if it were being done by six persons. The miners would not engage their children on this work.

B-23. I am not talking about women and children; I am talking about these men. Why is it that convicts have to be brought in here to do that work when there is a lot of men seeking employment?—There was a strike in the year 1921. Before that we dare not make any complaint. After the strike of 1921, the Officers of the Salt Department tried to oppress us in every way and this work was stopped. We are quite prepared to do this work if it is given on contract or we are given good wages.

B-24. How long have the convicts been coming here?—For the last 6 or 7 years.

B-25. There is also unemployment in the mines; there are far too many miners and there is not sufficient work to go round. Supposing there are 500 miners, and there is only work for 400 miners, would you prefer that 100 miners be put out of the mine altogether and only 400 kept in the mine, or would you prefer that 500 be kept in and get less wages?—All the miners depend entirely on the mine; they cannot be turned out. If they were turned out, where would they get employment? They also should be given work in the mine.

B-26. I might have put it in this way: your sons are growing up and there is not sufficient employment in the mine for you and your sons. Why do you not get your sons to do the outside work, or some other work, so that you can continue to work in the mine?—They do not get the work outside the mine, so that they have to go to the mine.

B-27. *Mr. Ahmed*: Since 1921, when you struck, the Government have employed convicts to carry salt to the railway trucks?—Yes.

B-28. May I take it that Government have punished you in this way and you have incurred great loss thereby?—We do not know why it was done.

B-29. *The Chairman*: Is it quite clear that before the strike of 1921 miners were doing the work of loading the trucks outside?—We used to do the loading work, but when there was great demand for labour others used to be called in by the Department.

B-30. *Mr. Ahmed*: But if the work is offered to you now, you will be anxious to do the work as you did before 1921?—We should be given more wages than are at present given to the convicts; they have no children and we have to support families.

B-31. I understand that out of the Rs. 3-6 which you are paid for a tub of salt weighing 40 maunds you have to pay certain expenses amounting to 14 annas per tub, which leaves about Rs. 2-8 per tub?—Yes.

B-32. So that you get Rs. 2-8 per tub, there being no further expenses?—That is clear wages.

B-33. If you do not get good salt and it is stoney, the Government officials of the salt mine reduce your pay?—We are paid nothing for the rock or stone that is extracted by us; we have to extract it at our own expense.

B-34. What will be the percentage of rejections from the tubs?—About 25 per cent.

B-35. To load 40 maunds of salt you require the work of four persons for two days?—Yes.

B-36. Then I take it that 8 labourers get Rs. 2-8 for a tub?—That is so.

B-37. If you divide Rs. 2-8 by 8, what will it be per head?—5 annas per head per day.

B-38. Is it the fact that all the workers have not got wives and children to help in the work of loading, and so they sometimes engage outside people?—Yes.

B-39. And you have to pay those outside workers a share of the Rs. 2-8?—Yes.

B-40. In what proportions do you share the money with such outside workers?—The payment made to outside people engaged by us is made by measurement.

B-41. What is the system of measurement?—Re. 1 is paid for a cutting 6 ft. long and 1 ft. deep.

B-42. If as a result of the cutting you do not get salt, but get stone or half stone and half salt, what is the position then?—We are paid nothing for stone or rock.

B-43. Is rock or stone entered in the note-book which the officers give you?—That is not shown in the note-book.

B-44. Since when have you been receiving lower wages?—Up to last year our wages were better than they are now.

B-45. Since the accident, when your houses were destroyed, I understand you have petitioned the officers to be supplied with Government quarters?—That petition was made but no action was taken on it.

B-46. Would you like to elect your own committee of management?—Yes.

B-47. You do not desire to elect a lambardar, but would prefer to elect your own men?—That is so.

B-48. Do you think that if you had had a good committee consisting of your own elected representatives, you would not have been so harrassed?—Yes.

B-49. You have said that in view of the present cost of living the wage that you now get is not sufficient for the maintenance of a family?—That is so.

B-50. And unless higher wages are paid, it is very difficult for you to go on?—That is so.

B-51. Am I to understand that you have to pay for medical attention out of your own earnings?—If we go to hospital we do not pay anything, but if we call a doctor to our own house we have to pay the fee. For instance, if a man's wife is ill the doctor does not come without a fee.

B-52. You have to pay for the doctor, and have you to pay for the medicine as well?—We pay nothing for the medicine.

B-53. Where do you get the medicine?—From the local hospital.

B-54. You say the school is 5 miles from here and if you send your children there it involves expense?—Yes; Rs. 10 or Rs. 12 a month.

B-55. And you cannot afford that expense?—We cannot.

B-56. You therefore expect, as a matter of necessity, that Government should provide for the education of your children?—Yes.

B-57. As you do not get sufficient wages, you incur debts with the sowkar?—Yes.

B-58. It is therefore evident that since you are indebted, it is not possible for you to buy your daily necessities from outside and store them for a year?—We cannot.

B-59. I suggest that if you started a co-operative society, with Government assistance, you would be benefited because money would be supplied at lower rates of interest?—If the money were advanced by Government at lower rates of interest, we should welcome it.

B-60. It is one of your grievances that there is no provision of pure water for drinking?—Yes.

B-61. Certain Government lands were given to you for building your quarters?—No land was given to us for building.

B-62. Were not some lands given to some men?—I do not know. We are living in houses built by ourselves.

B-63. But some of you probably wanted certain lands from Government to build your quarters?—We desire that that land should be given to us outside this dangerous area.

B-64. You do not like the system of payment through contractors; you would prefer that your wages should be paid to you direct and not through a middleman?—The miners should be paid direct.

B-65. I understand some of you work 12 hours and some 11 hours, but it is stated somewhere that you only work 8 hours; which is correct?—We sometimes have to work as long as 16 hours.

B-66. The workshop employees are supplied with quarters by Government?—That is so.

B-66. And you would expect that Government should supply you with similar quarters?—Yes, we also want such quarters, with electricity and water.

B-67. It is said that the Workmen's Compensation Act is inoperative and that there is in fact no employers' liability with regard to accidents?—That is so.

B-68. *Divan Chaman Lal*: Would you prefer to get a minimum living wage?—Yes, we would prefer that.

B-69. *Mr. Ulow*: At present I understand that there is not enough work for all the men?—No.

B-70. Then why do you bring your wives into the mines?—We are very poor, and instead of getting other men we take our wives with us.

B-71. But there are other men sitting idle in the village?—If we give work to other people there will not be sufficient for ourselves.

B-72. How many hours work do you get at present, on the average. I do not mean machine work?—Eight hours.

B-73. The work seems to be sufficient?—We do not get sufficient wages. We work for eight hours, but there is salt-dust and rock for which we get paid nothing, and we have to waste a lot of time.

B-74. What is the usual rate of interest charged by money-lenders in the village?—It varies from one to two rupees per month per cent.

B-75. *Mr. Joshi*: Are there any difficulties in your getting land for cultivation?—We cannot get any land for cultivation.

B-76. What is the difficulty?—We cannot purchase the land ourselves, and there is not enough land here.

B-77. But say a mile or two away from here?—All the holdings are small here.

B-78. It is stated by *Mr. Hoyle*, the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, that the miners would not like a scheme for sickness insurance. If a scheme, by which they can get some wages during sickness, is prepared, would you like it or not?—We would prefer that scheme.

B-79. Will you pay, say, one pice in a rupee if you get your wages during sickness?—We would not like to pay anything from our own pocket, because even now we do not get sufficient for us to live.

B-80. I understand that your wages will not be so much if women do not go underground; but is there any other objection to the Government making a law that women should not work underground?—We have no objection to that.

B-81. *Miss Power*: In your petition you refer to the committee of four men. Who elects those four men?—They are appointed by the General Manager of the salt mines.

B-82. The workers have no say in the appointment of those four men?—No.

B-83. Has that committee of four men no power to deal with disputes as regards the workers' conditions in the mines?—They have no powers.

B-84. So that if the workers want to make representations about their conditions they have to do it either individually or collectively among themselves?—Everybody has to do it individually.

B-85. *The Chairman*: We have heard what you have had to say, and what you have told us will have our consideration when the time comes for us to make our Report. With regard to some other individual petitions which have been handed to me, those will be sent to, and dealt with, by the General Manager. They are not matters which this Commission can entertain.—We should not be victimized for what we have said to-day. We are afraid that the Government Department will not treat us properly for giving this evidence.

*The Chairman*: As a Royal Commission we should take into very serious consideration any victimization of any kind of anyone who appeared before this Commission.

(The witnesses withdrew.)



**A representative of the workshop men of the Khewra Salt Mines.**

B-86. *The Chairman:* We have a memorandum\* from the labourers in the Engineering Section of the salt mines:

*The Secretary* read the memorandum.

B-87. *The Chairman:* Who prepared this memorandum?—A general meeting of the labourers of the Engineering Section was held, and this petition was drawn up by their common assent.

B-88. When was the meeting held?—On Saturday last.

B-89. Did you word the petition?—Yes, I had to translate it into English.

B-90. On behalf of the men you have presented this petition in English?—Yes, in English, but the ideas have been taken from what the men said.

B-91. When a petition is handed in only a few minutes before we sit, it is difficult for us to do more than to say that we will take into consideration what you have asked in the petition. How long have you been employed in the engineering shop?—From the 10th March 1927. My colleague has been employed for about 6 years.

B-92. Have you represented to the management of the mines these proposals which you have submitted to us?—Yes. This petition of ours has been read over by the Engineer in charge.

B-93. Your petition has only just come into my hands. You will understand that it is not possible to examine you on this petition, but we can perfectly well understand it, and all I can say is that it will have our consideration, with the others that we have received.

B-94. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* What was the reason why you were taken off the monthly rates and put down to daily rates?—We have never had monthly rates. We have always been paid on the daily system.

B-95. There is a statement here to the effect that you had been put down to the daily rates. Since when?—The daily system has prevailed from the beginning.

B-96. Would you like to be put on monthly rates?—Yes, all of us. Then we would be paid for all Sundays and holidays.

B-97. Do I understand that formerly you used to get paid for Sundays?—Yes.

B-98. Were you consulted before this change was introduced?—We were not.

B-99. Did you make a protest to the authorities against this change?—Yes, all of us made protests verbally to the authorities, but they said that since the Act had been introduced they could not help it.

B-100. Suppose a system were introduced whereby a small sum were to be deducted from your wages, and if you fell ill you were given a certain proportion of your salary—sickness insurance: would you be willing to contribute towards that?—Yes, quite willing.

B-101. How many men are there working in the workshop?—More than 200 men.

B-102. How many quarters have you provided for you?—I have not got the exact number, but I think it is not more than 30 quarters or so.

(The witness withdrew.)

\* Not printed.

**Mr. A. L. HOYLE, I.C.S., Commissioner, Northern Indian Salt Revenue, and Mr. C. H. PITT, Manager, Khewra Salt Mine.**

*The Chairman:* Mr. Hoyle, I think we need only trouble you with that part of your memorandum which refers to Khewra. There will be one question about Rajputana. I suggest that we take Khewra first. You have been present at the Commission and have heard the evidence just given to us. There are one or two questions I would like to ask you on that.

B-103. Have you been aware of the suggestion that the miners should elect a committee?—What they said just now is an absolute misstatement, namely, that they have represented it many times. The whole petition was definitely not spontaneous. The suggestion about an elected committee is not a genuine one of the miners at all. They have never represented it once. They have never represented that as a complaint to anybody.

B-104. If they took steps in a proper orderly manner to have a committee of representatives, you would be willing to hear it?—Most certainly. It would have every consideration. We should be most ready to hear any suggestion they might wish to make. We could not undertake naturally to agree to it, but we should be perfectly ready to hear what they have to say.

B-105. Of course you could not undertake to give everything that was asked for, but you would be willing that a committee should be elected amongst the miners, a committee which should continue in existence in some regularized form and which should from time to time bring to your notice anything which was thought to be wrong by them. You would have no objection to that?—Yes, I do not think I would have any objection to that.

B-106. I understand you to tell the Commission that a good deal of what has been stated in the petitions presented to us really is at variance with the facts?—It is, both in the way of suppression of the truth and a misstatement of the truth. For instance, they told you that their houses were destroyed owing to our action, and they said that Government ought to give them land and give them free houses. They omitted any reference to the fact that Government had given free grants. They were called "irrecoverable advances", because that sounds rather more economical of public money than calling them "grants". But Government has given a grant of Rs. 500 to a very large number of these men to build houses for themselves outside the danger zone. We have provided altogether for this purpose an expenditure of about Rs. 57,000, out of which about Rs. 30,000 has been already expended. I think the petition was unfair in that it suppressed any reference to that.

B-106 (a) Is there any other point that you wish to put forward?—I do not want to bring in the point about the land because you have ruled that out, but I might mention briefly that the whole matter was threshed out years ago by the settlement officer, and they have not a shadow of a right. Then they referred to some documents, that is, agreements they have to sign. Mr. Pitt could show you a sample. Really it was introduced some years ago as a means of retaining some kind of hold on them, or rather as a means of controverting any claim that they might put forward to be the owners of the land. They are not the owners of the land. We thought it would be a good thing that that should be recognized. Their figures, I should think, with regard to their earnings are open to dispute. They are paid at the rate of Rs. 3-6 per tub load of salt, and they made out that that represents about half a dozen people. As a matter of fact one man can fill a tub load of salt in a day. One of their figures struck me as very much out. The number of miners working they say is 2,667. The actual number is about 1,100. They said that they used to be paid far better before than they are now, under the old measurement system. The present rate of payment, viz., Rs. 3-6 per truck, was fixed after a very careful examination of all the factors entering into the matter, and calculations have been made

which show that actually they are paid rather more than they were under the old system, after allowing for everything. A few months ago some of them were rather vocal on the subject of this rate. They liked the system. They all preferred this system, but some of them said that the rate was rather low. Calculations were made and explained to them, and since then they have been very careful not to say anything further about this rate for fear that Government might enquire into the question more closely and reduce the rate. What this man said just now about preferring the old system, I can assure you, is not a representative statement of opinion. Miners have, as a body, expressed themselves in favour of the present system of payment in preference to the old.

B-107. What do you mean "as a body"?—The representatives of miners. Frequently the men come up to me and talk to me in a body, and opinion has always been expressed in favour of the new system. These two men unfortunately are not representative miners.

B-108. Then it would help you really in your work if they had representative men with whom you could talk on these questions and explain when a change was going to be made, so that you might be sure what the opinion of the miners as a whole was?—It is rather difficult to say to what extent it would help. It might help. Anyhow I do not know of any objection to it. It is an experiment which might be worth trying.

B-109. It was stated to us just now that the work of loading into the railway trucks done by convict labour was instituted after the strike in 1921. Is that the case?—It was introduced during the war. (Mr. Pitt) I cannot give you the exact year; but during the war imported salt could not get into India owing to the lack of shipping, and this mine had to work at a very high pressure. The whole country was working at very high pressure. The only labour that was available of any kind was jail labour.

B-110. That is quite clear. You required all the men who were miners or who would go into the mine to be there, because of the demand?—Yes.

B-111. Since then the demand has reverted to what we may call the ordinary demand?—Yes.

B-112. The result of that is that some miners have not full employment with the present output?—Yes.

B-113. They have told us to-day that they would be willing to do this work of loading railway trucks at a cost not greater than that you are at present paying. Is that the case?—(Mr. Hoyle) In connection with that, the experiment was tried in 1927, and Mr. Pitt has on record many statements from the men that they did not want to take on this work. (Mr. Pitt) That is so.

B-114. That again would be a suitable matter to discuss with the men if you had a regular committee of them?—Yes.

B-115. So that you might be quite sure of your ground in attempting any further experiment. One can understand that you would not like to change your system and then change back again, but you would be willing to consider that in the same way if they represented to you through a regular channel?—I think so. Most certainly.

B-116. Mr. Clow: The figure of men employed here is 1,100. I take it that there has been no substantial change since 1927?—No.

B-117. A considerably lower figure is given by the Chief Inspector of Mines in his Annual Report,—presumably an average, which is reduced by the fact that he averages it over the whole year, while they work for only ten months?—I have not seen his figures, but I should think that is probably the reason.

B-118. As regards the hours of work, what control is exercised by the management over the hours during which the men work?—Practically none. They really come and go as they please. They go away for their midday meal at the time which suits them, and they leave the mine in the afternoon

when they feel they have done enough, and they come in the morning when they want to.

B-119. It would be open to a man to work any number of hours a day he wanted?—I suppose it would. There is nothing to stop him.

B-120. There is no system by which the Mine Inspector can check the extent to which the provisions of the Mines Act are observed in respect of hours?—No. It could be devised. We could devise ways and means of doing it.

B-121. My point is, there is no means at present?—No. At present we have not any system of checking when the people arrive and when they go off.

B-122. Is there really any check of the amount which a man can turn out? If he chooses to turn out more than there are trucks to take away, that is his own look out?—Quite.

B-123. So that is there not a tendency for your stocks to increase?—No; some of the men are lazy, and I understand that although these people will work very hard for a time they will not keep it up indefinitely. They are rather spasmodic in their method of work. (Mr. Pitt) The stock is not likely to increase unduly, because when a miner excavates the salt it is his property. It is put on loading stations ready for putting it into the trucks, and can be stolen by any of his friends, so that he is not likely to keep a very large stock. Until the salt is put into the truck, it is absolutely unguarded.

B-124. You could secure the present output with a substantially smaller labour force without working them unreasonable hours?—(Mr. Hoyle) Yes, Sir. I should say so. We hope to increase the output very materially. Railway freights are being reduced with a view to turn out more salt and put it on more distant markets than we send to at present. We hope to do that without overworking anybody.

B-125. We discovered this morning that recently you seem to be still taking on fresh workers. For example, we met one boy who had been taken on a few months ago. Would it not be better to stop fresh recruitment in view of the general underemployment which appears to exist?—The whole system of work in the mines here is a family arrangement. If you saw a new boy being taken on, it would simply mean that one more member of the family group was growing up and joining the family group in the mine. The boys rarely come of themselves. I have stated in my memorandum that these miners are a very conservative folk. They resent any interference with a happy family arrangement that they have been accustomed to for generations. I think it would probably cause more trouble than it is worth if one started keeping the boys out of the mines when they started getting big enough.

B-126. What is the average time at present which exists between the time the salt is cut and the time that it is loaded into trucks?—(Mr. Pitt) It depends entirely on the miner; but the maximum, I think, would be three days.

B-127. As regards holidays, we have seen a suggestion that the passing of the recent Act has altered in some respects the position as regards holidays, but that Act—the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1927—did not in its terms do so. Can you explain that?—(Mr. Hoyle) It is not so. The mine is always closed on Sundays and on certain other holidays. It has not made any difference at all.

B-128. In other words the position in respect of holidays now is much the same as it was five years ago?—Exactly the same, I should say. (Mr. Pitt) We have enforced the limitation of hours of working days very much more strictly in the last four years. This applies to the workshop.

B-129. I should like to ask one question on Rajputana. You suggest in your memorandum that the Workmen's Compensation Act being inoperative, there is no employer's liability in cases of accident?—(Mr. Hoyle) No legal liability.

B-130. Do you in practice give compensation on the scale of the Workmen's Compensation Act or do you give no compensation?—I cannot remember any case. There has been no such case in my time; nobody has applied for it. We have not given compensation.

B-131. *Mr. Joshi*: Will you explain what are the exact functions of the committee of four which you have appointed?—(Mr. Pitt) The existence of the committee was due originally to the fact that the old measurement system was very complicated, and there was invariably trouble between different members of the gang with regard to how much exactly was due to each man. It is very difficult indeed to measure proportionately each man's space. We found also that the men in charge of the working chamber were not to be trusted, because they would generally favour their own relatives. Therefore this committee was appointed to settle disputes in the mine about measurements. They do very little work indeed now. They do practically nothing as regards sanitation, or anything else.

B-132. Were you ever at any meetings of the committee?—We endeavoured not to be. Our intention was that the committee should represent, so far as possible, the opinion of the community.

B-133. Is it true that the committee does not function?—It functioned very well indeed. In four years I have only had three appeals from its decisions. Under the old measurement system there were frequent cases; they would decide possibly an average of two cases a week. Very rarely were their decisions at all unfair or unjust.

B-134. In view of the fact that there is a difference in the statement made by the workers as regards wages and the statement made by Mr. Hoyle, can you give us a more detailed statement of wages?—(Mr. Hoyle) I can give you figures showing how the rate per tub of Rs. 3-6 has been arrived at. (Mr. Pitt) I have it here. It is a long and complicated statement.

B-135. I want to know the actual number of miners employed and the total wage bill paid over the whole year.—Very well.

B-136. You give the figure of 50 rupees as the average wage. Does that include or exclude the deductions which you make?—The figures are very approximate. We have given 30 and 50 rupees.

B-137. I want to know whether these figures are inclusive or exclusive of the deductions?—They are net—excluding deductions.

B-138. As regards housing, we are told that you lay down the condition that whenever a man does not work in the mine he cannot live in the house. Out of the total cost of the house, what would be the amount of the Government grant and what would be the amount invested by the workmen themselves?—(Mr. Hoyle) You are talking of cases in which we have given one of these "irrecoverable advances" to a miner to build a new house?

B-139. You make a provision that a man must leave the house if he does not work in the mine, though you expect him to build his own house. I want to know whether it is a fair condition, if the miner has to invest a large amount of money to build his house, to turn him out of it if he no longer works in the mine?—(Mr. Pitt) There is no such condition.

B-140. You do not ask the man to leave the house, even if he does not work in the mine?—No. The lease provides for the ejection of a disobedient tenant.

B-141. What is the meaning of "disobedient"?—One who does not obey orders in the mine, or other points of discipline in the village.

B-142. I want you to consider this from the point of view of the workman. He is expected to build his house. If he builds his house, and if he invests his money in it, the condition on which he can be evicted must not be a light condition, such as disobeying orders in the mine.—(Mr. Hoyle) I think some provision is necessary against mutiny or indiscipline. We give them the site of the house free.

B-143. *The Chairman*: Does the Rs. 500 of which you speak cover the whole cost of building the house or not?—No. (Mr. Pitt) The Rs. 500 was

only given in the case of houses which collapsed due to a bad subsidence which we had in the village. In the case of a man wanting to build a house, he builds it at his own cost without any advance from us.

B-144. *Mr. Joshi*: In that case is it just for you to put conditions on him?—He has built it on our land here, and with our stone.

B-145. *Mr. Cliff*: As I understand it, you give the miner a site; the miner erects a house. If that man ceases to work in the mine, legally you can compel him to give up possession of the house. Is that correct?—(Mr. Pitt) Yes.

B-146. *Mr. Joshi*: Will you explain why you brought on convict labour?—We have not now got convicts in the ordinary sense of the word. These men are probationers. They are long-sentence men whose terms have nearly expired, and they are released on ticket-of-leave. During the war we had regular convicts who, instead of breaking stones in the jail, came and stacked salt in our depôt and lived under jail conditions. The men we have now are ticket-of-leave men. They are released on probation and they work here under the supervision of a Convict Reclamation Officer.

B-147. When there is unemployment here, why should you get these men from outside?—The men who came and gave evidence just now said they were willing and anxious to work in the depôt. That is not so. The experiment was tried in 1927, and the miners would not do it. A month ago I was approached by the miners that they should be allowed to do that work. I said "Very well, I will call for tenders"—which is what we are always required to do in connection with all Government work. We called for tenders, and not one miner or gang-man tendered for that particular work. They were not sufficiently interested even to put in a fairly high figure on the off-chance of their getting it.

B-148. As regards this strike, I am anxious to know whether, as a result of it, the wages were increased?—Yes, they were.

B-149. You thought the strike was justified, and the wages were low, and therefore higher wages were necessary?

B-150. *The Chairman*: Was not the time of the rise of wages the time when the cost of living went up very considerably after the war?—I cannot speak of that definitely, as I came here actually while the strike was in progress.

B-151. *Mr. Joshi*: The wages were increased after the strike?—Yes.

B-152. The representative of the workmen said there were not sufficient quarters for them. Do you accept that statement?—(Mr. Hoyle) We are short of quarters for everybody. We keep on building as fast as we can, but we cannot get enough money in our budget to build houses for everybody.

B-153. They also mentioned they had not sufficient work. When some men leave do you appoint new men in their places, or are you taking steps to reduce the number?—We do not reduce the staff unless we find that there are definite economies which can be made.

B-154. Can you give us a full statement of your pensions scheme; how many members there are; what contributions are made by them; what contributions are made by you; and how many men are receiving pensions?—(Mr. Pitt) I can let you have a report to-morrow morning.

B-155. Will you tell me why, if your workers accept a pension scheme, they should also not accept a sickness insurance scheme?—I should think probably they feel that enough cuts are made from their pay as it is, and they do not want any more made. Further, this is not a favourable field for grand-motherly legislation. They are a self-reliant and a very conservative lot of men.

B-156. But they like the pension scheme?—No. It is called a voluntary contribution fund but it is really not very voluntary.

B-157. I find in the report of the Chief Inspector of Mines that your hours are mentioned as 48, and the maximum 50, while in your memorandum

the hours are rather more than 48 a week, and 50.—(Mr. Hoyle) I must apologize for that. It is a mistake in my written memorandum. It should be 8 hours, instead of 10.

B-158. I want to know why you do not observe the Act as regards hours?—It has never been the custom of the men here to work for more than the permissible hours under the Act, and therefore we do not feel under any obligation to compel them to do what they are already doing.

B-159. One man just now said that sometimes they work even 16 hours. The maximum allowed under the Act is 12 hours?—I heard him make that statement and it surprised me. It is entirely untrue. He might have been referring to the workshop, about which he does not know anything. In the workshop they do at times have to work overtime.

B-160. You state in your memorandum that there has been little marked change in the general efficiency of the workers in the past ten years. Did you make that statement after comparing the figures of production with the number of men, or is it your general impression?—It is more Mr. Pitt's general impression than mine. I have only been in charge of the department for 18 months, so I am not in a position to judge; but I consulted Mr. Pitt on the subject and that was the impression he had formed.

B-161. I find a remark in the report of the Chief Inspector of Mines to the effect that the production in your salt mine is going up. I take it also that the efficiency is going up?—(Mr. Pitt) The population is also increasing.

B-162. Are any efforts being made to mitigate the misery caused by unemployment by finding some supplementary occupation for these people?—I have spent a considerable time in corresponding with the Punjab Government on the subject of grants of land—not free grants of land, we can hardly expect that, but as to whether concessions could be made to our men in the matter of leases of land. There is a colony in the Punjab in which a good deal of land has been put up by Government for sale. I wrote some time ago to the local Government of the Punjab enquiring whether they could give any special concessions in view of the hardness of the case, that these men were, a good many of them, out of employment, and I undertook that they would make a fairly good type of settlers. I asked the Government to see what they could do about it. I have lately had a reply; they have slightly modified their terms; they have made their terms as to instalments a little easier.

B-163. *Mr. Cliff*: What are the terms?—I think they pay the purchase price in 14 annual instalments. I tried to get them to agree to 20 or 25 years, but they said they could not do that. The first instalment is cash down. I could give you the figures, but I was not prepared for the question and I have not the file with me.

B-164. May I put this figure to you; the first instalment is Rs. 2,500; is that correct?—That figure does not sound familiar to me. I am not sure you have got it right, but I have not the figures with me.

B-165. These figures were given to me by an officer in the mine.—(Mr. Pitt) It is something like that.

B-166. What is the holding?—(Mr. Hoyle) It is one square, which is 25 acres.

B-167. *Mr. Joshi*: Are you able to give us some information about this co-operative society which takes contracts for labour? Have you got a report of this society?—No, I am afraid not. It works under the Registrar of Co-operative Societies for Ajmer-Merwara. At the head of it is one of our Superintendents; he is put on deputation as Chief Manager of it. I am afraid I can give very little information about it; we do not get any reports at all.

B-168. *The Chairman*: Is not a report sent to the Registrar?—So I believe, and he inspects it like any other society.

B-169. There will surely be an annual report?—Yes. You could obtain that from the Registrar of Co-operative Societies of Ajmer-Merwara.

B-170. *Mr. Joshi*: You have referred to a certain Superintendent of yours who is now managing this society?—Yes.

B-171. My impression was that this Superintendent was doing some contract work. He, being a Government servant, that was not really allowed; this fact came to light after some time, and then he in order to continue his own work started a co-operative society and became the Chairman?—No, not so far as I know. It is absolutely above-board now, anyhow. The same Superintendent is not now in charge of it; the man who was in charge of it has gone on leave; he was taken ill a few months ago. What you are describing sounds rather underhand; I had not heard of that. The Society is officially recognized by the Government.

B-172. Looked upon as an experiment it is really a very interesting experiment?—Yes.

B-173. It is a kind of labour society in which the society takes the contracts. I was asking you about its origin; I want to know whether that state of things has now changed and whether it has now become a real co-operative society?—Oh, yes. We are only dealing with it as a contractor for the supply of labour. It is composed of local people of fairly substantial means, I understand.

B-174. *The Chairman*: Can you obtain for us a report of this interesting society?—Yes, I will send for it.

B-175. *Miss Power*: In your written memorandum you say: "The advantages of the Workmen's Compensation Act were not at first fully understood by the work people. They now understand them, and claim compensation whenever it is due. Six claims were paid in the last three years". Are we to take it that only six claims were paid but that more claims were put forward, or that all claims put forward, which amounted to six, were paid?—I think really every claim that was a valid one has been paid. I remember there was once a case which came up and which we found did not come under the Act; it was the case of a man who was employed by the mule contractor; when he was working in the mine, in the tunnel, the mule stepped forward, hauled the truck over his foot and it was crushed.

B-176. That would be an exceptional case?—Yes. We made the contractor pay. I tried to get Government to agree to treat it as an exceptional case, since as a matter of fact it did not fall within the Act.

B-177. Are any of these six claims to which you refer claims in respect of women?—I can have that looked into; I am almost certain one is.

B-178. You say in your memorandum: "The rate of accidents for the past three years is—fatal.....1 per 1,000; serious.....4·7 per 1,000." You tell us that the number of persons employed in the mine is approximately 1,100. In view of those figures it seems strange that you should say that only six claims were paid in the last three years. Can you reconcile those two statements?—Perhaps there is a fallacy there. In the first year very few claims were submitted because the work-people did not understand the Act at first.

B-179. Then are we to take it that this statement that only six claims were paid in the last three years is not correct?—I think there must be some mistake about that. This statement was prepared in a great hurry.

B-180. What machinery have you for notifying any accident involving absence for longer than ten days?—The doctor at the hospital sends a report of every case that is sent to him.

B-181. That is when they go to the hospital; but there are people who do not go to the hospital when they are injured?—I think they all go to the hospital if they are injured in the mine. If they are injured outside, in the road, we do not know anything about it. They invariably go to the hospital after accidents.

B-182. You mean serious cases?—(Mr. Pitt) All accident cases go to the hospital. The people who do not go to the hospital are people who are suffer-



ing from illness; and sometimes a hospital case which is progressing fairly favourably is taken away from the hospital before it should be.

B-183. In every case where a worker, male or female, is absent from the mine for more than ten days because of an injury sustained in the mine, is his or her claim put forward under the Workmen's Compensation Act?—Yes.

B-184. Yet in spite of that there are only a small number of claims made in three years, even if we do not accept the figure of six claims?—The reason for that, I think, is that for the first year after the Act came into operation we did not know very much about it; the workers certainly did not know and they did not put in any claims.

B-185. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Has Government insured under the Workmen's Compensation Act?—No.

B-186. They do their own insurance?—Yes. As a Government concern we must make it a point of paying in every single case.

B-187. *Miss Power*: In the workers' memorandum\* reference has been made to the fact that the system of payment now in vogue through lambardars is a comparatively recent system, and previous to that payment was made to the miners. Can you tell me why that alteration was made?—I do not think that statement is quite correct. The same classes of workers who were paid individually under the old system are paid individually under the new system. For instance, driving of tunnels had to be paid for through one man; there is no other way of arranging it.

B-188. You mean that you have invariably paid through the lambardar?—Yes.

B-189. There is no alteration?—There has been one alteration in the case of roof work; in working a roof under the measurement system we paid individually but we now pay through the gangmen.

B-190. The workers complained that sometimes the trucks were not weighed, that they were told that there was so much waste. Would it not be possible to associate a workers' representative with whoever is responsible for weighing the trucks? As you know, that is done in the English mines.—(Mr. Hoyle) Only a percentage of the trucks are weighed; we have a weigh bridge outside the mine, but it is not used for every truck by any means. They are paid on an estimated content of 14 maunds in the tub. Actually the tubs are over-loaded so as to balance out the waste, the marl and impurities of various kinds. Then the actual amount of salt issued from the mine is subsequently ascertained by the issues from the depôt. There is always a slight balance in favour of the miners and that is distributed to them *pro rata*.

B-191. What proportion of the ~~l~~ workers are women?—(Mr. Pitt) More than a third. We can give you exact figures.

*Sir Alexander Murray*: 396 are women.

B-192. *Miss Power*: In your memorandum, with regard to hours, you say: "Nine hours for surface and ten hours for underground labour, with the exception of female labour which works from four to six hours daily." The women are only employed underground, are they not?—Yes.

B-193. Are we to take it that those women are not working more than four to six hours a day?—It is very exceptional that they work longer hours.

B-194. What is one to understand when they say that their women remain with them during the whole of the time they are down the mine? What are the women doing during the rest of the time? Do they leave men hewing and go off?—Yes; the men go into the mines at about 7 o'clock in this weather. The women will draw water and do their household work and go down the mine at about 8 o'clock to 8-30. They then carry salt till about 12 o'clock or 12-30; after that they go home and get the food ready for their men.

B-195. *Sir Alexander Murray*: It would appear from your return to the Inspector of Mines that you give these women full pay for doing that?—There is some mistake in the returns. A lot of our mine returns are all wrong; I happened to be on leave at the time.

B-196. *Miss Power*: What arrangements are made to see that none of the young persons employed are under-age, that is, under 13?—Our staff has instructions that no child under 13 is to work, and any doubtful cases are sent to the Kewra hospital for examination; the doctor is the final authority to say whether a child is under or over 13.

B-197. How soon after a child's first employment is he seen by the doctor?—I do not think we usually examine our children.

B-198. If you do not usually examine your children how do you know whether they are under-age or not? Is it left to the father?—It is left to the parents; we have no actual machinery.

B-199. But if it is left to the parents, is it not common sense to suppose that a father who wishes to employ a child under-age is not likely to bring him forward to you to be inspected by the doctor?—Our own staff would take the case up immediately, and the gangman would be fined or punished in some way. We have had very little trouble with regard to breaking that particular rule; they do not seem to want to break it.

B-200. I see you say you have no welfare schemes?—No.

B-201. Can you tell me what supervision you exercise over women who are doing the carrying work immediately before and after child birth?—(Mr. Pitt) None whatever.

B-202. You mean a woman can work till practically the last moment if she pleases?—Yes.

B-203. And she can return on any day she pleases after the birth of her child?—Yes. We have no machinery of any kind. We find that the people very much resent any interference with the female labour.

B-204. Is any wage payment made to the regular workers when they are off work on account of child birth?—No.

B-205. They simply lose their wages for that time?—Yes.

B-206. So that the presumption is that they will return as soon as they can?—Yes.

B-207. Is any supervision exercised over the weights that these women carry?—No.

B-208. Have you any idea what the average weight is?—The load is supposed to be 40 lbs., half a maund. It is often above that and sometimes below it.

B-209. Have you any idea what the maximum weight is likely to be?—I should think it is never above 60 lbs.

B-210. You refer to the removal of a certain percentage of the women from the mine every year so that women will be completely removed at the end of a ten years' period. What effect do you think that is likely to have on the remuneration of the men?—It will have very little effect. We could stop all the female labour in two years.

B-211. Then who would you put on to that work?—We should use machinery.

B-212. So that the only reason why you do not use machinery now is because the women's labour is cheaper than any sort of machinery?—No, it is because the people want to use female labour.

B-213. Do you mean to say that you may be using a more expensive method by employing the women when you could do it more cheaply by machinery? Are you being philanthropic to the women, or is it because the women are cheaper than the machinery?—The question has never arisen.

B-214. It has arisen now?—Yes; now we are taking it up, and we shall very easily replace female labour with cheap machinery. In fact it is hardly machinery at all; it means just an ordinary chute.

B-215-16. Your case is that the chutes would be cheaper than the women at approximately 4 to 6 annas a day?—It will not affect us at all. The miner is responsible for delivering the salt into the truck; what means of transport he uses does not concern us. A number of them use Kashmiri labourers in the winter when Kashmiri labour is cheap. They get a Kashmiri labourer for 4 or 5 annas. We are not concerned with that.

B-217. What will you do during this gradual withdrawal of women labour?—We shall gradually go over to machinery; as women are withdrawn so we shall replace them by machines.

B-218. Have any of them been withdrawn already since the passing of the Act?—No.

B-219. When does the first year come when you will be withdrawing a percentage?—I think it will come next year or the year after; it is spread out over a period of years.

B-220. You are doing it gradually year by year?—Yes.

B-221. *Diwan Chaman Lal*: Can you give me any figures showing the cost of production per maund?—Certainly.

B-222. Will you also give me the cost of labour separately?—Yes. I am just making a very elaborate statement for the Tariff Board who are going closely into this question. Would you like to have that?

B-223. Certainly I should. I am concerned as to what is the actual cost of production per maund and out of that the total that is spent on labour. Perhaps you would be kind enough to put down in a separate column the actual cost of the supervising staff?—Yes, the indirect charges.

B-224. I notice there has been a great deal of unemployment and under-employment here. Would you be in favour of instituting some sort of scheme of unemployment insurance in order to relieve distress?—Theoretically, yes.

B-225. I mean a contributory scheme?—(Mr. Hoyle) Theoretically, I think it would be a very good thing. But practically as applied to Khewra, I should have a great deal of hesitation in adopting it because, as I have already remarked, the miners are the most conservative people in the world. They probably would not take kindly to any further cut from their pay. I should not be very much in favour of trying to introduce it.

B-226. Do you mean to imply that you have objections to it on financial grounds?—I certainly think there are financial difficulties.

B-227. Would you like time to consider it, and will you let us have your views on the subject? It is probably unfair to put this question to you at this stage.—I would not mind giving you a note on it at some time or another.

B-228. Would you be in favour of a scheme in which the employee did not make any contribution?—I think that would be slightly unreasonable.

B-229. Have you any plans for putting an end to the unemployment that exists at Khewra?—It is difficult to think of a ready-made plan. I have told you what we have done as to land. Attempts have been made to get them into the army; they are a good type of fighting men, as you can judge from what you have seen of them. In fact, they are the same type as is generally recruited from the Punjab I believe. But unfortunately the army has definitely said on various occasions that they do not want them. (Mr. Pitt) We have been able to get a certain number of men into the army and into the police. We have also lately been fairly successful in encouraging them to take up local contracts. We are very pleased to say that they, in fact, built the office in which you are now sitting; a number of gangmen took the contract for it and employed quite a number of miners on the less skilled jobs. About two years ago we started quarrying gypsum, and that gives steady employment to about 15 to 20 men. (Mr. Hoyle) Our chief possible

means of lessening unemployment is increased outturn. Our outturn is limited only by the demand. We have a large quantity of untapped salt in the mine, and we could increase our outturn by 50 per cent. without the slightest trouble if we only had a market for it. The Central Board of Revenue after a good deal of difficulty have succeeded in obtaining from the railways concerned certain concessions in the matter of freights. If we can get further fairly substantial concessions we shall be able, we hope, to get our salt into Calcutta and the markets of Bengal, and then we can expand a bit.

B-230. Has the duty levied on salt anything to do with the rate of consumption?—No, not at all, because after all it is very small. Whether it is Re. 1-4-0 or Re. 1-8-0 per maund, it cannot affect the consumer's family budget very much. One maund of salt, I fancy, is more than enough to keep a whole family going for a year.

B-231. You say in your written memorandum, with regard to staff organization—"Relations generally are satisfactory. The miners have no hesitation in bringing any grievances to the notice of the Mine Manager or General Manager." Are these grievances sent to you in writing?—Yes. I understand they are most regular in coming forward and having their grumble about things.

B-232. Were these grievances of a general character, or were they specific?—(Mr. Hoyle) There was a fairly frequent complaint about the rate that had been fixed for the tubs. When I am here on tour they generally come up and talk to me about their grievances. (Mr. Pitt) My office gets about twelve vernacular petitions a week from the workers.

B-233. Does not that show that there is need for some sort of machinery being set up which would deal with the grievances of the men as they come up?—Yes, and co-ordinate them a bit; I think that might be a good thing; it might possibly weed out the more irresponsible of the grievances. I fancy that some of these grievances were probably individual personal quarrels about the allotment of spaces and that sort of thing; they have feuds now and then between themselves about the allotment of spaces in the working chambers and things of that kind.

B-234. You say that the gangmen elect annually a panchayat or committee to deal with small local disputes. Will you let us have any records of these gangmen's committees, if they are written down?—I am afraid there is nothing of that sort. The question is usually referred to the Committee and they say they have heard the evidence and have decided that so and so has no right to such and such a chamber.

B-235. You say that the physique of the mining community as a whole is somewhat below that of agricultural labour in the Punjab. What are your reasons for saying that?—I have no real evidence except just walking about the country and seeing the two different classes of men; one is rather impressed by the fact that the miner is slightly weaker than the ordinary man who works on the land.

B-236. What do you think that is due to?—I suppose working in the dark is not so healthy as working in the open air. I think it is also due to in-breeding; the hereditary clans who work in the mine are rather exclusive and inter-marry a lot among themselves.

B-237. Would you also put it down to the fact that they probably do not get enough to eat?—We are told that they do not get enough vegetables to eat. As you have observed, there is no green stuff in this neighbourhood.

B-238. Have attempts been made to grow vegetables here in order to provide for these people?—The difficulty is the water-supply; the water comes from about three miles up the gorge and is just sufficient for drinking and bathing purposes. There is very little available for cultivation and certainly not enough available for making a big vegetable garden such as would be needed for this community.

B-239. May I take it that by spending a little money you could provide a sufficient water supply here at Khewra?—No. A great deal of money has

been spent and every drop of water that we can get here has been brought own.

B-240. Could you not build a reservoir for this purpose or sink tube wells?—No.

B-241. You give the figures as to the number of patients attending your hospital. In 1926 I see the number was 8,288, but by 1928 it has gone up to 13,245. Has that increase in the number of cases attending your hospital any relevance to your statement that the physique of the average miner is poorer than that of the agricultural worker in the Punjab?—That increase is almost entirely due to the personality of the Assistant Surgeon. I think that poor attendance in 1926 was unsatisfactory; it was not at all a matter for congratulation. The fact was that the people did not appreciate the advantages of medicine and did not attend hospital when they ought to have done so.

B-242. What is the total mining population of Khewra?—It is very difficult to get the exact figures.

B-243. I see there are said to be 2,000 men engaged in the rock salt industry in the Jhelum district?—It is rather more than that; a special census which was taken about four years ago, I think, gave the whole population as over 3,000.

B-244. The patients at your hospital in 1928 are 13,245 males and 6,860 females; that gives a total of about 20,000, which means over six attendances in a year by each individual?—The attendance is not limited to the people living in the village. If there is a popular Assistant Surgeon in charge people will come from all the neighbouring villages to be treated.

B-245. May I take it that substantially it is the population of Khewra that attends?—Khewra including the sub-villages.

B-246. You have said that the idea of a pension scheme is not favoured. Is it a fact that the decision as to whether a benefit shall be given is left in the hands of the leaders?—Yes, in a way.

B-247. I see that, under the head "Welfare" you say that the recipients are chosen by the gangmen and lambardars in consultation. A man who contributes towards this fund has no inherent right to a pension out of the fund; he is entirely at the mercy of the gangmen and lambardars?—The Mine Manager invariably attends the meeting. When we have enough money in the fund to pay out, say, a dozen more pensions, we convene a general meeting of the lambardars, gangmen and a few of the more responsible miners, and the Mine Manager attends. From what I have seen, they are fair in their judgments.

B-248. If a man contributes towards this fund that gives him no inherent right to get a pension?—No.

B-249. Has that something to do with the unpopularity of this scheme?—Possibly. Any scheme here is unpopular if it stipulates that there shall be a cut in wages.

B-250. You have made a statement as to the failure of the co-operative society. Why did it fail? You say that the shareholders took no interest in it. Is it a fact that the management in charge of the co-operative society failed?—I fancy the management was selected from the shareholders and the managing committee took no interest in the shop.

B-251. That was one of the main reasons why it failed?—Yes.

B-252. Some time ago there was a subsidence or collapse of houses. Was there an enquiry into that and is the report of that enquiry available?—There are several reports available; it was reported on by nine or ten people.

B-253. Was not a Government official put in charge of the making of the report?—The Inspector of Mines reported on it; the Consulting Engineer to the Government of India reported on it; the Chief Controller of Stores, who is an all-round engineer, also reported on it.

B-254. Let me have what you consider to be a representative report.—I will let you have all of them.

B-255. You said in your memorandum that the miners would object to the shift system. On what is the opinion based? Have you consulted the miners?—(Mr. Hoyle) They have been questioned again and again about this kind of thing. I also have innumerable reports.

B-256. But you have no reports from the miners themselves in regard to this matter?—I do not think they have put anything in writing as to their not wanting the shift system.

B-257. With regard to the payment of wages you say that payment is sometimes delayed from one day to 14 days and that in exceptional cases periods of from three weeks to one month have elapsed. Why is there no uniform system?—There are certain classes of workers who like to be paid at certain intervals and others who like to be paid at other intervals. Some like to be paid monthly and some fortnightly. About 12 months ago we made an enquiry and so far as practically possible, paid each class of labour at the interval at which it desired to be paid.

B-258. In some cases the wages have been in arrears as much as a month?—Yes.

B-259. I dare say you would be in favour of legislation which would make prompt payment of wages feasible?—I do not think legislation is necessary here. That long delay is not the kind of thing that happens regularly. In the ordinary course wages are paid punctually.

B-260. Among the miners is there a preference for weekly payment?—I cannot give you the figures off hand, but they are on record.

B-261. During the last nine years how many accidents have there been in the blasting factory?—We had a bad one in February of this year; there was one in 1918 and one in 1916 I think.

B-262. You have had several?—There have been three within the last thirteen years.

B-263. Were there residential huts adjoining the factory?—This factory was really a temporary residence of the powder contractors. The powder contractors are not employees of ours, but they were allowed to settle on land of ours for the purpose of manufacturing their powder. Their predecessor built himself a house on our land and during the period he held the contract he both lived and manufactured his powder in that house. His contract ended in 1919 or 1920. Since then the contract has been held more or less in partnership by three different men; they and their families were allowed to live on our land in this building which has been left behind by the former licensee.

B-264. On numerous occasions the blasting factory has been blown up, but nevertheless dwellings have been permitted to be built adjoining it?—I think the report you wish to see is the report of the Chief Inspector of Explosives.

B-265. I should like to see the report of the sub-divisional officer?—I should not think there would be any objection to that.

B-266. On page 3 of the annual report of the Chief Inspector of Mines, dealing with Jhelum he says: "The District Magistrate states that the relations of the labourers and employers were not harmonious throughout the year. The hereditary miners of Khewra have had considerable grievances against the salt department and as a consequence thereof a conference was held in Simla in 1907." I should like to have the District Magistrate's report and the report of the conference held by the salt department in 1907 at Simla?—This is the first I have heard of it.

B-267. Have you not seen a copy of the Chief Inspector's report for that year?—No. What you call the blasting factory is not the property of the Government; it belongs to the contractors who get a licence from the District Magistrate for the manufacture of powder. We used to allow

them to live on our land. The factory does not exist any longer and we are not allowing them to rebuild there.

B-268. Will you kindly supply me with the number of men working in the workshop and the number of quarters available for employees working at the workshops?—Yes.

B-269. Have you in your experience anywhere in India come across any factory or mine in which convict labour or semi-convict labour has been employed?—No, I cannot think of any at the moment. I should think that probably there are some; I should not be prepared to say there are not.

B-270. Do you favour a system of that kind?—I have not quite made up my mind. The Reclamation Officer is constantly writing and asking us to report in favourable terms as to the excellent discipline and training of his men. But I am not fully convinced that it is quite so excellent as he would have us believe. I am not quite prepared to pass a final opinion on it. Of course it has been a convenience in a way, as our miners will not work in the depôt.

B-271. Would it not be better to use electrically run locomotives rather than the present system?—It would be much better on all grounds.

B-272. *The Chairman*: I understand you have applied for authority to instal electric traction in the mines?—A scheme has been put forward and has been carefully scrutinized by the experts of the Indian Stores Department. Their report has been further scrutinized by my staff in Khewra. I have finally sent it back to Government asking for sanction to include the necessary funds in my budget for 1930-31.

B-273. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Under section 17 of the Indian Mines Act, you have to provide latrines and water. Is there any such provision?—There are latrines of a kind, but they are not used.

B-274. Do you provide water inside the mines?—(Mr. Pitt) yes, we have to provide water for the mules and they use the water in the shot holes.

B-275. *Mr. Cliff*: What have you to say as to the complaint of the work-people that they can only obtain water at a restricted period?—It is perfectly true that the period is restricted, but we are all restricted.

B-276. Are they restricted to thirty minutes?—The time given was not true; they get a supply for about four hours daily from stand pipes, and hydrants in the village.

B-277. For what period of the day?—Two hours in the morning and two hours in the evening. The time is varied according to the supply available. At present, just after the monsoon there is no trouble whatever; the only really troublesome months of the year are April, May and June when water is rather short.

B-278. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Am I to take it that Section 17 of the Act has not been complied with?—It is being complied with.

B-279. Under Section 17 you have got to provide drinking water in the mine itself?—It is provided. It is not provided through taps; you cannot have fresh water running about a salt mine, but there are tanks which are sent in. There are also latrines.

B-280. Do you think it would be a good thing if provision were made in the Workmen's Compensation Act to compel you to send in a return of the accidents that happen?—I do not see any necessity.

B-281. *The Chairman*: Do you report all your accidents to the Mines Department?—Under the Mines Act we are required to send immediate notice of any serious accident or any accident that is likely to be serious. A serious accident is one that keeps a man from work for 21 days. If it is likely to be serious or if it is fatal a report goes in within 24 hours.

B-282. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Would you be in favour of reporting any sort of accident that is suffered by a worker?—No, I think the law is fairly good as it stands. Any sort of accident may mean just a scratch. If

such small matters were reported the work of the Mines Department would increase enormously; it would create a mass of correspondence.

B-283. But in the absence of trade unions would it not be better to have a report?—You have that report in the office of the Inspector of Mines.

B-284. But that is only of serious accidents?—I think that is sufficient.

B-285. *Mr. Cliff*: There has been handed in a file of correspondence which has taken place with the Punjab Government as to your application for land for miners. Would it be convenient to prepare a memorandum on this subject for the Commission?—Yes I will prepare a precis.

B-286. Are you directly responsible for the conditions of labour of the work-people, fixing their rates of wages and their welfare?—Yes, in a way I am responsible for all that goes on in the Department. Almost everything except unimportant routine detail comes up to me.

B-287. *The Chairman*: How far have you a free hand, without getting the consent of some higher authority, to make changes in the conditions of the workers?—Practically every change has financial implications of some kind or another. My financial powers are very circumscribed. Therefore almost everything has to be reported to the Central Board of Revenue which is really a branch of the Finance Department of the Government of India. For instance, the fixing of the rate of payment for tubs was sent up to the Government of India for approval.

B-288. *Mr. Cliff*: Have you ever previously handled large numbers of industrial workers?—No, I have not. This is my first experience of being in command of them.

B-289. Since you became Commissioner how many times have you visited Khewra?—I think this is my fourth visit.

B-290. Are you satisfied that the conditions at Khewra are as they ought to be?—It would be rather a sweeping statement to say that they are. Almost anything will admit of improvement.

B-291. Did you hear the evidence of the representatives of the miners this afternoon?—Yes.

B-292. Did it strike you that their complaint was a demand for security?—Well, they ended up by asking for security and saying they hoped they would not be ill-used for having made uncomplimentary references to their officers and the Department.

B-293. I am not thinking of victimization; I am thinking of the whole petition?—It is a little difficult to judge that petition dispassionately because of the way in which it is conceived. I mean it was grossly unfair. For example, they said that Government ought to have provided them with houses when the subsidence occurred, absolutely suppressing the fact that Government had given them irrecoverable advances. No doubt there is a good deal in that petition that is deserving of consideration and enquiry. I am quite certain that it was not a spontaneous petition. It was drafted I believe, by a pleader on behalf of the men. The new system of payment is preferred by the miners as a whole, but at first they had a little grievance about the rate. Then the rate was recalculated, the details were explained to them and they said no more about it, being evidently afraid that Government would now proceed further to enquire into it and the rate would be reduced. The statement in the petition that the rate was too low, I am inclined to think, was not a spontaneous idea of the people for whom that petition nominally stands.

B-294. *The Chairman*: Were the men consulted before the new system was put into operation?—(*Mr. Pitt*) Yes, it was explained very thoroughly to them and the general body did not seem to be at all antagonistic to the new system. There was a little bit of argument about what they were to be paid per tub which was our unit. There was also a certain amount of argument because under the old measurement system they were paid for



carrying salt up to different heights. Payment of that kind is impossible under the system of payment by weight, or it is only possible with the aid of very complicated calculations. Our endeavour was to evolve a very simple system. The old measurements and calculations used to take six weeks to work out occasionally.

B-295. I understand it was explained to them before it was put into operation?—It was. After it had been in force for some time we made an experiment on a working place, calculating the amount due to the men by measurements and by weight; in fact we made two experiments. In both cases we found they were paid more for a given quantity of work by the weight system. We showed them these figures; they were rather frightened that we should send these figures to Government and that the flat rate would be reduced.

B-296. Mr. Cliff; I think you said it was explained to the 'general body' of workers. What does the expression, 'general body' cover?—The people who are sitting round here are a fairly general body.

B-297. One body of which you have spoken consisted of four members of a committee of lambardars and the men who were literate. Can it be said that the explanation was given both before and after to the whole of the miners?—Did they appreciate what you were doing before you did it?—It was not given to the whole of the miners.

B-298. If an explanation was not given to the whole of the miners, is it not natural that when a system which they had not been able to appreciate was introduced, there should be objections?—It was explained to the gangmen, lambardars, and the heads of the families, who were asked to explain it to the people who worked in their gangs.

B-299. What is the function of the lambardar in the mine?—He has no real function in the mine.

B-300. So that for our purpose we need only consider gangers in the mine?—Yes.

B-301. How many gangers have you in the mines?—41.

B-302. You pay wages to these gangers?—No.

B-303. To whom do you pay wages?—Wherever we can we pay wages individually; our payment system provides for individual payment of the ordinary excavation work which forms the bulk of our outturn.

B-304. When you speak of individuals you are referring to registered miners?—Yes.

B-305. So that as far as the registered miners are concerned, for the great bulk of your work you pay them weekly?—Whenever practically possible, yes.

B-306. Can you give me some rough idea of the proportion whom you pay directly?—I could give you the proportion of the total wages which are paid individually and paid to the gangers.

B-307. The explanation was given to the gangers. It was given before the change was decided on?—Yes.

B-308. Was any explanation given to the miners of whom I understand a considerable proportion would be affected?—Yes, wherever possible.

B-309. By you?—Yes, I was Mine Manager at the time and personally explained to as many work-people as possible what was going to happen; because the weight system postulates the use of the small account book and we had to explain carefully to each man what that book was for.

B-310. Why was this change desired?—(Mr. Hoyle) It was for audit reasons really. The result of this measurement system was that the people did not get fully paid up for long periods. It was a thoroughly faulty method. For that reason the new system ought to be greatly preferred by the men, because their payments were frequently delayed under the old system.

B-311. What is the number of registered miners?—(Mr. Pitt) It is just over 600.

B-312. Is the number of women about 350?—Something like that.

B-313. How many are engaged in the shops and loading platforms?—1,100 is the number working underground. I think our figure is wrong here.

B-314. Am I to understand that there are still 150 to account for underground?—Not as many as 150.

B-315. May I take it that there are 950 underground or must I take it that it is 1,100?—I am sure that there are not 1,100 underground, because that number includes workshop people.

B-316. Have you got a muster roll of the actual number of people underground?—Yes.

B-317. Does that include persons under 13?—Yes. The trouble with some of our information is that the whole thing had to be done in three or four days. It was not possible to check the figures.

B-318. *Mr. Cliff*: You say: "The total permanent labour force including miners, workshop hands and some of the semi-permanent labour is about 1,100 (including women) at Khewra." What is the number underground?—The number underground is about 500 miners. The whole 600 are very rarely working. There would possibly be between 300 and 350 women and there would be another 20 to 40 men on transport work.

B-319. Does your muster roll show how many youths over 13 and under 18 years of age you have employed in the mine?—Our register of miners includes practically all the able-bodied males in the village.

B-320. I understand it is your view that there are more miners employed than is necessary?—Yes, that is the case.

B-321. What number would you say would be adequate for your output?—Unfortunately we are just going to change our output. For the output up-to-date which is about 30 lakhs of maunds a year, 400 men would be ample.

B-322. If a miner chooses to bring a woman or a man there is no restriction on him?—No.

B-323. He could do that?—Yes.

B-324. Have you more men engaged in the workshops than are necessary?—No.

B-325. Is that for economic reasons?—The men in the workshop are paid daily wages.

B-326. Therefore you do not employ more than you actually require?—No.

B-327. Is it any concern of yours that there are more people having the opportunity of working in the mines than are required?—We encourage them to take up other branches of work and not to go into the mine.

B-328. Provision has been made that by a certain date women shall be excluded from the mines?—Yes.

B-329. And yet you tell me that you are permitting new women to go into the mines?—Yes they go at present.

B-330. Does it appear to you that in order to prevent friction and trouble it is well to discourage them now?—These people are very very sensitive about their womenfolk; the less one interferes with their womenfolk in any way whatever, the better.

B-331. However sensitive they may be, if the law is operated at the prescribed year, they will have to put up with it?—Yes.

B-332. Do you not think it would be advisable that there should be no new entries of labour into the mine?—I think it would be.

B-333. I understand you to say that on the loading platform, i.e., discharging of the small trucks, you have asked the people to tender and you have

not received any tender. Have you tried to employ them at daily rates of wages?—No.

B-334. Have you ever thought of taking youths who are growing up and as they are growing up encourage them on that class of work at a daily rate?—The miner is rather a snob in his way and to descend from a skilled worker to a worker in the depôt would be a distinct loss of prestige and respectability.

B-335. Is not that responsibility upon you to find employment here wherever possible?—We feel that responsibility.

B-336. Have you in any way sought to train the boys who are growing up?—We have a number of sons of miners employed in the workshop. There are a number of them on our electrical installations. Wherever possible we put them in.

B-337. Will you tell the Commission the number that you have trained and your views on the success of the experiment?—I cannot give you the actual figure.

B-338. Is it a dozen or twenty?—At least 20.

B-339. What opinion have you formed as to the success that has attended this scheme?—It has been quite successful.

B-340. What do you mean by "semi-permanent labour"?—Permanent labour is the hereditary mining caste. Purely casual labour is labour which is recruited for construction work. If we want to build a bungalow or an office or something like that we recruit purely temporary labour to do that work.

B-341. Taking semi-permanent labour, are they employed regularly throughout the year?—Yes.

B-342. What proportion of the people employed about a mine are not subject to factory legislation?—The Mines Act covers everything including workshops.

B-343. Do all the employees specified in these categories come under the Workman's Compensation Act?—Yes.

B-344. Does that include contractors' men?—Not in relation to us. The obligation in that case is on the contractor and not on us.

B-345. The employee has a legal right against the contractor?—Yes.

*Mr. Clow*: And also against you, the principal.

B-346. *Mr. Cliff*: Under the head "Wages" in your memorandum you apparently make an analysis of the cost of living of a family. Can you tell me how that is made up?—(*Mr. Pitt*) Yes, I have the detailed figures here. It is a very difficult thing to get the figures of the cost of living.

B-347. Will you put in those figures?—Yes. I will not guarantee their accuracy.

B-348. Have you ever considered accepting liability under the Workman's Compensation Act in the mines that are in the Indian States?—No, we are not legally liable, but undoubtedly if we had a serious accident which was due to employment in our Department we should consider the matter and try to get Government to sanction some compensation for it as a special case. We once got sanction from Government for the payment of compensation to some labourers who lived near the edge of the lake and whose huts caught fire from the sparks of the engine which was hauling our salt. I give you that as an instance of the kind of cases in which we thought fit to ask Government to sanction compensation.

B-349. Can you tell me whether a case has occurred in the Indian State for which you would be liable if it were in British India?—I cannot remember such a case.

B-350. You agree that you are morally responsible?—I agree that we should consider whether we ought to pay. I do not know that I am prepared

to admit it straightway as a general principle, but I certainly think we ought to consider in such cases whether or not we are morally liable.

B-351. *Col. Russell*: I understand you had employed here for several years a trained dai or native midwife?—Yes.

B-352. Why did she leave?—(Mr. Pitt) She reached the age limit and retired about two months ago.

B-353. Since she retired in June has any attempt been made to get a substitute?—Yes.

B-354. But you have not been able to get one?—We have applied to four different places. I have been offered lady health visitors at rather high salaries, which I do not think Government will pay.

B-355. During her last seven years' work in Khewra the figures that I got this morning from her own registers show that the cases had steadily diminished?—Yes.

B-356. Was that due to her old age or was it due to the fact that the women did not want her services?—She was a most unsatisfactory woman; she was not supposed to take any fees, but she took very high fees for attending cases. She was very dirty and lazy.

B-357. Then I take it that the fall in numbers was not due to the unwillingness of the women to make use of her services?—To some extent.

B-358. I am aware of the fact that the people here are very conservative; but would women welcome the development of that kind of work or let me say, general welfare work, if it were initiated by Government agencies like the Salt Department.—We are thinking of having an experiment on the lines of having a health visitor to come and tour the neighbourhood.

B-359. Although a health visitor is under consideration, so far you have done nothing further about it, because of the high salaries that these applicants are asking. Have you asked Government whether they will sanction the salary of a fairly highly paid women or not?—It is still under consideration.

B-360. Whose consideration?—I think the file is in my office at present. Correspondence is going on between my office and the Commissioner's office as to the replacement of a dai and the possible appointment of a health visitor.

B-361. Do you think that is an important question as regards the health of the women in connection with the mines?—(Mr. Hoyle) Do you mean from the economic point of view?

B-362. No, from the point of view of the welfare of the women?—My own opinion is that it would be a good thing. In other parts of India I have seen some welfare work which has been done with an industrial population, and I think the effects were extremely good.

B-363. You will admit that that kind of work is bound to increase the comfort and happiness of the population?—It seems so from what I have seen of it.

B-364. There is no sanitary inspector employed here?—No, the Director of Public Health goes round from time to time.

B-365. Probably he would get to a station like this about once in two years?—Yes.

B-366. Have you any body regularly on the staff to see that sanitation is carried out?—No.

B-367. Do you not think that it would be an improvement if such an appointment were made?—I should think it would be a very good thing.

B-368. For instance, I understand that the whole of the night soil and refuse from the hospital is dumped into the gorge about 150 feet below the hospital. Do you not think the inspector, if he were here, would prevent that happening?—He probably would. I am not opposed to it. I am really thinking of the Finance Department of the Government of India.

B-369. If you put up such a proposal, surely they could hardly refuse it?—Fortified by the recommendations of this Commission, I dare say it could be done at a later stage.

B-370. I have noticed there was a considerable amount of fairly obvious anaemia not only among the workers themselves, but among the boys. That may be due to deficiency of vegetables as was suggested; but is there no disease in the population which may be a cause of the anemia?—I do not think there is any disease which is particularly common here more than in other places.

B-371. Do you not think that the appointment of a sanitary inspector with a certain amount of anti-malarial training would be of advantage in that respect?—Yes, undoubtedly.

B-372. Water supply is brought down in pipes?—(Mr. Pitt) Yes.

B-373. How is it collected at the top?—There is a dam built across the head of this gorge.

B-374. You told Mr. Chaman Lal that the water supply could not be increased. Is that an engineering impossibility?—It is not an engineering impossibility; it could be increased at prohibitive cost.

B-375. That is a matter of opinion; but if the reservoir could possibly be increased you would have a large water supply available?—No, the limestone will not hold water. There is almost nowhere to build a really large reservoir. It would give us a better water supply for perhaps a fortnight in the hot weather.

B-376. At present do the women have to carry the water from the taps to a very considerable distance?—Yes, they carry it to the top of the village.

B-377. Would it not be possible to have branch pipes so that it may run into the village?—The ground is all saline and invariably where you have a hydrant there is wastage.

B-378. That could be carried away by a drain?—It eventually finds its way into the soil and causes subsidence.

B-379. That could be avoided by putting in pucca drains?—But there is no pucca ground to put it on. We find it inadvisable to extend the water-supply more than necessary on a salt area.

B-380. How much drinking water do you provide in the mine for the workers?—We send in two tubs of about 25 c. ft. capacity.

B-381. That is 600 gallons?—Yes.

B-382. Each day?—Yes.

B-383. Mr. Ahmed: The workers in the mines inhale a certain amount of brine which injures their health?—(Mr. Hoyle) Of course the air is not quite as pure as the air outside; on the other hand it is kept pretty well in circulation.

B-384. The air is comparatively bad?—Yes, compared with the outside air.

B-385. That injures the health of the workers?—I should prefer to take medical opinion as to that. I am not really fitted to express an opinion.

B-386. If sufficient capital and a sufficiently large market were given to you could you utilise the services of the unemployed?—I am not quite prepared to say that I could do so immediately. We do not yet know how the consuming public will take to Khewra salt which we are trying to put on more distant markets; and there are certain kinds of work which these men do not seem to take too regularly.

B-387. Have you sufficient space in the mines to utilise the services of these unemployed people here?—There is undoubtedly sufficient space.

B-388. Do I understand you will be able to go on with your work here steadily for fifty years?—I think easily.

B-389. With regard to persons being elected on the committee you now realize that it is a better system for you to elect them than to nominate them because you yourself said that these two men who came here this afternoon were not representatives of the miners?—Certainly.

B-390. You say they told us things which were not the opinions of the workers?—Yes.

B-391. For that reason it is better for you to get an elected body?—I have already said that I think it might be a good thing.

B-392. In 1921 there was a strike on account of the low wages paid to the workers. You say that the workers were estimated to have lost a large sum in wages. But you say in another paragraph that there was no particular loss to the industry?—Yes; the miners lost three months' wages; they were replaced, to some extent, by outside labour.

B-393. Is it not a fact that the high officials drew salaries for those three months and therefore there was a loss to industry?—No, because the miners were replaced by Pathan labour.

B-394. What do you mean by saying that there was no particular loss to industry?—What was intended was that the industry was not held up and other labour was secured.

B-395. Do you consider that the co-operative system is beneficial to the workers here?—The co-operative society of which we have spoken exists from our point of view merely with the object of supplying labour; it is not a co-operative society of our people; it is a co-operative society of local persons of a fair degree of substance who recruit labour.

B-396. *Sir Alexander Murray*: The particular industry with which you are connected here is not a typical industrial undertaking?—No.

B-397. The troubles you have here are not troubles incidental to an ordinary industrial undertaking?—No.

B-398. The type of labour with which you are dealing is not typical labour; it consists of these hereditary miners?—They are quite different from ordinary labour.

B-399. I think you will agree that special consideration ought to be extended to these workers in connection with unemployment?—Yes.

B-400. I understand you have brought down here about 160 ticket-of-leave men?—It varies; it is anything from 100 upwards.

B-401. You house them free of cost?—Yes.

B-402. How much are you paying them?—We pay them piece-work; it works out at about Rs. 15 to 16 a month; it varies with the output; they can go up to Rs. 20 or 22.

B-403. It is said that in this part of India one out of every eight men of military age enlisted in the army during the war, but in this particular area—the Salt Range—one out of every three men went into the army?—Yes.

B-404. Do you not think it is your duty here to do your utmost to give employment to such men rather than to convicts?—I would like them to take the work on but they will not do so.

B-405. But do you not think that you as the General Manager could talk to the men and explain to them that it is in their own interests to do that work instead of bringing in outside labour; would not that be better than that they should go about starving?—They are not starving.

B-406. I cannot reconcile the figures you have given us with the statistics of the Inspector of Mines.—I am afraid our return must be hopelessly wrong.

B-407. Will you therefore give us some figures dealing with 1927-28?—Yes.

(The witness withdrew and the Commission adjourned to Lahore.)

# PUNJAB

## FOURTH MEETING

LAHORE

Thursday, 24th October, 1929.

PRESENT:

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

The Rt. Hon. V.S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.C.

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, Bart.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, O.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).

Mr. HARKISHAN LAL, Bar.-at-Law.

Mr. R. W. TAYLOR, DIRECTOR, East India  
Carpet Co., Amritsar.

Dr. K. C. Hiteshi.

Mr. M. A. Ghani, Bar.-at-Law.

Pt. RAM AUTAR, Vice-President, North-  
Western Railway Union.

Col. C. WALTON, D.S.O., Agent, N.-W. Rly.

Mr. M. S. GREGORY, M.C.

Miss SIRAJ-UD-DIN

Mrs. DAGMAR CURIEL WILSON. } (*Lady Assessors.*)

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (*Joint Secretaries.*)

Mr. A. DIRDIN.

(*Assistant  
Commissioners.*)

**Mr. W. R. WILSON, I.C.S., Revenue Secretary to the Government of the Punjab.**

B-408. The *Chairman*: Mr. Wilson, you are the Revenue Secretary to the Government of the Punjab?—Yes.

B-409. Will you tell us how long you have held that office?—For the last two years.

B-410. I take it from the memorandum submitted by the Punjab Government that out of a population of 80 million only some 51,600 come under the provisions of the Indian Factories Act?—I think that is the case.

B-411. Namely, in round figures, 43,300 men, 7,500 women and 783 children?—Yes.

B-412. Analysing those figures, cotton ginning and pressing is the staple industry employing 31,335 workers who look upon this, for a period of four or five months in a year, as a side line to agriculture. Is that so?—Yes.

B-413. Of the remaining 80,000 factory workers, 18,000 are in Government employment—13,629 in railway workshops and 4,743 in Government factories; so that only 12,000 factory workers are left in private industrial employment outside cotton ginning and pressing?—Yes.

B-414. Of the 7,534 women working in factories, 7,123 are employed in cotton ginning factories, leaving only 411 for other employment?—Yes.

B-415. So far, therefore, as factory labour is concerned, apart from ginning factories, Government is far and away the largest employer?—Yes.

B-416. Has the Punjab Government any considered policy with regard to labour questions?—There has been no formal pronouncement or definite formulation of a policy that I know of. I think the object of Government is to endeavour to enforce the provisions of the Factory Act, the Workmen's Compensation Act, and such legislative measures as apply to labour.

B-417. Is it anticipated that the new power supply will lead to an expansion of industry in the Province?—That is so.

B-418. At present the scarcity of coal makes the Punjab practically a non-industrial province?—Yes, the coal such as there is in the Salt Range is not suitable for industrial purposes. There is hardly any iron except a little in Patiala. We have water and something is to be made of it in the hydro-electric scheme.

B-419. Therefore it might be said that the Punjab Government has the advantage of an almost clean slate in industrial matters with a prospect of considerable developments in the near future?—Yes.

B-420. Has any attempt been made to co-ordinate the activities of the various Government Departments concerned? In the preface to your memorandum I observe that industrial matters are divided between four different portfolios of one Member and three Ministers?—Some subjects are Central and the Local Government is acting as an agency. The Central subjects are in the portfolio of the Hon. Member for Revenue; for example, regulation of mines, development of any industry that may be declared by the Central Government to be suitable for Central control in the interests of public service, and control of production, supply and distribution of any product about which the Central Government may similarly declare to be under its control in the interests of the public—these are the main Central subjects. In the Provinces the industrial matters that are called reserved, i.e., welfare of labour including housing, accident insurance or other insurance, smoke nuisances and settlement of disputes, are under the Hon. Member for Revenue. Then there is another head electricity, boilers, factories and gas. These are the four heads under the devolution schedule relating to labour which come under the portfolio of the Hon. Member for Revenue. Development of industries, including technical research and industrial education, is a transferred subject that is dealt with by the Minister for Education. Labour questions which can be differentiated from industrial development, and subjects such as welfare of labour, housing, and settlement of disputes, are in the portfolio of the Hon. Member for Revenue, they being Provincial subjects, reserved. Medical and public health are transferred subjects in charge of an entirely different Ministry.

B-421. It seems very complicated?—It is rather. Medical and Public Health and Education used to be under one Minister three or four years ago. Now "Education" and "Industries" come under the Minister for Education and Medical and Public Health have been put in a separate portfolio, the portfolio of the Minister for Local Self-government.

B-422. What is the meaning of 'public works' in the portfolio of the Minister for Agriculture?—It refers to the execution of public works such as roads, and buildings and works of general public utility carried out by the Public Works Department, including the hydro-electric scheme.

B-423. I take it from what you told us that there is at present no means of co-ordinating these departments in their various relations to industrial questions?—Not so far as Medical and Public Health are concerned. We do so, for instance, in such questions as the planning out of a colony town or in the matter of framing factory rules; we consult the Director of Public Health in such matters.

B-424. I mean with regard to the framing of a policy in view of the coming development from the hydro-electric scheme and thinking ahead so



that the Punjab may become a model to the whole of India in its future industrial development.—The supply of power is three or four years ahead, and when it does come, it will simply operate to replace the local sources.

B-425. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: You have referred to the evening classes for the workers regretting that there are no philanthropists here who would institute such classes in the Punjab. Do you consider that the provision of such evening classes is likely to be a success unless you have compulsory education?—In rural areas where there is no compulsory education a movement has been in force for the last five or six years to provide night classes for adults, of course in the vernacular and primary education. These schools may be good in some places; they may be bad in other places. But in the rural areas there is a distinct endeavour on the part of the Education Department to supply some facilities in the way of primary education for adults. I think that that is largely a rural development and the progress made in that development has not been so great in the towns as in the country.

B-426. That bears out what I have heard. Where there have been attempts to start evening classes in industrial centres they have not been patronized. So that your point is that such classes at the moment are more likely to be successful in rural districts.—They have been tried in rural districts up to the present, as far as I know.

B-427. You say: "As for possible means of securing increased efficiency, the main appeal to the worker can only reside in an improved method of remuneration which will give him a fair share in the increase of output." Do you mean by that that you are likely to get a workman to increase his efficiency if you increase his remuneration?—If you give him an interest in the concern he would increase the production, because that would put something in his own pocket.

B-428. I thought that was a platitude. In other parts experience has been that increased remuneration has often not led to increased output; if anything it has led the workmen to do rather less work.—That is news to me.

B-429. That is not so in the Punjab, at any rate? I do not quite understand table No. 7 in the Government Memorandum, which gives the number of acres per rupee of rice, maize, wheat, etc., over a period of years. From this chart it would appear that in the last few years these products were the cheapest in 1923 and had then with a few setbacks risen yearly. Is that so? Is it a fact that in the Punjab foodstuffs have been rising in prices practically from 1923?—From this chart it would appear to be so. Possibly in other parts of India they have gone down.

B-430. I ask that because we have had cost of living figures in other parts of India where these figures have gone down during that period, or at any rate have not gone up.—From this chart it would appear that as the expenditure of the worker on food is as high as 60 per cent, the cost of living has gone up in the last six years.

B-431. It would appear that the cost of living has gone up in the last six years?—Yes.

B-432. And yet in the report it is mentioned that the drop in wages has been due to lower cost of living. I cannot quite see how the cost of living could have gone down while your foodstuffs have gone up. Who issues the chart?—This chart was prepared by the Director of Land Record's office. The Director of Land Records keeps an account of food prices.

B-433. Have you any idea as to how many districts he takes into account in getting these figures? It might be that these represent only a small number of districts and may not necessarily give the values all over the Province?—I think the system is that he selects districts representative of localities in the Province.

B-434. You are referring to the Workmen's Compensation Act in connection with forest work. I take it, whether it has been scheduled as hazardous work or not, that would not make the rates any different?—I

think that merely brings the work under the Act; the compensation that would be given to such work people would be on exactly the same scale as in other industries brought under the Act. The Punjab Government suggested to the Government of India sometime this year that forest fellings should be brought under the scope of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Government of India said 'No.' Therefore compensation cannot be given according to the Act, but we adopt the same scales in giving gratuities under the Civil Service Regulations.

B-435. These rates which they receive are, according to your report, two or three times the amount which would satisfy those concerned?—That is the information I got from the Chief Conservator of Forests.

B-436. At the same time you are suggesting that the scale of compensation should be increased by 25 per cent. in respect of poorer paid workmen who only get a wage of Rs. 25 a month. I take it these men in the forestry work would not be receiving more than that?—No; they are usually working in out-of-the-way areas where labour is cheap.

B-437. Therefore they would probably be getting less than Rs. 25, and would come under the head of poorly paid workpeople?—Yes.

B-438. Therefore, if the recommendation you make were adopted, you would be increasing by 25 per cent. the amount which is, according to your statement, more than would satisfy them?—I would. The forest labourers are probably in receipt of poorer rates of pay than labourers in the plains.

B-439. That rather strengthens my point that although they are receiving poorer rates they are at present receiving two or three times the amount which would satisfy them. Your statement that the present scale amounts to two or three times what would satisfy them does not apply to other labour under the Workmen's Compensation Act?—No, it does not apply.

B-440. Yet these people are receiving less?—Yes.

B-441. They are really worse off and they are more than satisfied?—If you like we could eliminate forest people from any general recommendation to increase the scale.

B-442. I was wondering whether any increase for the others could be justified in view of the fact that the poorer classes are more than satisfied?—Forest cases are comparatively rare—I think four or five in the year.

B-443. *Mr. Clow*: In your memorandum dealing with housing, you have stated that the workers would be only too glad to get any accommodation provided by the employer; but the need to provide accommodation is rare. What do you mean by 'the need'? Do you mean there are already satisfactory houses provided by private landlords?—The ginning factories are mainly in the colony areas where there is plenty of room, where there is no such congestion as you have in the older and bigger towns of the Province, and in laying out a factory town, the factory sites have certain places allotted for building quarters. There is no difficulty about getting land as there is with the older factories on account of the cost.

B-444. My point is that if they are only too glad to get any accommodation provided by the employer it looks as if there was need for accommodation?—In the towns they would like accommodation, but in the colonies where the ginning factories are, I do not think there is any need for accommodation of the ginning labourers.

B-445. In your memorandum you deal with the question of controlling the construction of new factories, and you say that the Central Government held the view that the most that the Government of India could do would be to ask the Central Legislature to pass an enabling measure. I think I am right in saying that the Government of India took the view that it would be better therefore to leave the whole thing to the Provincial Legislature?—No local Legislature, to the best of my knowledge, has legislated in any Province. The Government of the United Provinces has framed certain rules for municipal towns and District Board areas.

B-466. What I would like to get from you, if possible, is the reasons which have prevented the local Government from putting forward a proposal for legislation?—As far as the Punjab is concerned, when Bengal and Bombay and other more important centres have done nothing themselves, we propose to confine ourselves to trying to amend the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act and the Rules thereunder in order to get more control over conditions affecting the comfort of the labourers in the main class of factories in the Punjab—the cotton ginning and pressing factories.

B-447. *The Chairman:* This is a question of controlling the construction of factories?—Yes. There are rules for controlling the construction of cotton ginning and pressing factories under the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Act.

B-448. *Mr. Clow:* You have had a very serious accident in Amritsar lately, when a factory fell and killed several people?—That was due to the factory not working for more than two years, and with the very opening of the work the top storey came down.

B-449. Do you consider it necessary that before a factory starts work, or starts to work again after an interval, there should be some control over its construction?—That suggestion has been made and Government has suggested I think that before a factory starts after not being used for a year, it should be inspected by the Inspector of Factories.

B-450. At present you have no power, except in so far as Municipal Act gives the power, to prevent an unsuitable building being used as a factory?—Yes, but on account of that accident it is now proposed to take power.

B-451. By legislation?—I do not know whether our factory rules will admit of amendment to bring it within their scope; but if necessary, by legislation.

B-452. So that I take it that the real reason for the inaction here is that other more important Provinces have taken no action?—That is one of the reasons.

B-453. In your memorandum, dealing with "Health", which I understand, is not entirely endorsed by the local Government, you say that the Committee which dealt with the provision of sickness insurance came to the conclusion that if the legislation was to be sanctioned it must be Central. Is that view shared by the local Government?—Yes, I think so, as far as I remember.

B-454. Could you give us the reasons?—A certain amount of money is necessary for embarking on a scheme of this nature.

B-455. Central legislation would not necessarily mean a Central subvention?—As far as I remember, the local Government said that they would have no objection to bearing the administrative expenses of any scheme that might meet with general approval throughout India.

B-456. But not the contribution?—The contribution was left indefinite for consultation with other Provinces and the Central Government, if ever headway was made.

B-457. Mr. Abel, Chief Inspector of Factories, has given us some very striking particulars of what appear to be extraordinarily inadequate fines for repeated serious offences against the Factories Acts; there was one instance in particular in which a man who was discovered four times in two years employing children illegally was fined on the last occasion in two cases Rs. 25, having been much more severely fined on his second offence. Did the local Government consider the question of applying for an enhanced fine?—I do not know whether the case was brought up; I do not think so. It would not come to me; I would not see it.

B-458. Is it correct that when a man is convicted in a case like this, it is not possible, even after conviction, to bring to the notice of the Court the fact that he has been previously convicted?—Do you mean after the fine has been imposed?

*The Chairman:* I think Mr. Abel could best answer that question?—*(Mr. Abel)* The point has been raised in a Court by defending counsel, that

there being no provision in the Act by which an enhanced fine can be imposed, it is not possible to state in the complaint that there is a previous conviction.

B-459. But after the Magistrate has decided to convict?—In such cases I always send on to the local Government a resumé of the actual case and point out that the fine has been inadequate. In one or two cases I have asked the Deputy Commissioner of that particular district to call for a revision in the Court; but only in one case have I been able to get a revision. Usually the Deputy Commissioner prefers not to alter the case.

B-460. In your memorandum reference is made to five fatal accidents in 1925 in five cotton factories. I take it you mean cotton ginning factories?—(Mr. Wilson): Yes.

B-461. Nothing in the form of compensation seems to have been paid, and you say Government asked for a further report. Was that report received?—Not to my knowledge yet.

B-462. Then do you consider it is necessary to have some means whereby workmen or their dependents who are unaware of their rights, as was presumably the case here, should be enabled to make claims or stimulated to bring claims?—I think these cases are under consideration, but there has been considerable delay in settling them.

B-463. They have applied to the Commissioner?—I fancy they must have, though I have not received a further report.

B-464. In your memorandum you discuss the question of legislation on the subjects of fines and prompt payment of wages. Your conclusion is that "Legislation to assure prompt payment to factory employees is needed". You have not apparently considered the question of how it is to be enforced, which is the crux of the question?—Would the enforcement be more difficult than the enforcement of many of the other provisions in the Factories Act?

B-465. Possibly not; but when you are dealing with fines you state that legislation is not likely to be of much use on account of the illiteracy of the average worker. I do not see how the position is different as to fines and payment of wages in this respect. My point is that if it is possible to legislate effectively in order to assure the prompt payment of wages, it should be equally possible with regard to fines; the difficulties of enforcement are the same?—Yes, there are difficulties. I only mention the fact that if possible there should be some provision for securing more prompt payment of wages, because, as far as I can make out, most of the small strikes that are reported by the Director of Industries are simply due to the fact that wages have been delayed a month or five weeks.

B-466. But I gather the local Government have come to a conclusion favourable to legislation to secure the prompt payment of wages, but unfavourable to legislation in respect of fines?—The local Government have come to no such conclusion.

B-467. Since the introduction of the Reforms have you ever had any labour measure before the Legislative Council?—None to my knowledge, but I have only been in the Council for two years; there has certainly been nothing in that time.

B-468. Does the Board of Economic Enquiry receive a grant or assistance from Government?—It received a consolidated grant; I think it is Rs. 18,000, and it appoints its own investigators.

B-469. *Mr. Joshi*: Is it the policy of your Government not to take any measures with regard to labour questions until communism appears on the scene?—We are not an industrial Province. There was a strike at Dhariwal in the beginning of last year, and there was some labour unrest in the North-Western Railway workshop at the beginning of the year; but with those exceptions during the last two years at any rate happily strikes have been few and far between.

B-470. But did you not have strikes on the railways, and is it not the duty of the local Government to look after the welfare of labour whether

they be the employees of the Central Government or of a private employer?—I think the railways have taken considerable steps this year to do what they can to remedy any grievances railway labourers may have; they have I think started a Labour Bureau and they have special labour officers appointed this year.

B-471. I want to know what the local Government proposes itself to do as a Government, because labour welfare is one of the duties of the Provincial Government. You say there are not many strikes; are you going to wait until strikes become numerous?—We hope there will not be many strikes. This is an agricultural Province, it is not industrial yet and is not likely to be for a long time.

B-472. What is the general attitude of your Government towards trade unions?

*Mr. Sastri:* It is stated in the Government memorandum—"The Punjab Government has no hesitation in admitting that in industries on any considerable scale trade unionism and combinations are indispensable".

B-473. *Mr. Joshi:* Are you acting up to that view?—Trade unions are registered. When they apply for registration any representation they may make, if they wish to make a representation, about any pending matter receives its due measure of attention. But the trade unions in the Punjab are such fluid bodies. They are only in their infancy. The membership changes. They are absorbed.

B-474. Is the policy of your Government such that the work of the trade unions is encouraged, or is it such that the work of the trade unions is discouraged or obstructed?—There is no discouragement or obstruction.

B-475. As regards housing, do you think more and more factories will be erected in the Punjab, or do you think it will remain a wholly agricultural Province?—I think that for many years it will still be an agricultural Province, with the exception of whatever developments may be brought about by hydro-electric power.

B-476. Do you think, even if the number of factories is small, slums may arise if care is not taken about the matter of town-planning?—I do not think it is very likely.

B-477. There are in your Province 725 factories, and at present you have one Factory Inspector. I understand you propose to add one more?—Yes.

B-478. Do you think a staff of two inspectors will be sufficient to deal with 725 factories?—Three-fifths of the factories are seasonal. The present Factory Inspector has also got his own assistant who inspects factories. As far as the welfare of the operatives is concerned, every District Magistrate is himself an inspector; and recently limited powers have been given, in every district, to selected officers to inspect factories with a view to seeing that the hours are not too long, and that women and children are not illegally employed—all the human part of the inspection as distinct from the technical part. So that the Inspector of Factories has really more assistants than would at first sight appear. There is a proposal that he should also have a fully qualified second Factory Inspector with effect from April next year.

B-479. *Lala Harkishan Lal:* Can you give us the difference between the rise in prices and the drop in wages? Do you think that the failure of the crops for the last 3 years is responsible for the all-round rise in prices of imported goods?—I think that has a good deal to do with it.

B-480. The suggestion has been made that with the advent of hydro-electric power there will be an increase in the industrial life of the Punjab. Do you think that the lack of coal supplies in the Punjab is the only cause of lack of industrialism in the Punjab, or is there any other cause which retards that industrialism?—We have got the water, but we have not the coal or the iron which is necessary for any industrial development.

B-481. Can skilled labour for textile work be obtained in the Punjab?—It has to be imported from Ahmedabad.

B-482. All the textile mills have had to import their labour from outside?—That is the case regarding skilled labour.

B-483. Do you know also what difficulties there are with regard to capitalization of industries in the Punjab?—There are great difficulties, because money flows to the acquisition of land instead of being put in industry in the Punjab.

B-484. With the introduction of hydro-electric power, would capital come more easily into the Punjab?—The hope is there.

B-485. Something has been said about slums arising around ginning factories. Are you aware that most of the ginning factories are outside the towns?—They are generally.

B-486. Do you know that generally there is plenty of land attached to ginning factories, even in Multan, Hissar and Ambala, which are all very ancient towns?—It may be so. I have no personal experience.

B-487. Is it not a fact that labour, as such, does not form the portfolio of any member of the Government, and is not a separate subject?—Industrial matters affecting labour are in the portfolio of the Member for Revenue—I mean the settlement of disputes, housing and welfare of labour.

B-488. If there was trouble in the Public Works Department with a contractor, would that be dealt with by the Member for Revenue?—No case has arisen, but I think that would be a matter for consultation between the Member for Agriculture and the Member for Revenue.

B-489. As a matter of fact, labour troubles are very few in the Punjab, and therefore there has been no provision made specifically for dealing with labour?—Very few references come to me in connection with labour apart from questions arising out of the administration of the Factory Act.

B-490. *Mr. Taylor*: In your memorandum under the heading "Education" you bring into prominence the question of child education with particular reference to the children employed in carpet factories in Amritsar. You say "Industrial areas being mainly in municipalities or small towns children not in employment come under the control of the system of compulsory education". Do not children who are employed come under the same system?—It depends upon the rules. There are exemptions. Exemptions can be given, if claimed. I ought to say that this first sentence is rather misleading, because Municipalities have not as yet adopted compulsory primary education as a general rule.

B-491. Does the Amritsar Municipality enforce compulsory education?—They agreed to adopt it two years ago, but whether or not it is in force yet I do not know. I do not think it is.

B-492. I am under the impression that one or two wards have compulsory education?—A beginning must have been made by this time, but how far it is general I cannot say.

B-493. Presumably, if certain wards of the Municipality have compulsory education, the onus for sending the children to school falls on the parent or guardian of the children rather than on the employer?—Yes, in the absence of any rule prescribing the procedure to be adopted for any children employed in any factory within that area.

B-494. You say "No special arrangements exist for the education of children employed in factories". In those wards where education exists it is presumably not necessary for the employers to offer special facilities?—It depends on the scheme. It is possible that children employed in factories would not be able to fit in any education proposed for them within the ordinary curriculum of the municipal schools.

B-495. You go on to say towards the end of your memorandum—"But the factory owners shelter themselves under the opposition of the master weavers to any such restriction of hours." I am under the impression that the Hon'ble the Revenue Member sometime back met a deputation of the master weavers in this respect. I was not present at the meeting. Can you tell me whether this impression was gained by the Hon'ble the Revenue

Member after that meeting?—As far as I remember, there was a tentative agreement arrived at at a meeting held last year that children in the Amritsar factories should not be allowed to enter the factories unless they were nine; that from the age of 9 to 12 they should not do more than five hours' work; and from the age of 10 to 15 should not do more than 8 hours' work with a break in between; and some arrangements should be made, if possible, in the factories for half-time education. It was hoped that some sort of arrangement would be come to to make it unnecessary to provide for special legislation for the children in the Amritsar factories. Then, I think, on the representation of the factory owners at Amritsar it was requested that the Hon'ble the Revenue Member should see a deputation of master weavers. I do not know whether the master weavers are the parents or the contractors, but these master weavers saw the Hon'ble Member for Revenue in September, and they pointed out that they could not afford, at the rate paid to them by the carpet factory owners, to dispense with the employment of children. The fact was reported to the Government of India, and we asked that certain enquiries should be made from the United Provinces. An inquiry was made and the Government of India has said that the whole matter should be left to the advice of the present Royal Commission. That, I think, is the position at present.

B-496. Is it, in the view of the Government, more expedient that the children should receive education in the factories rather than attend the municipal schools which are in close proximity?—Yes, I think the local Government probably holds that the schooling should be part of the wages if possible; that the accommodation and the provision of classes should be, if possible, in the factory.

B-497. You say "the factory owners shelter themselves under the opposition of the master weavers to any such restriction of hours, and the children continue their blind alley occupation." Is it the view of the Government that carpet weaving is more of a blind alley occupation than other weaving industries in the province?—That is not my experience. If I am not mistaken, the Deputy Commissioner reported that at the age of 14 the boys left their occupation and went elsewhere from the factory; he may be right or wrong, but I think I am not misquoting him.

B-498. *Mr. Ghani*: In your memorandum you have given us the prices of foodstuffs. May I know what machinery is provided by the local Government to arrive at those prices—how those prices are ascertained by the Government?—Districts are selected, representative of various parts of the province, towns as well, and the Director of Land Records keeps a record of, I think, current fortnightly prices.

B-499. Who reports these prices to the local Government?—Presumably that maid-of-all-works, the Deputy Commissioner.

B-500. May I know if the Deputy Commissioners of the Punjab themselves visit the various food-markets and ascertain the prices, or do they get those figures from some subordinates, for instance, the *Patwari*?—I may have been remiss; but I have never visited a food-market; I have taken the prices reported to me. The *Tahsildars* have a meeting fortnightly with the shopkeepers and managers and prepare a recognized rate for the locality.

B-501. May I know what is the policy of the local Government as regards the registration and recognition of trade unions of Government employees, in industrial and other concerns?—I do not think that they are registered.

B-502. May I know the reasons why the trade unions of Government servants are not registered while the trade unions of other servants are registered? I do not think I can give the reason.

B-503. *The Chairman*: With whom does the decision lie?—There has been an instruction, I think, from the Government saying that for the present unions of Government servants should not be registered.

B-504. *Mr. Ghani*: As regards the slums in the two biggest cities of the Punjab, namely, Lahore and Amritsar, may I ask you if the local Govern-

ment took any action against any Municipality of these two cities for improving those slums, or doing something to better the conditions in those slums?—That is more a question for the Secretary for Transferred Departments; but I do not know whether you refer to any instructions that may have been given by Government for tightening up municipal rules. I do not deal with municipalities, and I only know that there is some sort of town-planning scheme operative in Lahore, and it is hoped to get a town-planning officer next year. But these matters are not in my province.

B-505. In your memorandum you refer to the Lahore Improvement Trust. May I know if the Improvement Trust has done anything as regards the slums in Lahore where most of the workers live?—Where do most of the workers live is a question I found myself unable to answer when I was trying to prepare this memorandum.

*Mr. Harkishan Lal:* There is no Improvement Trust for Lahore.

*The witness:* There is a body that is consulted in the matter of street alignment and matters of that sort; but "Trust" is probably a misnomer.

B-506. *Colonel Russell:* Dealing with the inspection of factories the Director of Public Health says "his proposal that District Medical Officers of Health should also be appointed Additional Inspectors in respect of their several districts was not approved by the Government." Can you tell me why that was not approved, because these medical officers would seem to be quite useful factory inspectors?—I do not think one wants too many Inspectors or Additional Inspectors of Factories in a district, and the local Government is more concerned to see that the factory rules and the Factory Act with regard to the hours of labour and the employment of women and children should receive, first of all, attention from Government.

B-507. Yes, but generally speaking, I think that the health conditions in factories are not quite satisfactory, and medical officers who are concerned in health work would obviously be more able to judge whether the health conditions laid down in the Act are complied with or not?—They would be able to do so, but the question is whether they would be in a position to make really practical suggestions.

B-508. Surely that depends on the personality of the individual health officer. You will not be surprised to hear that this method is being adopted in other Provinces?—It was decided for the time being that there was no such necessity, and that attention should be concentrated upon the two other matters.

B-509. Is there any Factory Inspector at present who is an expert in connection with health matters?

*Mr. Harkishan Lal:* Mr. Gill.

*The witness:* He is a Factory Inspector.

B-510. *Colonel Russell:* Obviously the Director of Public Health cannot inspect 725 factories; so that would you not admit that it would be better to have a District Health Officer an *ex-officio* Inspector of Factories?—I should not like to say off-hand; I should like to consider that.

B-511. *Divan Chaman Lall:* You mentioned that there are 2,000 schools with 5,000 pupils. Is not that figure incorrect?—There is something wrong there. There are about 20 industrial schools.

B-512. With regard to International Conventions you quote the statement made by the Director of Industries and say that that statement is ambiguous. I personally cannot find anything ambiguous in it. Will you explain it?—It says; "modify them". You must modify the articles, but it does not particularize in what way modification is necessary in view of local conditions, which is the whole point.

B-513. Does the Punjab Government accept the principle of sickness insurance for workers?—The Punjab Government has only said that it is a desirable thing, but there are financial considerations involved, and for the present they have said that they are willing to bear only the cost of administration.



B-514. According to the evidence we have got, out of every five visits paid by the Factory Inspector one has resulted in prosecution, which shows a very serious state of affairs?—Yes.

B-515. You further stated that there have been strikes, but not very many strikes?—I have not heard of any strike in connection with the cotton ginning factory.

B-516. I am not talking of the cotton ginning factory alone, but discussing the general question. You further say that the health of these workers is low. Do you not think under these circumstances that it would be necessary for the Punjab Government to concentrate attention on these matters which affect thousands of workers, by appointing a Labour Ministry?—I do not see the necessity for any Labour Ministry concerned simply with questions of labour alone.

B-517. Health, wages, education of the working classes, etc.?—I should not like to give an answer to that. That would mean a reorganization of the various departments and Ministries of Government; and labour only comes in in a casual fashion in connection with the problem of administration of factories, industrial development and the like.

B-518. Are there large numbers of workers working in small cottage industries in the Punjab?—You mean wood work, metal work, weaving and the like?

B-519. Yes, in such places as Ludhiana, Jullunder and other places?—You could get that from the census report.

B-520. This figure that you give of 50,000 could be multiplied a hundred times over?—This figure is only the factory figure.

B-521. It only refers to factories, so that if we take a broader definition of industrial workers the figure would be very much larger than 50,000?—Yes.

B-522. Probably you will have to multiply that many times?—Yes, very likely.

B-523. Would you admit that there is a large labour force in the Punjab whose welfare it is the business of the Government of the Punjab to look after?—In relation to the agricultural population, no. There are 21 millions in the Punjab.

B-524. Is it a fact that complaints have been made occasionally to the Punjab Government that in the matter of strikes, there has been a great deal of police interference against the interests of the workers?—I am not aware of any such. As I say I remember the strike at Dhariwal.

B-525. I particularly refer to the strike at Dhariwal. Do you remember having received a representation from the workers of Dhariwal that they were molested by the police and not allowed to organize their meetings and were interfered with in various other ways?—There was a representation that was sent to the Deputy Commissioner for enquiry, as far as I remember, about 18 months ago. He reported that there was very little truth in the allegation.

B-526. A question was put to you about the discouragement of trade unionism. Is it a fact that a circular was sent out by the Home Department of the Government of India suggesting to the Punjab Government that they should not register unions of Government employees?—I think so.

B-527. What action was taken by the Punjab Government in regard to that circular?—The formation of unions has not been objected to; in fact in the last few years several unions have been formed.

B-528. My question is about the registration of the unions and not about the formation; because no Government can prevent the formation of unions?—It was noted that registration should not be allowed for the present in accordance with the circular referred to.

B-529. Was any instruction given to the Director of Industries in regard to that?—In writing to the unions concerned it was noted that they should

not be registered. I cannot say off-hand whether the Director has any standing instruction or not as Registrar.

B-530. You would not be averse to the proposition, in view of the low state of the health of the industrial workers, of a separate Ministry of Labour being instituted?—I have never considered that question; I do not see the necessity for it.

B-531. In one part of your memorandum it is stated that there is no serious problem of unemployment; but later on you say that as far as unskilled workers are concerned, "the matter is entirely different, there appears to be a lot of unemployment and the labour turnover is high"?—May I point out that that is a quotation from Mr. Charles who is talking of the conditions prevailing in his workshops in Amritsar?

B-532. Do you agree with that proposition?—I think the labour turnover is high; but perhaps speaking from my own experience, I would be inclined to doubt the truth of the first part of that statement.

B-533. Has any enquiry, apart from the unemployment enquiry which was made into unemployment amongst the educated classes, been made into the question of unemployment of the working classes?—That unemployment enquiry was comprehensive. I do not think it was confined to unemployment amongst the educated classes. It was found that unemployment amongst the educated and literate classes was extreme, whereas it was not the case in the case of illiterate and labouring people. It was a general reference.

B-534. Suppose it is established that there is a great deal of unemployment amongst semi-skilled and unskilled workers, would you be averse to a system of unemployment insurance and the setting up of labour exchanges?—I do not think that the setting up of a labour exchange, as far as I can see, is needed. And the other question is entirely a matter of finance and funds.

B-535. *Mr. Cliff*: Would it be unfair to say that, apart from inspection, the policy of Government is a policy of inaction?—Inspection, and enforcement of such Acts and Rules as may be operative in the Province. The Punjab Government is not very closely concerned with what are called labour questions on account of the nature of the Province.

B-536. You say in your memorandum "Statistics of labour employed on open canals are not maintained". Do I understand that labour employed on canals is employed by the Government?—With the exception of a small staff of gangs for supervision and patrol work, the labour employed on canals is I think largely employed through contractors.

B-537. You have a very interesting paragraph in your memorandum on contractors. You say "The notable personage in India is the contractor". Do the Government of the Punjab pursue that as a policy of the line of least resistance?—It is a system that has been in vogue and is in vogue, and it is I think, for this Province, the best way of getting work done. It often perhaps may be the only way of getting work done.

B-538. What steps do the Government take to ensure protection for the labour engaged on the work which is done for them?—Such works being in the countryside or on the canals?

B-539. I do not mind if you take canals; I do not mind if you take forests; I just want one or more instances of the kind of protection which it is within the power of Government to give; which they commend in other people; which they say is desirable. Where does the Government put that into practice?—I cannot speak of anything specific. There is always a staff which exercises general supervision over the carrying out of any duty or the construction of any work. I suppose that ultimately the responsibility for the welfare of labour engaged on any particular work resides in the amount of supervision which the Government and the local staff can give, and does give.

B-540. That leads me to a word that you have used often in your examination. It is the word "hope". In answer to many questions you have

stated that 'it is hoped', or 'we hope'. Is it unfair to say that the policy of the Government is a policy of hope?—Every policy I think must have some ray of hope in it.

B-541. Looking through your memorandum and seeing the deferred hopes that there are in it, is it to be wondered at that the people may be sick?—Is there sickness at the moment in any violent form.

B-542. That leads me to another question. You seem to indicate in your answers to questions that there is nothing wrong until there is a withdrawal of labour, and there is no need of action until a withdrawal of labour has occurred. Is that the way you judge when people are sick?—If any representations are made by workers in any locality or in any factory that there is a grievance and they desire that Government should look into this grievance in order to settle possible disputes that might lead to trouble, then the Government does make an enquiry. If there are telegrams or representations from factories or from other places, if they seem to be such that an enquiry is needed, then the Director of Industries is asked to go and ascertain the facts with a view to a composition of whatever trouble may be brewing. I do not think it is right to say that Government waits till any dispute has flamed out into rather drastic action.

B-543. I did not say that myself. I rather took it from your own answers to questions that you indicated that there have been few strikes, and that you looked into things when strikes had occurred?—There are both processes. As a matter of fact some strikes are probably composed through the intervention of the Factory Inspector or the Director of Industries.

B-544. I am glad to note the assistance which has been given by Government officials, and the suggestion that they may be able to give further help. May I put it to you in this way. There will be a memorandum of evidence before the Commission to-morrow, in which this significant statement is made: "Illiteracy is even a greater bar than caste", in dealing with labour in India. Assuming that to be true and applying it to your last answer—the opportunity of making representations—may I ask you whether in fact there is an opportunity of making effective representations?—Effective in the results?

B-545. Effective in the sense that they are clearly expressed and may be clearly understood by those who receive them.

The Chairman: Do you refer, Mr. Cliff, to Government employees or private employees?

B-546. Mr. Cliff: I am just following Mr. Wilson in his own answers in regard to opportunities that the people have to make representations to the Factory Inspector in view of the illiteracy which exists?—I think in the matter of stating grievances, both orally and in writing, in spite of their illiteracy they are able to make representations which are intelligible and which can be understood. That is only my opinion.

B-547. With regard to compensation, I want you to return to Sir Victor Sassoon's question. Will you be good enough to state what is the compensation which the worker in the forest who I understand is earning 8 annas a day, would be entitled to?—It depends on the period of disablement.

B-548. What would he be entitled to per month?—There is a schedule under the Workmen's Compensation Act which is applied.

B-549. You have indicated that there is a lack of skilled labour in the Punjab. What has been done in the Punjab either by Government or by employers to train unskilled labour?—I do not think I can in this connection refer to the schools such as that at Moghalpura because I do not think those institutions are for the training of unskilled labour. There are industrial schools, which are of course schools for youths and not for adult labour.

B-550. Can you tell me how many craftsmen have been produced in this Province, either by Government or by employers?—I could not tell you. I may say that in the industrial schools, which are the only schools I can think of corresponding to those to which you seem to be referring, there

are about 4,000 students at the present moment, half of whom are the sons of artisans, metal workers, weavers and blacksmiths. There are these schools growing up which in the course of time we hope will become high schools, and then become institutions for the teaching of mechanical and electrical practice to the sons of artisans. At present we have only about 24 schools, one in each district, though it is hoped to increase very greatly the number of industrial schools with a view to bringing them up to the standard of technical institutes in the course of time, mainly for the sons of artisans and craftsmen.

B-551. Am I to understand that at the moment there are 2,000 pupils being trained as artisans?—About that. There is an Inspector of Industrial Schools.

B-552. *Mr. Ahmed*: Do you regard prompt payment of wages as being beneficial to the labourer?—Yes.

B-553. Are you in favour of payment weekly?—There are difficulties; I only say prompt as far as possible, not necessarily weekly.

B-554. Is the indebtedness of the workers due to wages not being paid promptly?—I do not say that, though if wages are not paid promptly it does tend to put workers into the hands of their food suppliers.

B-555. You have considerable experience of the rural districts?—Yes; I have very little experience of towns.

B-556. In the agricultural areas have co-operative societies materially assisted the cultivators?—Yes, particularly the agricultural tenant class and the peasant proprietor.

B-557. Do you propose to start similar co-operative societies for the poor people in the industrial areas?—There are in the industrial areas co-operative credit societies on the same lines as in the rural areas, but there has not been the same extension in the industrial areas that there has been in rural areas. The pace of progress in the co-operative movement has of late been slowed down simply in order to go safely and not take unnecessary risks. Although urban societies are on the increase, it is not possible to make very rapid progress.

B-558. You are in favour of gradual development?—Yes, with safety, both in the country and in the towns. There is also the Industrial Loans Act; that is for the promotion of industries.

B-559. With regard to the housing problem, are you in favour of quarters being provided for the labourers by Government?—I think Government does in its own factories supply quarters for the subordinate staff to some extent.

B-560. I am not speaking of the clerks and other officials, but the industrial workers?—It depends on the acuteness of the housing problem in the immediate neighbourhood. There may be need for it, but in most cases the need probably does not exist because you have not got so much concentration in towns.

B-561. Do you think it would be advisable to have a separate Department of Labour?—I have not considered that question and could not give any definite answer, but I do not think it is necessary.

B-562. *Sir Alexander Murray*: As regards the question of the advisability of having a separate Labour Department, I notice that according to the 1921 Census, the number of workers employed in organized industries was only 0.25 of the total population?—It might be 0.2 per cent.

B-563. If your figure is correct, do you think such a percentage would justify yet another portfolio being added to the Punjab Government?—I do not think so.

B-564. Is there much unemployment amongst unskilled workers?—Not amongst unskilled workers; I think perhaps there is among semi-skilled workers.

B-565. If that is so, why are so many skilled workers from other Provinces finding their way into the Punjab?—Possibly the local people have not got

that particular skill. I saw a complaint the other day from second and third grade engineers, as they are called, who get certificates from an appointing board here. They complain that their wages are only in the neighbourhood of about Rs. 40 or 50 a month. Whether that is true or not I do not know.

B-566. You mean more or less skilled workers?—Yes.

B-567. The Punjab is what is called one of the immigrant Provinces: on balance, more people come into this Province from other Provinces than go out of this Province?—Yes; they come from the North-West Frontier Province, from the United Provinces and from Rajputana. We require a lot of tenants in the new colonies.

B-568. In the memorandum of the Punjab Government there is the statement: "The pitch of wages paid in the Punjab would appear to be higher than in the United Provinces, for example, and this partly accounts for the influx of labour from Central India." So that labour seems to be attracted from other Provinces?—Yes.

B-569. Then you say in your memorandum "The employer however really dictates his own terms". How can he dictate his own terms if the demand for labour is in excess of the supply?—I do not think the two propositions are incompatible or inconsistent; I mean the employers may dictate their own terms to the ordinary employees, but at the same time the pitch of the wages in the Punjab may be higher than in other Provinces.

B-570. In answer to Lala Harkishan Lal you said that apart from the unemployment question in industrial labour there is scarcity of capital in the Punjab. For instance, the great bulk of the industrial labour in Bengal consists of workers who are imported from outside; in some of the large towns, practically 90 per cent. of the labour employed is imported from other Provinces. So that there is really nothing to stand in the way of industrial development of the Punjab so far as labour is concerned, because, if you follow what has been done in other Provinces in India, the workers would go to the Province where conditions are attractive?—Yes. Capital is extraordinarily shy in the Punjab of going into any sort of industrial enterprise.

B-571. I notice, for instance, in Bengal of which I know most, that the jute, tea and coal industries were started with foreign capital, so to speak. Can you not get somebody with sufficient confidence in the Punjab to put the capital down for industries here?—It is a matter of hope; the Dhariwal Mills, I think, have got a certain amount of foreign capital.

B-572. Mr. Sastri: With regard to the children employed in the carpet industry at Amritsar, the condition of things you describe is to be found in other Provinces as well?—In the United Provinces, in particular.

B-573. In Madras as well. May I ask whether it has come under your observation that parents pledge their children for labour for a space of two or three years? Have you noticed that sort of thing?—No; I have not been in these factories myself and I have never heard of pledging of labour for a period of years.

B-574. I have known cases?—I saw a reference in the correspondence once, not to the master weavers which I take to mean the parents, but to *thekedars*.

B-575. I shall probably repeat that question to the Inspector of Factories. With regard to child labour in these small industries I believe it is one of the most deplorable features of our industrial organisation. It seems to me that it needs very careful attention of Government, and I commend that part to your special notice?—The problem has been or will be specifically referred to this very Commission. There are difficulties, because it is said that on the delicate work the children's fingers can do what adults cannot do so well; and the parents also say that the family will be ruined if the children do not come in and co-operate. The payment is by piece-work. I cannot say whether the children work in a leisurely way. It is a problem

on which the Government of India has sought the advice of this Royal Commission.

B-576. *The Chairman*: In regard to your last remark, do you recognize any international similarity in that argument in favour of the employment of young children? Have you heard it elsewhere than in India?—Yes; at the same time, I believe, in Persia and in Kerman, the problem has been solved and regular restrictions have been put on the labour of children on Persian carpets.

(The witness withdrew.)

**Mr. W. H. AFEL, Inspector of Factories, Punjab, and Dr. R. C. RAWLLEY, Director of Industries, Punjab.**

B-577. *The Chairman:* Mr. Abel, you are the Inspector of Factories here in the Punjab?—Yes; and also for Ajmer-Merwara and the North-West Frontier Province.

B-578. A very large area?—It is indeed.

B-579. And a large industrial population is included in that area?—Exactly; it is a very big area.

B-580. How long have you held that office?—Since 1920.

B-581. I need only put three or four leading questions to you on your memorandum. Dealing with the extent of welfare work, you remark "One of the reasons for this" (that is, that little is being done by the employers except in one or two of the bigger mills) "is that the operatives are frequently changing from one factory to another; as a result neither employer nor worker get to know each other well, and little thought is given for anything beyond the work of the day. There are however one or two exceptions in this respect to be found". I take it from that that you would consider that any means which would achieve greater regularity in the labour force would be of advantage both to the workers themselves, and to the employers?—It would indeed; but the factory population of the Punjab consists mostly of agricultural workers who work in factories during the time when there is no agricultural work to be done, and, as a result, immediately their work in the fields requires their attention, they leave the factory and go up to their fields to work. When they come back, possibly they find that their places have been filled and they go to another factory.

B-582. I am suggesting that if it were found possible to secure a greater regularity of work, the worker returning to the same place and the same job, the worker would attain a greater skill and there would also be a greater opportunity for an understanding between the employees and their employers?—Yes, that is so. I think it would also automatically lead to more welfare work being done by the employer for his worker.

B-583. Therefore the extreme changeability of labour probably is one of the factors which lies in the way of welfare work for the benefit of the workers?—Yes.

B-584. May I draw your attention to your remarks on the Factory Act and its enforcement? I take it you strongly recommend to us that the Act needs strengthening with regard to penalties for repeated offences?—Yes.

B-585. You tell us that an improvement of the Act in that respect would facilitate your work in enforcing on the employers a strict compliance with the Act?—It would very much facilitate our work.

B-586. Then you say that "if it were possible to have a Public Prosecutor attached to this Department such difficulties will be greatly minimized"?—That is so.

B-587. That we will certainly take into consideration. Dealing with the Workmen's Compensation Act, you make some valuable observations with regard to the difficulties of the workers in obtaining that to which they are entitled under the Act. You have not, in this paragraph, made quite the same clear suggestions to us as to how the Act could be improved. But I take it that your point is that there should be some advisor at the service of the worker who has been injured?—That would be extremely useful to the worker. I am not really concerned with workmen's compensation; I merely collect the returns at the end of the year and pass them on to the Director of Industries. But these remarks are formed from the workers who have appealed to me to endeavour to see their claims settled. Actually I have no authority and I take no great interest; I merely advise what they should do and pass them on to the Director of Industries.

B-588. But you do not suggest that in addition to your duties you should occupy the place of an advisor?—No, not at all.

B-589. You again give us a valuable suggestion for our consideration— that sub-section (3) of Section 36 of the Indian Factories Act is defective and leaves a loophole which is taken advantage of by factory occupiers. We would carefully note your suggestion that it should not be possible for a factory occupier to change the working hours without a proper notice of the change being given to you. I think it is the practice in England that the factory inspector must be advised?—The advice already comes to the Factory Inspector; but since it is not necessary to send it until 36 hours after the change has actually taken place, it leaves a very big loophole for factory managers to change their working hours at any time.

*The Chairman:* We understand that, and we will carefully note your suggestion.

B-590. I note your recommendation to us that with regard to workers in carpet factories, especially boys, control is very sadly needed in this behalf?—Yes, it is.

B-591. Am I right in saying that the Government of the Punjab could bring these factories under the law if they chose?—They can do it. As the Act stands at present, it is possible for the local Government to extend the Act to all concerns in which ten persons are employed. That would cover many of these small industrial concerns; but it would not affect the whole of them. The difficulty is this: all of them being situated together, it would be unfair to bring one factory employing ten or eleven persons under the Act and leave out of the Act another factory employing only nine persons.

B-592. Does not this case of carpet factories refer more to ones which stand out of the Act because there is no motive power?—Yes, that is another point.

B-593. In your view which is the more important extension of the Act?—The carpet industry is isolated in practically one district, the Amritsar district, whereas other small factories such as the foundries, which are the principal offenders, and printing presses, are throughout every town; and the extension of the operation of the Act to these factories would affect more operatives than would be affected in the case of the carpet factory workers. I think that both are necessary.

B-594. As far as you know has there been any move on the part of the Punjab Government to use their powers in this respect?—Yes, there has. In the case of the cotton ginning factories the Act has already been extended to factories in which ten persons are employed. The same has been done in the case of ice factories. As far as carpet factories are concerned, they are not under the Act in any way at all, I have not a great deal of concern in them; I know some of them. There have been conferences arranged by the Government for the last three or four years at different times to think out some scheme whereby labour in carpet factories could be controlled. I believe it is before the local Government at the present moment.

B-595. In your memorandum you tell us that Government are considering making rules whereby prospective factory builders must get the plans of their factories approved before the buildings are erected. I take it from that paragraph that Government has power to do that if they please?—That I could not say. I do not think they have the power under the Factories Act. It probably would have to be a special Act, to be put before the Legislative Council.

B-596. Perhaps later on the Director of Industries will be able to tell us whether it is a municipal bye-law or a power under some general Act?—As it stands at present, it is only necessary for a prospective builder of a factory to get his plans passed by the Municipal Engineer of that particular district; but once they have been passed and the factory is put up, I find very little else ever happens to them. Possibly another storey or another wing is added, of which no notice appears to be taken by the Municipality. As a result we have factories collapsing. There is a certain clause in the Factories Act



which allows a factory inspector to prohibit the use of any part of a factory which he considers unsafe and we use that power to a certain extent. But it is very difficult to apply it, as one inspector has to inspect 700 factories and it would be impossible for him to tell whether the beam of a factory roof which is already covered up is safe or unsafe. It would put a great deal of work on the factory inspection staff.

B-597. You think that new factories should be subjected to control both in regard to health and safety?—Yes, before they are actually used as factories.

B-598. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Dr. Rawley, I notice that you are in favour of public employment agencies with a view to offering suitable opportunities of employment to unemployed workers. We have already had your figures as to industrial workers analyzed and we find that if we take away those more or less permanently employed by Government and on the Railways, and if we take away those who look on the work in gins and so on as secondary to their agricultural work and, according to your own memorandum, are working only for two or three months in the year, there is only a matter of 11,478 men, women and children who would have to be looked after by a permanent agency. You say that the problem of unemployment may be regarded as a mystery; you quote Mr. Abel who says that where it does exist it is purely voluntary; and you also quote a committee which says that there is no unemployment worth mentioning among the uneducated classes. In view of the fact that you are dealing with a labour force which is only half as large as my own firm in Bombay has to look after, would you justify an increase in the bureaucracy by the appointment of an employment agency?—In my opinion there is unemployment in the Punjab. I am basing my opinion on one particular fact; that is that during the course of my experience as Director of Industries in the Punjab, there is hardly a day when a man does not turn up in my office, an engineer or a mechanic, who wants a job. We get applications from various classes of people, mechanics, wood workers, turners and fitters wanting jobs.

B-599. But the number of jobs available is under 12,000?—I have stated in my memorandum that these Factory Act reports do not give us the exact number of workers. 51,000 is not the real number of workers. If you calculate the actual number of workers it might even go up to one million. Of course the number employed in the registered factories is known but the number employed in unregistered factories is not known to us. These in my opinion are all industrial workers.

B-600. Are you in a position to know exactly when the factories which are not registered need labour?—If I were to conduct a research I could tell you definitely; but as it is I am giving you my personal observation. You go to any small village and there you find a small flour mill employing three or four men.

B-601. You are giving figures from 50,000 to a million. I take it that this is spread over the whole of your Province which is of the size of England and Scotland?—That is true.

B-602. Therefore you will have to have a number of employment agencies to begin with?—I shall have to start an experiment in Lahore or Amritsar or one of these towns.

B-603. When you go to the big towns the number of work people who are in need of employment would not approach anything like a million?—It may not; but still it will help the people to get jobs.

B-604. You cannot make an employment for the whole population. What is the population of Lahore?—Between three and four lakhs.

B-605. You could not get anything like employment for three to four lakhs of workers out of a population of three to four lakhs of men, women and children. What is the industrial population including those working in unregistered factories?—I must say that the Labour Exchange Bureau

need not confine its applicants only to Lahore town. They might get applications from Amritsar, Ludhiana, Gujrat and Rawalpindi.

B-606. In your experience of the people of the Punjab, if a man is out of employment, is he likely to go to look for employment?—He must go.

B-607. But we have evidence in India that if you want workers you have to send for them, because they will not come of their own accord. You have to send recruiters to their homes. We in Bombay tried as much as possible to employ men directly, but we found that we had to send jobbers to the homes of the people to bring them to the work. Is that not a fact?—I am afraid that is not my experience.

B-608. You disagree with your own statement that the problem of unemployment is a mystery; because in your view there is a large unemployment problem and there is a large number that could be employed?—I have given you the verdict of the Unemployment Enquiry Committee of which I myself was a member. As a matter of fact I did not agree with them on many of the points. I have to say that the problem of unemployment is a mystery.

B-609. I take it that this Province, as you will admit, is essentially agricultural?—Essentially agricultural.

B-610. I take it that generally speaking the inhabitants of the Punjab would prefer agricultural to industrial pursuits?—I am afraid I am unable to say whether or not that is true; it all depends on the wages.

B-611. It would be easier to get a Punjabi to go to a canal colony than it would be to get him to go to a carpet factory, because he has been trained to agricultural pursuits?—My experience is that all the people that I have engaged in the Government factories stick to their jobs, because they get higher wages with us than they would get outside.

B-612. If you have factories working all the year round, do you think that the workers who work now for a part of the year would prefer to leave their agricultural employment and become industrialists all the year round?—They are doing it at present.

B-613. Would they prefer to?—They may not prefer to do it; but they are doing it.

B-614. I take it that the gins work only for part of the year?—Yes.

B-615. You think they would prefer to take industrial employment which continued all the year round rather than go back to their land?—If they can get higher wages, they like to work in the mills.

B-616. All the year round?—Yes.

B-617. They would prefer that to using that as a secondary means of employment?—Quite.

B-618. May I take it that the Punjab has no natural facilities for the development of industries?—The Punjab has more facilities than any other part of India.

B-619. If you have got natural resources, and money can be made out of them, if you have a population that is desirous of working in such industries, I really cannot understand why available capital for the development of industries should have gone to other parts of India and have missed the Punjab. We have all as capitalists been told that in the Punjab, there is not a superfluity of population needing work, and that owing to your canal colonies the surplus population settles down in agriculture. We have always been told that they only like to work as part-time workers, and that therefore if we want to put up a factory here we would have to rely on imported labour?—You have to rely on imported labour in any part of the world when you start a new industry, because local labour is not trained in that direction.

B-620. Surely after a time local labour generally tends to take the place of the imported labour?—That is exactly what is happening in the Punjab

just now, in the case of the textile industry in particular. We started an experiment a year ago and we have been able to train about 30 to 40 weavers. But it is a very small concern. They go into the mill and learn from their fathers and relations. That is exactly what is happening here in the weaving industry. We have old loom weavers. These people are now learning to work power looms; they go to small factories in Jullunder and Ludhiana and our own factory here in Lahore, they learn work on the machines and after they have learnt the job they stick to it.

B-621. I notice in one part of your memorandum you state that husbands do not get employment in the same factories as their wives or fathers as their daughters. Why is that? Generally where you have women and children working they work in family groups?—That is particularly the case in ginning factories, where the men get better wages outside the factory, and the women work inside the factories.

B-622. Do you employ women only in the ginning factories. I have seen men also in the ginning factories?—(Mr. Abel). In the mechanical department and those departments where the duties are arduous.

B-623. Are the men in a minority?—In the Punjab 70 per cent. of the workers in ginning factories are women.

B-624. I notice that in your memorandum you say that a reduction in the maximum hours of work will have a salutary effect on the illiterate worker who regards the wastage of time as a mere matter of routine. This is different from what Mr. Abel says in his memorandum. He points out that in a 10 hour day the average worker does not do more than 8½ hours of work. My experience agrees with that of Mr. Abel. Why should you think that if you reduce the time from 10 to 8½ hours, you would get 8½ actual hours of work, without any waste of time?—My opinion is based on experience in Sholapur. In our mills there, specially in the weaving section, I myself carried out a test. Before the introduction of this new Act we were working 12 hours a day. When we reduced the working hours to 10, I discovered by actual tests on the machine that the worker produced 10 per cent. more than he produced during the 12 hours.

B-625. Do you assume that if you continue to decrease the number of hours per day you would continue to increase the efficiency per hour?—No. What I mean is that when the maximum physical fatigue has been reached the worker cannot produce more by working longer hours.

B-626. I am inclined to agree with you. But here we are told that in a 10 hour day they are giving 8½ hours work. Do you think the worker would prefer to give 8½ hours strenuous work rather than give 8½ hours work spread over a 10 hour day?—I should have split up the 8 hours to 4 hours in the morning and 4 hours in the evening.

B-627. Do you think you would get as much work as you now get in a 10 hour day?—Yes, that is my opinion and it is based on recent experience.

B-628. You have told us of a decrease in hours from 12 to 10, but your point was that in that case the men had reached the fatigue limit. If you now decrease from 10 hours to 8, do you think you would still increase the efficiency per hour?—That is my own opinion.

B-629. Have you known of any case in which hours have been decreased from 10 to 8, and the same amount of work has been done?—I made the experiment myself last month of 9 hours work per day in my own factory here—the Government demonstration factory. In the month of August our production per loom per day was about 9 lbs.

B-630. What material were you using?—Cotton and silk both. Working a 10 hour day we got a 9½ lbs. production per loom per day. When we reduced the hours to 9, when they had to work intensively and look after the looms properly, I got a production of about 10 lbs. It may be due to climatic influences, and also because in August it was very hot here.

B-631. Has that been tried for two years? I am going to try it now.

B-632. You do not really know how it is going to work?—No.

*Sir Victor Sassoon:* Your experience has not been the same as that of others who tried the same experiment.

(The witnesses withdrew.)

The Commission adjourned till to-morrow morning, Friday, 25th October, 10 A.M., the evidence of these two witnesses being adjourned till Saturday, 26th October, 1929.

# PUNJAB

## SIXTH MEETING

LAHORE

Saturday, 26th October, 1929.

PRESENT:

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

The Rt. Hon. V. S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.O.

Sir VICTOR SABSOON, BART.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, O.I.E., I.O.S.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S., (*Medical Assessor*).

Mr. HARKISHAN LAL, Bar.-at-Law.

Mr. W. TAYLOR, Director, East Indian  
Carpet Company, Amritsar.

Dr. KARAM CHAND HITSEHI.

Mr. M. A. GHANI, Bar.-at-Law.

Pandit RAM AVATAR, Vice-President, North-  
Western Railway Union.

Col. O. WALTON, D.S.O., Agent, North-  
Western Railway.

Mr. M. S. GREGORY, M.C.

Miss. SIRAJ-UD-DIN.

Mrs. DAGMAR CURIEL WILSON. } (*Lady Assessors.*)

Mr. S. LALL, I.O.S. } (*Joint Secretaries.*)

Mr. A. DIBDIN.

(*Assistant  
Commissioners.*)

Lt.-Col. C. A. GILL, D.P.H., I.M.S., Director of Public Health, Punjab.

*The Chairman:* There are many things in your memorandum that demand a great deal of our attention and thought, but I think, at the same time, if my colleagues agree, the best way will be to ask our Medical Assessor, Colonel Russell, to open the examination, and then I imagine there may not be many questions to ask.

B-633. *Colonel Russell:* Is the housing condition of the industrial classes of workers in the Punjab satisfactory or not?—You cannot distinguish between the industrial classes and the classes from which they are drawn. The housing conditions, especially amongst the poorer classes of the urban population are not satisfactory.

B-634. Would you consider that a room measuring 8ft. x 12ft. would be fit for two or three people to live together?—No, certainly not.

B-635. What minimum accommodation would you suggest?—It is a question of light and ventilation; if the light and ventilation is satisfactory you can cut down the space. Without considering these factors I would not fix myself down to any actual space.

B-636. Have you got any plans approved by the Sanitary Engineer and the Director of Public Health for housing the workers who are in Government employment?—There are standard plans. As far as I know,

they have not been, in my time, approved by the Director of Public Health, but they may have been approved by my predecessors.

B-637. The argument is frequently used that the houses provided in the industrial areas are as good as, if not better than, those used by the workers in their own villages. Do you approve of this argument? Would you not rather insist that the worker should have a better house when he becomes an industrial worker because the new conditions under which he has to work are inherently different from the normal conditions?—I agree with that. In the villages, although the houses look bad, they are at any rate ventilated owing to the roofs of mud houses being permeable. But if you put that same man into a room with brick walls, back to back houses without ventilation, although the space may be greater than he was accustomed to in his village, he would not be living under such good conditions as he was in his village.

B-638. Do you associate the increase of tuberculosis with urban conditions?—It is particularly associated with urban conditions. In fact, so far as we know, most of the tuberculosis met with in the villages has been contracted in the towns.

B-639. You would be glad, I take it, if all plans for the erection of new factories and accommodation for factory workers were sent to you for scrutiny and approval before erection?—Yes. I have asked that this should, in future, be done.

B-640. *The Chairman*: Have you any power to ask for them?—I have put in a representation that they should be sent to me as it is most important.

B-641. Have you any legal power to demand it?—No.

B-642. *Colonel Russell*: But it would be advisable for other Government Departments interested in labour to send you plans such as these?—Yes, I have asked that they should do it.

B-643. The same argument that was used in connection with the houses of industrial workers is used for sanitary conveniences. Would it not be better to have an improved type or an increased number of sanitary conveniences in the areas occupied by industrial workers?—Yes; there should be a proper lay-out of the area with an adequate number not only of sanitary conveniences but of ablution places and *dhobi ghats*.

B-644. Have you a Director of Town Planning in the Punjab?—A Town Planning Engineer has been sanctioned but he has not yet been appointed.

B-645. But until he is appointed these plans and lay-outs should be referred to the Director of Public Health?—Yes, and after too.

B-646. Is it sufficient for a factory of considerable size to have only a medical officer who visits once or twice a week?—I consider that there ought to be one sanitary inspector attached to larger factories who should report to the Medical Officer of Health who could come once a week or a fortnight as may be necessary.

B-647. It is very necessary to visit as often as possible?—Yes.

B-648. Do you think that in addition to medical work the employers should be asked to initiate welfare schemes, especially where women workers are employed?—I think it would be desirable, if it is possible.

B-649. Is it not a fact that welfare schemes will conduce to the improvement of health and efficiency among workers?—It is calculated almost certainly to do so.

B-650. Would it be possible to get Indians, both men and women, to take up welfare work of the kind indicated by you?—I think that it would be difficult; but I should think, in time, we shall be able to get some.

B-651. Is it not the case in the Punjab that you have already got a Women's Health School which turns out welfare and health visitors who have done successful work?—Yes; we are turning out eight Health Visitors a year at present.

B-652. But could not that be extended to general welfare work in industrial areas?—Yes.

B-653. *Mr. Cliff*: Do you make any distinction between men and women doctors in the matter of welfare work?—For maternity and child welfare work, we want women; for purely public health work, we require men; but the women are so few that I would use them all for welfare work amongst women.

B-654. *Mr. Joshi*: Are women so very rare in the Punjab or in other parts of India?—I cannot speak about other parts of India. It is very difficult to get eight suitable women together to do a health course every year; it is not easy to get suitable candidates at the present time, but we hope to overcome this difficulty gradually. We cannot extend our activities rapidly on account of lack of suitable women.

B-655. *Col. Russell*: Is there any Maternity Benefit Act in the Punjab?—No.

B-656. Is a pregnant women worker given any allowance for a period before and after confinement?—There is no legal enactment. I do not know what individual firms do.

B-657. Do you think that this should be introduced by legislation?—I do not like to express an opinion. I have not carefully considered the matter.

B-658. Do you agree with the Director of Industries, Punjab, who says that female labour is not essential to the industries of the Punjab and the effect of such legislation would be that employers would dispense with female labour?—I should think it would probably have that effect, but of course that is only a guess.

B-659. With regard to the question of sickness insurance, apart from the question of its possibility, I should like to ask you particularly with regard to the occurrence of epidemics, which you say are frequent in the Punjab, and whether you think there will be any difficulty in introducing a scheme for sickness insurance?—The matter requires very careful consideration, because if the whole population is affected, it will be financially impossible to run any scheme. But I have not yet considered the matter. I know that we were unable to introduce a system of notification for infectious diseases because the cost was enormous on account of epidemics. We only proposed to give 8 annas per certificate.

B-660. *Mr. Joshi*: If such a scheme is confined to factories and organised industries, will there be the same difficulty?—I presume it is not intended to apply it to the whole population.

B-661. *The Chairman*: You mean to say that the actuarial basis of such a scheme will be very difficult?—Yes, because other countries do not get such wide-spread and frequent epidemics as we do here.

B-662. *Col. Russell*: Do you agree with the Director of Industries that an average unskilled worker spends about 60 per cent. of his earnings on food alone?—From my experience I can say that it is about that figure.

B-663. Even then he does not get a diet sufficient either in quantity or nutritious in quality?—Assuming that a man gets 12 annas a day, the usual wage at the moment, with 60 per cent. of that amount he can hardly get enough.

B-664. Are there any mal-nutritional diseases in the Punjab?—There is malnutrition, but the so-called deficiency diseases are not very conspicuous. We do not get beri-beri and pellagra scurvy is not very common though we had an epidemic of it recently owing to deficiency of vegetables. Rickets does occur but is not a common disease in the Punjab. We get a fair number of cases of osteomalacia.

B-665. Is that not a deficiency disease, especially among women?—It is not necessarily due to deficiency of diet, because many of these cases of osteomalacia are among women who are in comparatively affluent circumstances.

B-666. You do not get osteomalacia among women of the industrial classes?—I am not in a position to say.

B-667. Is there a sufficient milk supply in the urban areas in the Punjab?—No, it is very deficient.

B-668. Do you agree that milk is an essential part of a vegetarian's diet?—Yes. The price of milk is high, and the ordinary labourer would be very much better off dietetically if he could afford to purchase it.

B-669. You say that an ordinary industrial worker is not able to purchase milk, sugar and ghee, which are essential for a suitable diet. Therefore to that extent his diet must be deficient?—Yes; his diet is undoubtedly deficient. He cannot afford to purchase these things out of his low wages.

B-670. What about vegetable ghee which I understand is imported into the Punjab in large quantities?—I am in favour of importing and selling this ghee in the Punjab, because it forms a very valuable addition to the fat supply of the Province. The trouble is that at present it is sold at the same price as the ordinary ghee. The ordinary ghee contains vitamins which are destroyed in cooking; if the vegetable ghee is used for cooking purposes, it will save much the natural ghee with its large vitamin content for eating purposes. So that I am in favour of the use of the vegetable ghee provided it is not sold at the same price as the animal product.

B-671. *The Chairman*: Have you no Foods and Drugs Act to prevent that imposition?—Yes. We have the Punjab Adulteration of Foods Act which is about to be revised, we hope that a better law termed The Punjab Pure Food Bill will be passed by the Legislative Council shortly. Under this Act it will be possible to deal with this question of artificial ghee.

B-672. *Col. Russell*: In your note you have given details of the number of calories that an ordinary working man gets for the amount he spends on diet. You have stated that he spends five annas a day. But in the examination of the diet of a worker in one of the railway workshops we found that he spends Re. 0-5-11 for his morning meal and Re. 0-4-2 for his evening meal; that is for him alone and not for his wife and children, while his pay is Rs. 26 a month?—Then he is spending a great deal. I worked out the case of a man who was earning As. 12 a day. I asked him what diet he was taking and worked out the number of calories he was getting for his money.

B-673. There is still another case of a man who spends Re. 0-7-2 for his morning meal and Re. 0-9-2 for his evening meal?—That is high for people on small wages.

B-674. Will you then take the jail diet as a reasonable standard?—Yes, that would be a reasonable standard.

B-675. That costs without vegetables As. 2?—It is not a fair comparable figure. The jail diet costs As. 2-25. It is a very good diet, but you cannot compare it with the cost of the labourers diet, because the jails buy in bulk and at the cheapest rate of the market. Many things such as vegetables are got for nothing in the jails. The labourer has to buy his food-stuff in the retail bazaar every day or for two or three days at a time.

B-676. Your conclusion is that a man earning Rs. 16-8-0 per mensem has just sufficient to live on and no more?—Yes, in Lahore.

B-677. He has not enough to support a wife and children?—No, that is the general complaint. He can manage to live on that, but he cannot have his family with him.

B-678. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Does that include rent and other expenses?—Yes. His diet costs him Rs. 9-8-0 approximately and with the balance he can pay his rent and meet other expenses. He cannot keep a home and maintain his wife and children. They have to leave their families in the village. Of course Lahore is a little more costly than the rest of the Punjab.

B-679. *Col. Russell*: It is obvious that accurate figures are essential if there is any question of a minimum wage being fixed?—Yes.



B-680. And accurate figures are difficult to get?—Yes, they are very difficult to get.

B-681. You would not be prepared to accept the figures that I have referred to as typical of the workers' diet?—They are rather high for men drawing Rs. 26 a month.

B-682. Are there any statistics of value regarding the causes of absenteeism and sickness among industrial workers?—No, unfortunately we have not any.

B-683. Do you think it would be a good plan to collect these statistics and information relating to fatigue and rest periods necessary through an organisation such as an Industrial Health Research Board?—I think a time will come when we must have something like that. We have not got to that stage yet; but certainly we must begin to do something about it at an early date.

B-684. How would you staff such an organisation?—At first we may have to have men trained in England.

B-685. You would send selected Indians to be trained in England?—Yes, as we have got nothing to go on here.

B-686. It has been the experience in England that shorter hours, within limits, and properly spaced rest periods, promote the efficiency of the workers and increase the output. Are there any reasons why that should not occur in India?—I should think that it is almost bound to follow that if you make conditions better for the worker, you will get some return in the way of greater output.

B-687. In your memorandum you refer to the carrying out of sanitary duties by local bodies. Have these local bodies shown much desire to work out their own salvation sanitarily?—I am afraid they have shown none, or very little.

B-688. Then you go on to say: "In short, in the absence of a public health policy, each individual has acted in the manner which appeared to him to be right." I take it this is evidence of the lack of co-ordination that you complain of?—Yes. The position is that things have changed very much, and at the present time administrative arrangements are not co-ordinated or adapted to this change.

B-689. Would you approve of a Ministry of Health for the purposes of co-ordination?—I think the time has come when we ought to have a miniature Ministry of Health, in which all problems affecting labour and health generally should be examined and dealt with.

B-690. To assist you in working a Ministry of Health, you would require a fairly wide Public Health Act. Have you any such thing now?—We have a very good Municipal Act, only it does not function.

B-691. Would you prefer a consolidated Public Health Act?—There is no immediate necessity for it, but in course of time we should have one.

B-692. You say that the welfare of the poorer classes should be a matter for the Ministry of Health. Do you want this to be dealt with by this Ministry or another?—By this Ministry.

B-693. Have you been able to get sanction for a sufficient number of medical officers of health?—Yes, we have sufficient for our needs at present.

B-694. You say that the Government refused to accept your proposal that district medical officers of health should be appointed additional inspectors of factories. Do you not think that that was a mistake? Let me put it in this way. A medical officer of health being a trained officer in public health work would be able to detect, point out and report on health conditions in factories far better than a Factory Inspector would?—Yes. We have medical officers of health in every district; and obviously if there is to be any inspection carried out in a systematic manner it must be done by the man on the spot. Assistant Directors and myself have only time to inspect factories occasionally, usually for some special reason.

B-695. Factory inspection is mainly to increase the health, safety and comfort of the workers in that factory. A medical officer of health would be the best person to do that work?—I proposed that he should do it; and possibly it will be done: up to the present time it has not been done.

B-696. You feel that it is not the function of the Director of Public Health to be constantly acting as a detective in regard to public health matters which are being wholly or partially dealt with by other Departments?—What we want is that these matters should be automatically referred to the Director of Public Health, instead of his having to find them out himself.

B-697. In railway systems would you be willing to leave it entirely to the Railway medical and sanitary staff?—Yes, I think so.

B-698. Their organization is satisfactory?—They are getting a complete medical and public health organization. Things have greatly improved from what they were two or three years ago. Before that they had no whole-time Chief Medical Officer of their own, and no public health expert on their staff.

B-699. In your memorandum you mention an Urban Sanitary Board and a Rural Sanitary Board. If you have two Boards already, why do you want to create another Board, a Board of Public Health?—I want to amalgamate these two Boards, so as to have one Board for all purposes. I would have one Board of Public Health, and this would be done by amalgamating the two existing boards which are doing more or less similar work and whose work often overlaps. I have made this suggestion to Government and it may or may not be acted upon.

B-700. You stated to the Chairman that you had an Adulteration of Food and Drugs Act. Is it a dead letter?—I am afraid it is, it is very difficult to work, and this is the reason we are bringing in a Bill called "The Pure Food Bill."

B-701. You sent in a report on health conditions in the Khewra Salt Mines in 1922. Has any action been taken on that report?—I understand not; but I have not made an inspection there. The Salt Mines of course have nothing to do with the Punjab Government. The Salt Mines are under the Government of India, and the enquiry, a copy of the report of which has been supplied to you, was made at the instance of the Government of India. It was sent to them for action. I have no official knowledge about what action was taken but I understand that nothing has been done.

B-702. What was the anæmia, that you observed, due to?—I thought at the time it was due mostly to defective food, to malnutrition and lack of vegetables in particular.

B-703. Would you lay equal stress on the fact that the miners are working underground?—Yes, that has to be taken into account.

B-704. Is it of equal or less importance than lack of vegetables?—I should say that the fact that they are working underground, and doing very hard work, would necessitate a better diet.

B-705. I noticed when I was there that boys of 8, 9 and 10 years of age obviously suffered from the same degree of anæmia as the adults. They could not have got their anæmia from working in the mines, because they were under-age?—But they all go into the mines.

B-706. But they do not work in the mines?—They have to take the food for the miners.

B-707. But children of 7, 8 or 9 years of age do not stay in the mines for any period?—I should not be surprised if they did.

B-708. Mrs. Wilson: With regard to the nutritional value of artificial ghee, is it not the fact that in villages now it is the custom to mix artificial ghee with the real ghee and sell it as ghee?—Yes. If it is really mixed, it does not matter because 0.004 mg. of any vitamin is all you require; so that a little ghee will go a long way.

B-709. In 1923, when I was working under your predecessor, a recommendation was made by him to Khewra that they should employ a woman.

health visitor. Have you had any correspondence on the subject?—No, I have never heard of it.

B-710. The health of women of the criminal tribes compares very unfavourably with that of women in hospitals; is the health of the men of the criminal tribes also bad and is there need of further care of criminal tribes?—Yes; the health of the men is also bad. The Commission will visit the criminal tribe settlement at Amritsar.

B-711. Is there sufficient provision for privacy for women in the houses in which the factory workers live?—I have not any information on that point.

B-712. Do the medical students here ever visit the health school in order to learn the value of maternity and child welfare?—Not that I am aware of.

B-713. The Association of Medical Women in India have made representations to your Department that maternity and child welfare should be more stressed in the education of medical students in the Medical College here. Have you taken any steps in that direction?—They have not made any representation to me.

B-714. Would you advocate that?—Yes, I think it is most important.

B-715. For that purpose is not it necessary that the examining body should put questions on those subjects?—I think the teaching of hygiene is of very great importance, and, like many other things, requires looking into and keeping up-to-date.

B-716. You have stated that to help the women from a health point of view, especially in factories in the Punjab, a health visitor is very desirable?—Yes, it would be a very excellent thing. At the Mandi hydro-electric works we have a welfare worker who is a qualified midwife and looks after the health of the women.

B-717. It is the opinion among certain Indians here that there would be more Indian women available for training as health visitors. I gather it is proposed to set up a new health school?—It is sanctioned, but owing to the recent floods it will probably be postponed for another year. The plans and estimates are ready and the scheme should have been included in the next budget.

B-718. In view of the temptations that might be put on a health visitor employed in a factory by the private staff, would you advocate the provincialisation of the health visiting service?—I do not know whether provincialisation is going to get over that difficulty, because it will still remain; it is a very great difficulty. Whether an individual is a Government servant or not will not affect the temptations put in her way.

B-719. If they do not get women on the local committees there is not much chance of good work being done?—I have represented the necessity of amending the Punjab Municipal Act to enable women members to serve on Municipal Committees.

B-720. *Mr. Joshi*: You state in your memorandum that the contractor often runs the *bania's* shop in the labour camp?—Yes.

B-721. Does it often happen in that case that the worker receives his wages not in cash but in the form of goods?—I think that is so, but I am not certain. I think it is very probable that is so, and it is very probable that he does not get his due.

B-722. He does not get all his wages in cash; he gets some in the form of goods?—Yes.

B-723. *Dr. Hiteshi*: You have told us that the great cause of anaemia among labourers and their children is malnutrition. Is it largely due also to the abuse of quinine?—I have not seen it in the course of 26 years.

B-724. Medical practitioners sometimes give a dose of as much as 60 grains of quinine at one time; do you approve of that?—That is rather a stiff dose; I have never known of it being given.

B-725. Your report shows that infantile mortality is very high; do you think vaccination is one of the causes?—No; if it had not been for vaccination the infantile mortality would have been much higher.

B-726. *Diwan Chaman Lall* : Should I be correct in saying that a manual worker requires at least two full meals a day to keep himself fit for the work on which he is engaged, and would you include in a meal meat, milk, wheat and vegetable?—I should think there are very few manual workers in India who get a diet of that kind. A good many do not take meat and get most of their protein from one of the staple food grains; they do not take it in the form of meat.

B-727. Is that because they cannot afford it?—Yes, sometimes, of course. Many have never taken meat.

B-728. But the Punjab is more or less a meat-eating province; meat is eaten by every Mahommedan and by many Hindus?—Yes, but a great many of the labouring classes do not eat meat at all.

B-729. If a man gets a meal of meat, bread, milk and vegetable, would that be a good meal for him?—It would not be bad, but it is entirely different from the diet to which these people have always been accustomed, and I do not know whether they would like it if they were put on to it.

B-730. They do eat bread and vegetables and drink milk; the only difference is that they do not eat meat, you say?—They are getting plenty of protein, but they are taking it in a vegetable form.

B-731. Supposing a worker could afford to get a good meal like that, would it be good for him?—If they could get milk or *ghee* in addition to the diet they are taking, they would not be doing at all badly; but the average diet of the low paid labourer is deficient in fats and carbohydrates. I think the diet is not unsuited to the country, but at present it is on the short side for many of the poorer classes.

B-732. Supposing on the average a worker were given 1 seer of milk a day, and he ate his *dal* and his *roti*, and a sufficient amount of *ghee* or butter, as the case may be, would not that cost much more than 8 annas a day, because 1 seer of milk alone would cost him 5 annas?—It would be a very difficult thing to supply the milk; the shortage of milk is very great. It would be very difficult and very costly to do it.

B-733. *Sir Alexander Murray* : I take it that the incidence of tubercular diseases to which you refer is the same in all large towns and cities whether industrial or not?—Yes; I have no means of separating industrial and non-industrial urban conditions; generally speaking, it is high in the towns, but it is not particularly associated with industrialism.

B-734. In reply to Colonel Russell you referred to epidemics in connection with the possibility of sickness insurance. For instance, within the last year or two there have been epidemics of cholera which have caused the death of over 100,000 people. Is this not so?—No; we had an epidemic of cholera which caused 12,000 deaths, but we had an epidemic of plague in 1924 which caused 250,000 deaths. In 1928 cholera caused about 7,000 deaths.

B-735. Malaria, of course, is very prevalent?—We get big epidemics of malaria. We are having a big epidemic now, but it is not in this part of the Province.

B-736. You sum it up by saying: "India is the great breeding ground of disease and the source of the world-wide spread of infection"?—It is to a large extent, especially in connection with cholera and plague.

B-737. That being so, would you agree that it would be very difficult to introduce any system of sickness insurance?—It would be costly and difficult on account of these epidemics.

B-738. *Mr. Ghani* : Have you appointed, particularly for the industrial areas, any sanitary inspectors or health visitors? Can you point out to me some industrial areas?—There are industrial areas within the municipal limits, but they are under the municipality; they have a municipal staff to deal with them.

B-739. As Director of Public Health, are you aware that the sanitary inspectors and health visitors generally visit only the houses and places where people live?—I have no information about that, but I hope that they inspect both.

B-740. I suppose you will agree that there are some very dirty slums in the big cities of the Punjab?—Yes.

B-741. What suggestions have you to make to put an end to these slums?—One suggestion that I have put up is that an executive officer should be placed in charge of every large municipal town, so that the Municipal Committee under whose charge public health comes will function more efficiently. At the present moment they are doing little or nothing; it is also necessary to provincialize the service of municipal medical officers of health. Until these things are done, I am afraid progress will be slow.

B-742. *The Chairman*: We have heard that in the main the people of this Province are rather above the general in India in the matter of physique?—Yes, I think that is admitted.

B-743. Therefore, when you speak to us of the deficiency of their diet in respect of milk and ghee, you of course want them to be still better than any other part of India?—I have shown in my memorandum on diet of which I will have a copy sent to you that the conditions of which I am speaking do not refer to the whole population. The rural population are very much better off than the urban; they have their own cows and food, fresh air and natural sanitation; so that the persons to which I have been referring are rather the poorer classes living in urban areas which embrace most of the industrial workers, I am not speaking of the whole Province.

B-744. That is to say, it is the same problem as we have in the crowded cities in England: there is a deficiency of milk and butter and things that are of the highest food value?—Yes.

B-745. And the problem is that those things are at present too expensive.

B-746. *Mr. Clif*: Does that mean that it is a question of poverty.

B-747. *The Chairman*: That is what I am leading up to, it is a question of lack of means and also lack of supply; the supply is limited and very expensive?—Yes, it is those two things put together.

B-748. Do you consider that in the urban areas there is a deterioration of physique due to the causes you have mentioned?—I have not any statistical data to go on, but I should say that in my opinion the physique of the worker deteriorates as a result of prolonged residence in towns.

(The witness withdrew.)

**Mr. R. J. S. DODD, Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Punjab.**

B-749. *The Chairman*: You are Registrar of Co-operative Societies for this Province?—Yes.

B-750. Your work, in the main, is with Co-operative Societies in the villages?—That is where most of the societies are.

B-751. We are specially interested in the possibilities of co-operative societies in the industrial areas. Have you any experience with regard to them?—With one or two exceptions we have no co-operative societies among employees of a definite factory; but I cannot say whether any of the labourers employed in a factory in a town are members of a society elsewhere—in their home village for instance.

B-752. In your memorandum you speak of two co-operative printing presses?—The members of the society run the press for themselves.

B-753. That is different from a co-operative society in the general sense in which the phrase is used. The village co-operative societies are in the main credit societies?—Most of them.

B-754. A few are supply societies?—Very few.

B-755. With regard to your co-operative societies in the villages, have they made considerable progress in the last ten years?—Yes, both in number and wealth.

B-756. Then can you explain why, when people come to work in industrial areas, they should not accept and welcome the same co-operative system in the period of their urban life?—A co-operative society is really a business, and for it you need some stability among the shareholders; and if the people are working in a factory for a few weeks or months and then go away again, and there is no guarantee that they are going to return to the same factory, there is no chance whatever of being able to run a successful business amongst them. Another thing is that most labourers are either indebted or would like to be, and it is easier generally to be indebted to the local shop keeper than it is to be indebted to a properly run credit society; and the principle of a supply society is that all dealings are for cash. In England several co-operative societies have been ruined because they began to deal on credit. The same thing happens out here, but much more so.

B-757. Would you agree, then, that if the labour in the factories was regularized, and the same persons came back to the same work, although they might have their intervals in their village, that would give a better basis?—It would give a start. The mills at Dhariwal have a very successful society which does both supply and credit.

B-758. Is the reason of that because their labour is more regular?—They live there all the year round, and the management of the mills takes a very large part in the management of the society.

B-759. May I take it that one necessary factor for a co-operative society within a factory would be that there should be some personal help provided by the management?—Not necessarily. The essential is that there should be somebody to manage the society properly. It need not be the management. If the same labour were constantly employed there would be no reason why an intelligent labourer should not run it.

B-760. You have only this one instance to which to direct our attention of successful industrial co-operation in a factory in the Punjab?—Yes.

B-761. You can point to nothing of the kind in Lahore?—No. The Rail way workshops at Mogulpura have a large society. The North-western Credit Society is open to the clerical staff also.

B-762. Does that come under your supervision?—It does ultimately.

B-763. Is that successful?—Very successful.

B-764. Do you see any reason why that should not be extended to larger classes of workers?—There is no reason except the character of the workers with whom one would have to deal.

B-765. Do you find the workers in the towns, as well as in the villages, slowly beginning to learn that they can become free men if they have the wisdom?—No.

B-766. The custom is so ingrained?—Our field staff know the conditions of the workers in the factories, and it is taken for granted in some cases that it would be useless and dangerous to try to start a society among them in their present condition.

B-767. You tell us that in the villages, where the people know one another and live with one another, you do get the basis on which real co-operative societies can be run?—Very much so.

B-768. That, I take it, is because they would know normally when a member was abusing his right, and would know when their own credit was being harmed by the misconduct of any of their fellows?—That is what we hope, and in many cases we get that. We do not get it always.

B-769. *Mr. Cliff*: It is a question of ability and integrity. Is that how you sum it up?—Yes.

B-770. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Are you aware that the co-operative credit society run for the employees of the North-Western Railway is going on very satisfactorily?—Yes.

B-771. Also the credit co-operative society run by the Telegraph employees?—Yes.

B-772. Wherever the workers organize themselves they can run these societies successfully?—There is no inherent reason why they should not.

B-773. Provided assistance is given by the authorities?—There is no essential need of assistance from any authorities at all, so long as the people who associate themselves into a society are of the right sort.

B-774. *Mr. Chow*: We have been told by the Railway administration that under statute they recover debts from the pay bills up to half of a man's salary. It has been suggested to us that this power of recovery through the pay bill should be restricted or abolished. What would be the effect on general indebtedness of that?—I do not think I can answer that. I think it would very much retard the recovery of debts.

B-775. Would it be likely to diminish indebtedness?—Not a bit.

B-776. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: We have been told that the Railways cannot see their way to extend the co-operative society to the illiterate employees. In the rural districts I take it there must be a great deal of illiteracy?—The very small minority is literate.

B-777. The illiteracy of the rural workers does not prevent the co-operative society being successful?—No.

B-778. So that the point of illiteracy ought not to weigh with the Railway people?—I would not say generally yes or no. The villager is a different sort of man from the factory worker.

B-779. In other words the railway illiterate staff is more fluid, whereas the villager remains in the village?—Yes.

B-780. *Mr. Gregory*: Is it not a fact that the North-Western Railway administration assists in carrying out the duties of the co-operative society?—I cannot say. I have not seen the society myself.

B-781. Is it not a fact that the Secretary is an officer of the Railway?—They are all employees of the Railway.

B-782. Would it be possible to run the society without the assistance of the administration?—It may not be, of course; in the same way as a factory society.

B-783. *Mr. Gauri*: Co-operative societies exist among the agricultural classes in rural areas. The success of these societies is mainly due to the help given by your Department, and to the propaganda which has been carried on by your Department. Is not that so?—I think so, yes.

B-784. Can you not carry on the same propagauda among the industrial workers so as to make industrial co-operative societies a success?—It depends entirely on the character of the people who are going to be the members.

B-785. Do you know that most of the industrial workers of the Punjab are drawn from the agricultural classes?—Yes, but an agriculturist employed in a factory is a very different person from an agriculturist working in his own village.

B-786. In what respect is he different?—Because he is not living at home.

B-787. From the co-operative point of view, what difference is there between an industrial worker and an agricultural worker when both belong to the same class?—The circumstances.

B-788. *Mrs. Wilson*: In view of the success of the one woman whom you have had attached to your Department, and in view of the fact that the women, for instance, in the cotton ginning, are drawn from villages, would it not be well for your Department to have at least an additional woman worker to work in the villages?—Already we have six sub-inspectresses, as well as an inspectress. They have been working for a few months each, and we have one in each of the central districts. In the middle of this last summer Government sanctioned the entertainment of a second inspectress, but we have not been able to entertain her at the moment because of the floods. I hope to get her next year.

(The witness withdrew.)



**Mr. W. H. ABEL, Inspector of Factories, Punjab, and Dr. R. C. RAWLLEY, Director of Industries, Punjab.**

B-789. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: You say in one part of your memorandum that there is more unemployment among unskilled workers than skilled workers, while at the same time in another part of the memorandum you say that generally there is no enough unskilled labour available when required. Can you tell us how you would correlate these two rather what might appear to be opposing points of view?—(Mr. Abel) The rural labourer does not care very much whether he works or not for any length of time; he will work for a week or two and then possibly rest for a few days. There always appears to be a surplus, or it appears to be very easy to get unskilled labourers.

B-790. May I take it that your unskilled labourer is not unemployed at the moment when he is called upon by the industrial organization; he is attending to his rural pursuit and leaves it and goes over to the industrial organization when there is a demand?—Yes; when he has no other land work to do, or when there happens to be work to be done in a factory. He can afford to leave the land for a few days or a week, almost at any time; he always has that to fall back upon when there is no work in the factory or when he has to do work on the land.

B-791. He is not really unemployed; he is merely changing his employment?—It would be nearer that, although he would have very little to do on the land.

B-792. There is no difficulty, you say, in getting unskilled labour when you want it?—I have never come across any instance where it was difficult to get unskilled labour.

B-793. So there is no necessity for an employment agency to be established?—For the unskilled labourer I should think not.

B-794. I take it there is difficulty in finding skilled labourers?—There is a great difficulty.

B-795. At the same time we are told that there is a superfluous pool of skilled labourers due to a reduction in the staff of the railways?—That is true. The railway workshops have reduced their labourers during the last two or three years; but the skilled worker in factories in the Punjab is mostly imported chiefly because he is expected to be a whole-time worker. The Punjabi has some interest in land; and whether he is getting more wages or not in a factory, when there is some work to be done on his land, he goes on to do it.

B-796. Would that apply to the skilled worker who has been axed from the railway workshops?—The skilled labourer who has been dispensed with from the railway workshops is generally an engineer or a mechanic.

B-797. The point really is that you have not enough engineering enterprises here to absorb the skilled workers?—That is difficult to say.

B-798. Would you say that there is a demand, which is satisfied by importing skilled labour from outside and which, if you had an employment agency could be met by the men who have left the workshops?—The man who has left the workshop is generally an imported man in the first place, who has settled down in the Punjab and probably has very little interest in land; whereas almost all other workers in the Punjab have an interest in land.

B-799. I appreciate that. What I am trying to get at is whether employment agencies would be of any use in securing jobs for the skilled workers?—I should say that there is a room for an employment agency to some extent for disposing of skilled workers, but not to a very great extent.

B-800. *Messrs. Harkishan Lal and Sons* in their evidence say that there are one or two unemployment agencies in the Punjab. Do you know anything about them?—No.

B-801. I find that you advocate extension of the Factories Act to places where more than ten workers are employed and use power. Will it not be

practicable to extend the Act even to places where you have a large body of labourers working although no power is made use of?—To avoid the Factories Act, they will work in smaller numbers.

B-802. Your objection to bringing them under the Act is that they would get round it?—Yes.

B-803. I have always understood that the difficulties in extending the Factories Act to smaller factories, which employ less than 20 men, were due to administrative difficulties and cost?—That is true to a very great extent.

B-804. But you are suggesting an extension?—I think it would be advisable.

B-805. Can you give us some constructive advice as to how these administrative difficulties could be got over? Would the cost not be too excessive?—It is much more difficult to administer the Factory Law to smaller factories such as would come within the purview of the Act than it is to the bigger ones, so that your administrative difficulties would be much greater and the cost would be considerably heavier. For instance, it is very much more difficult to apply the Factories Act to small bazaar workshops than a big mill.

B-806. Do you still maintain that the Factories Act should be extended?—It certainly should; it will take very much more staff than we have at present to do it.

B-807. Can you efficiently control these small mills or workshops?—Not very efficiently.

B-808. Would you, therefore, say that the success would be commensurate with the extra cost?—We would get some success; it is going in the right direction, I think.

B-809. You think that the extra cost would be justifiable?—Yes, I do.

B-810. What limit would you put to the number?—Up to 10; we are gradually doing that; we have done it in the case of cotton ginning and ice factories.

B-811. Would the cost of the department increase by double or treble?—I do not think it will be double; it would probably be 30 to 40 per cent. more.

B-812. Your recommendation is to lower the figure from 20 to 10?—I think that would be a good thing.

B-813. Would you include those factories which do not use power, or would you let them remain as they are?—If you apply it where there is no power, you would increase the cost a good deal more. I fear that the Act would be defeated even in that way. For instance, take wool picking industries where power is not used. If you apply any regulation to that particular yard or area, the occupier to overcome the difficulties of the Factory Law will split the workers into groups of 5 or 6 persons.

B-814. But would not the workers be worse off by working in smaller groups?—It would not make very much difference to them; it certainly would not help them.

B-815. You do not therefore advocate bringing in no-power concerns under the Act?—No. It will no doubt be an ideal state of affairs but it will be difficult to administer; I would not advocate it at this moment.

B-816. You say, Dr. Rawley, in your memorandum: "It will be noticed that wages of ordinary skilled labourers rose gradually between the quinquenniums ending 1917 and 1922 as compared with the quinquennium ending 1912 but a fall was registered at the wages census for the quinquennium ending 1927." You then go on to say: "The fall in the wages of other industrial labourers is undoubtedly due to the fall in the cost of living since the last wages census." I think you refer to the census of 1927?—(Dr. Rawley) Yes, that is true.

B-817. I cannot reconcile this statement of yours that there has been a fall in the cost of living with the statement made by the Punjab Government in

their memorandum that the prices of foodstuffs have gone up since the last wages census. You also give us the percentage of increase or decrease in the wages of certain classes of labourers in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan in 1927 as compared with 1922. Let us take cotton weavers. Are they handloom weavers or do they use power?—Most of them are handloom weavers. There is not much power loom industry.

B-818. Are all those brass, copper and metal workers, and so on, working in their homes and not in factories?—Yes.

B-819. Am I right in drawing the conclusion that the wages of workers in factories have been rising whereas the wages of those who are not working in factories have remained stationary, and have, if anything, gone down?—The figures given in my memorandum are taken from the Director of Land Records.

B-820. In your memorandum you say that the efficiency of the Indian worker has increased very steadily during recent years. Do you apply that to all over India, skilled as well as unskilled labour?—I am mainly talking of the efficiency of skilled factory labour.

B-821. In your memorandum you say that "it is almost impossible in the absence of any recorded observations to give an estimate of the comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers". Surely, the question of efficiency is a quantitative one, and the other points you raise are merely reasons why the efficiency in one country might not be up to that of another?—Strictly speaking it is not merely quantitative, but it is also qualitative. When you are talking of the efficiency of two individuals, you have to take the circumstances and conditions under which they both work. For instance, take the power loom weaving industry. You can say that the efficiency of the Indian worker as compared with that of a Lancashire worker is not so very low as compared with other industries.

B-822. You probably refer to 2½ Indian weavers being equal to one Lancashire weaver, against 4 to 1 in other trades?—It all depends on the machinery too.

B-823. I am taking the same machinery. Dealing with working hours and its relation to output, and taking the case of the spinning industry, do you consider that a reduction in the number of hours will affect the output?—That is what I maintain, that during the last two hours of the day the weaver cannot attend to the breakages to the same extent as he can in the earlier hours.

B-824. Have you any evidence, or is that your opinion?—I have evidence.

B-825. Have you figures to show the output for a nine hour day and the output for a ten hour day?—In an 11 hour day the output per spindle per day on 20's counts was six ounces. For a ten hour day the output was exactly the same.

B-826. May that not be due to the inefficiency of the worker in the first case?—The men with whom I tried this experiment had been trained for the last thirty years.

B-827. To-day in Bombay we are getting over six ounces of 20's per spindle per day, working two sides with one man?—That is due to the fact that during the last four years you have bought better machinery.

B-828. No, we have not. It is chiefly due to careful mixings. But let us assume better machinery. Supposing I stop one hour, do you say I am going to get the same production?—In weaving you will.

B-829. You say in your memorandum that it is necessary that statistical data should be collected regarding the various matters affecting labour. What would be the approximate cost of an organization for that purpose?—So far as the Punjab is concerned, it would cost anything between Rs. 1,500 and 2,000 a month extra.

B-830. Mr. Clow: Do the cotton ginning factories enjoy any exemption in respect of hours?—(Mr. Abel) Not at present. Exemptions have been granted

during abnormally good seasons. The last exemption was given about two years ago. Last year no exemption was given.

B-831. Will you explain a little fuller the working of the pooling system in these factories?—The cotton crop of the Punjab during the last three or four years has been very much below the normal. A factory situated in an area like Lyallpur, where there are 14 or 15 factories crowded together, has not sufficient work to keep it running for six days a week at full pace. As a result, the owners of all the factories meet together and decide that they will run only such a number of factories as they can keep going throughout the week, and close the rest. The profits or losses of the various factories working are pooled and distributed amongst the factory owners of the whole area.

B-832. What are the average hours of work in these factories in actual practice?—Seventy per week possibly. That does not refer to all of them. Cotton ginning factories are notorious offenders against the rule of hours of work. 60 is the limit; but I should think that one might put the average for all ginning factories somewhere between 66 and 70 hours.

B-833. Does not this pooling system lead to the closing of some factories and throwing their workers out of employment, and sweating the remaining workers who work in the factories which are kept open?—That is true.

B-834. In your memorandum dealing with the wages of skilled and unskilled workers in the cotton ginning factories for the past ten years, you say that the wages have steadily risen during this period. That seems to be true in the case of skilled workers, but in the case of unskilled workers in factories there is no perceptible rise. Their wages, if anything, have remained stationary or have fallen?—Yes.

B-835. What is that due to?—It is due to the fact that the cotton crop in the Punjab has been below normal since 1922 or 1923; as a result there are more workers to undertake the work.

B-836. The owners in this industry are in a very much stronger position than the workers?—Yes, very much.

B-837. Were you able to pay any surprise visits to these factories?—Yes. It means visiting them very early in the morning and late in the evening, or adopting some method by which you can arrive at the factory without the owners knowing of your arrival.

B-838. Are your movements well heralded?—No. As far as I know, no one knows where I am going.

B-839. Are the visits of the *ex-officio* inspectors, the district administrative officers, effective?—No.

B-840. Would it not be better for them to pay surprise inspections?—I do not think so. The average district official would be very unlikely to undertake a surprise inspection at 5 or 6 o'clock, the same as a full-time inspector does.

B-841. Has not the district official on the spot an advantage in this matter over the factory inspector who is far away?—Experience has shown that district officials either do not take interest in inspections, or are never able to bring home to the factory owners the necessity for a due observance of the rules. For instance, I have never had a prosecution which has been successfully launched by a district official. Another thing is that it is necessary for an inspector to have some experience in inspecting, and know what to look for and when to look for it.

B-842. As regards prosecution, what is the normal procedure? Your sanction is required for a prosecution, I take it?—Yes.

B-843. Is there any other officer's sanction required, or can you launch a prosecution yourself?—I can launch it myself.

B-844. Without reference to any other authority?—Yes.

B-845. You have referred to competition with Indian States in the Punjab, and to the fact that in some cases factories remove across the border in order to avoid regulation in British India?—Yes.

B-846. What are the regulations which they so strongly desire to evade?—Hours of work and child labour.

B-847. Not the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act?—I do not think that would worry them very much, although I do not administer that Act.

B-848. Is there any regulation in any of the Indian States with regard to hours of work or child labour?—I believe in one or two of the States they have a Factory Act.—I should think, from the fact that factory owners in British India always complain that the competition they get from factories in Indian States is so very great, that the regulations are not enforced at all.

B-849. *The Chairman*: What is the extent of the movement out of British India, to which you have referred?—I only know of two factories that have deliberately moved into British India, but there are many cases where factories which might have been built in British India have not been built here.

B-850. *Mr. Clow*: Dr. Rawley, you were Chairman of the Committee which met to consider the question of sickness insurance?—Yes.

B-851. Your Committee came to the very definite conclusion that for any scheme of sickness insurance to be a success there should be central legislation. Can you give us the reasons that led the Committee to that conclusion?—(Dr. Rawley) We were of the opinion that one Province should not be at a disadvantage as compared with other Provinces from the financial point of view.

B-852. Do you regard sickness insurance necessarily as a disadvantage?—Not exactly. If the cost of administration is very high, one Province has to pay out much more money than another Province.

B-853. As far as industrialists are concerned, surely it would bring benefits in its train?—I agree.

B-854. And would it not be more likely to be successful if one started experimentally in a limited area?—We, as a Committee, came to the conclusion that there should be central legislation, and that the scheme should be started at the same time all over India.

B-855. *The Chairman*: Centrally controlled but locally administered?—Yes.

B-856. *Mr. Clow*: Have you considered the question of the possibility of enforcing by legislation weekly payments in certain industries or branches of industry?—We have not yet considered the question of weekly payments at all.

B-857. Do you think weekly payments would be popular with the workers?—Yes, very popular.

B-858. Would they be beneficial?—I should imagine they would be. Under the present circumstances the worker has got to borrow money from the bania, and buy his food for the whole of the month on credit, and pay very high interest.

B-859. It has been suggested that the bania would merely charge interest weekly, and that the compound interest would accordingly be greater?—I think the rates would probably be lower. I am giving this view from my own experience of my servants and people I have engaged.

B-860. *Mr. Joshi*: Do the workers, who go back to their villages every year for some months, return to the same industry?—(Mr. Abel) They mostly do.

B-861. Therefore, as regards skill, there is not much loss caused by the workers going back to their villages?—No.

B-862. What is called the "migratory character" does not cause any loss to industry?—No.

B-863. Does it do any good to the health of the worker that he should go back to his village and return after some months?—I should think it does. The work of cotton ginning is very dusty, and I should imagine that the worker would gain by getting out on to the land for some months during the year.

B-864. You mention the strike in Dhariwal mills. Some time after the strike, were the conditions of the workers improved to some extent?—I did not notice that they were. The unrest at Dhariwal was nothing to do with factory regulations. Therefore I took no official interest in it.

B-865. You make some remarks about the relations between staff and rank and file, and you say "In bigger industrial establishments particularly those run by responsible companies the relations between the staff and the workers are quite satisfactory", and so on. What leads you to think that the relations are more favourable in India than they are in other countries. Is it the lack of strikes?—That has something to do with it. We have been very free from strikes in the Punjab.

B-866. Is that due to the fact that the workers are too poor to rebel?—The worker is mostly far too poor to engage counsel to settle his disputes, but from what I see in well-conducted factories the labourers are fairly well looked after, and they appear to be contented.

B-867. You generally agree that it is the highly paid man who goes on strike rather than the badly paid man?—The average paid worker—the artisan—is the man who goes on strike.

B-868. Do you insist upon the drinking water for operatives being cool in the hot weather?—Drinking water either comes from municipal taps, and it must be fairly cool since it comes from underground, or it is kept in *chattis* which keep the water cool.

B-869. I should like you to make an experiment to see whether it is cool or not?—I will. I have found nothing wrong with the water. I have taken samples of it and had it analysed.

B-870. Would there be any objection if a clause is inserted in the Factories Act making it obligatory upon factory owners to keep first-aid appliances?—There is such a rule in the Punjab.

B-871. When you give exemptions from mid-day rest, do you insist that some compensation should be given to the workers for the exemption?—It depends on the exemption that is given. We lay down conditions for exemption. Actually exemption is very seldom given now, and only where there is an exceptional press of work for a certain period, in which case overtime pay automatically comes in; compensatory rest periods are also put down as a condition.

B-872. Do you give any exemption from the weekly rest provision?—On occasions. I think the last one was to the railway printing works to enable them to print the memoranda for this Commission.

B-873. What conditions did you lay down?—That was done by the local Government without being referred to me at all.

B-874. And they gave no compensation to the workers for depriving them of the right given under the Act?—They pay them  $1\frac{1}{4}$  full pay or more for all hours over 60.

B-875. But they did not give any holiday after the pressure was over?—No, as far as I know there was no compulsion in that way.

B-876. Do you think it is desirable that, when you give exemptions from rest time, some provision should be made for giving rest days when the pressure of work is over?—I do. Indeed, I think exemption should not be given. I mostly oppose it if I have an opportunity.

B-877. You state in your memorandum with regard to industrial efficiency that amongst the labouring classes no improvement has been noticed. You have also stated that when the hours of labour were reduced from 12 to 10 there was no decrease in production?—I said there was very little.

B-878. Then why do you say there has been no increase in efficiency?—By reducing hours from 11 to 10 the fatigue element would be eliminated which would to some extent make a difference. When the Act was amended in 1922 millowners and factory owners complained bitterly that they would lose an hour; but they gradually increased the efficiency of their staff and now they

say they do not lose very much; but that is not a very great improvement in the efficiency of the worker.

B-879. *Sir Alexander Murray*: I understand you to say that whether the hours are 12 or 11 or 10 in the day, the worker generally works 8½ hours?—Yes. My experience is that the worker works when he is made to work to a great extent, and if you put him on to longer hours of work he does not work.

B-880. *Mr. Joshi*: That is true. I therefore want to know whether his efficiency will not increase if the hours are reduced, while if the hours are kept long he does not show efficiency?—That is true, but there is a limit.

B-881. Are seats provided in factories for women workers?—I should say 9 per cent. of women workers are sitting the whole time, because they are mostly working in cotton ginning factories. There are a few operations in textile mills where women stand and there are no seats provided; but those constitute very few workers and I do not think you would find them overworked; they sit down when they want to.

B-882. Is there any rule in the Factories Act with regard to the weights to be lifted by women?—No.

B-883. Do you think it is desirable?—I have never seen a woman having to lift heavy weights in a factory. They are generally engaged on very light work such as feeding the gins with raw cotton.

B-884. Where no power machinery is used have you any regulations?—No.

B-885. Do you think such work should be brought under regulations?—I think it would be very useful.

B-886. I think your Government has taken an adverse view with regard to the Maternity Benefit Bill; in view of the fact that an Act has been passed in Bombay, do you think there will be a change of view in your Province?—I am sorry I cannot say; it all depends on the view taken by the Punjab Government.

B-887. Are you in favour of the compulsory insurance of workers against accidents?—I am.

B-888. You have expressed yourself as being in favour of increasing the rates or compensation. Have you considered whether the period for which compensation is provided in the Workmen's Compensation Act should be extended, say, from 42 to 84 weeks?—Yes, I think so.

B-889. You are the Registrar of Trade Unions?—Yes.

B-890. While Mr. Wilson was being examined mention was made of some circular issued by Government directing that the associations of Government servants should not be registered under the Act; is that so?—That is true.

B-891. Is the Registrar of Trade Unions an executive or a judicial officer? I think he is a judicial officer.

B-892. Can the executive Government issue orders to a judicial officer with regard to the interpretation of the Act?—That is for the Government of India to decide.

B-893. *Miss Power*: Mr. Abel, in your memorandum you say that you made 667 inspections, I think in 1928, and you say you cover 725 factories in three Provinces. In the Government memorandum there is the statement that "it is fairly safe to say that inspectors cannot turn up more than once a month". This makes me enquire what system you have for allocating inspections among the factories under your jurisdiction?—(Mr. Abel) I have five part-time inspectors distributed throughout the Province, each at a centre. I am myself a full time inspector in Lahore, taking the whole of the Punjab. I issue programmes to each one of these men as to the factories which I want them to visit throughout the month. When they visit the factory and find it working and have any defects to report, they report to me. I take action on that if I find it necessary. Apart from that, I myself tour the Province whenever I can, that is, 15 to 20 days a month, making independent inspections, apart from seeing that some of the inspections

which have already been made by my men in the districts have been properly carried out.

B-894. Are the assistants you refer to inspecting on the technical side, or on the more general welfare side?—No, only on the general side. They are not technical men, and they are only occupied under certain Sections of the Act.

B-895. Does that mean that you are obliged to retrace their steps, as it were, to catch up on the technical side?—It does. This system disappears from the 1st April of next year, when Government have agreed to appoint another fully qualified inspector, and the powers of these men will be taken away.

B-896. It seems that the one assistant factory inspector is going to replace the six part-time men?—Yes.

B-897. You do not anticipate from that an increase in inspection, do you?—No, what I anticipate is more effective inspections. Inspections may possibly decrease; in fact, I think they must; but I think they will be much more effective.

B-898. How many inspectors, in your opinion, are necessary to make effective inspection of the places that you have now got under the Act?—To inspect them effectively we might need anything up to six or seven inspectors. The factory inspection is such that you can make an enormous amount of it if you like. For instance, with regard to welfare work, we have very little time indeed to look to it although it is really one of the duties of a Factory Inspector that he should attend to it.

B-899. When you said that if the Factories Act were extended to include some of the unregulated places there might be an increase of about 30 per cent. in the cost, were you basing your figure on the present measure of inspection?—Yes.

B-900. In view of the large number of women employees in ginning factories do you think there would be any improvement in the inspection if women factory inspectors were employed?—It is very difficult to tell. Certainly a lady inspector would be useful, but, as far as women workers are concerned, our inspections really apply to their hours of work to a very great extent; their conditions of living do not seriously concern the inspector at the moment because they live in districts outside the factory area over which we have no control.

B-901. You do not suggest that regulating the hours of work is the only concern of the inspector?—I do not at all; in fact we do other things. We have tried to prohibit small children being brought in, and to make the conditions of women workers very much better.

B-902. Do you see any reason why your experience here in India as to the uses to which women factory inspectors can be put should differ from that of Europe?—It would be rather difficult, to my mind, for a lady inspector to tour the country and go into factory areas, as a man does.

B-903. I was not thinking so much of the difficulties of the woman inspector, which I think could be got over. I was thinking of the administration of the Act in the interests of the women and children?—I think it would be very useful indeed, but the point is whether the number of women workers would warrant the expenditure.

B-904. Do you get complaints from women factory workers?—Very seldom.

B-905. Does that imply anything to you?—First of all the woman worker is very shy.

B-906. Shy of a man?—Yes. The chief things we are concerned with as to women workers are hours and conditions of work. They have no heavy weights to lift; they have very little manual or heavy work at all to do. They sit the whole day in ginning factories merely putting cotton through gins.

B-907. Do you think a man factory inspector is very likely to get a complaint from a woman factory worker as to, for instance, the sanitary



arrangements supplied for women workers?—No, I do not think so; but the factory inspector does look to this too; he sees that proper sanitary arrangements are made for women workers.

B-908. But still there may be many abuses of which you do not know, just as there were in England?—Yes, it is possible.

B-909. You say that about one-third of the children employed are in the ginning factories. Do your Certifying Surgeons get round to see those children in time to prevent illegal employment?—They should do. The method is that the Certifying Surgeon can delegate his powers as a Certifying Surgeon to an Assistant Surgeon, which he generally does. The Assistant Surgeon will then issue certificates to children as they come to him. The Certifying Surgeon should go round the Province once every three months.

B-910. Does he in fact do so?—I doubt it; I think he probably goes round once a year.

B-911. The ginning factories are only seasonal; does he tour when they are kept open?—Yes.

B-912. The Director of Industries in his memorandum speaks of the long hours of work of the children in ginning factories. In practice, is there any distinction between the hours the women work and the hours the children work?—Yes, there is; if it is possible for the employer to do so, the scheme is to start the children working early in the morning; and if they are not detected by the factory inspector by mid-day they probably go on for the rest of the day.

B-913. Have you any reasons to think that there are children in ginning factories who work for 70 hours?—I am afraid I have.

B-914. On the question of the admission of underage children into the factories, you appear to have made some effort to solve the difficulty, but have had to abandon it?—Yes.

B-915. I take it that because the ginning factories are so small and scattered, no attempts have been made to start creches?—I have tried that in one or two areas, but they are not used to any great extent.

B-916. Have you any solution for this particular problem, because the atmosphere of the ginning factories is hardly conducive to the health of the children?—I have not found a solution. I have tried many ways. For instance, I have had dust-proof masks made for these people to wear, but they will not wear them. We thought of the possibility of having gins covered and an exhaust pipe to take out all the dust, but the scheme had to be abandoned as it would have been very expensive.

B-917. Have you considered the question of erecting a shade within the compound of the factory where women work?—I doubt whether they would make use of it. The woman works inside a big room in the ginning factory and my experience is that she will not leave her child anywhere; she will take the child with her.

B-918. Would it be an unfair assumption that in actual practice the system of factory inspection breaks down as regards seasonal factories?—It does not break down entirely. We try to do a lot of good but our work is seriously handicapped by the fact that if we file cases against an employer for overworking his workers it is difficult to get a conviction against him and even more difficult to secure any adequate fine or punishment.

B-919. If a child is turned down not for being underage but for reasons of health, is any attempt made to do any follow-up work and send the child to a health centre or hospital?—Not that I am aware of; not in my Department.

B-920. The child is simply told it is unfit for work?—Yes.

B-921. Do you think it would be a good thing to link up the work of the Certifying Surgeon with that of public health?—Yes, it would be a very good thing.

B-922. Is there anything to prevent a child who has been rejected because of age or for reasons of health, going forthwith to work in an unregulated factory?—Nothing whatever.

B-923. In fact that is what the child does?—Very probably; I cannot tell because I do not know what actually happens in unregulated factories. It would be quite possible for a child who was refused by the Certifying Surgeon to go and work anywhere else.

B-924. That seems to be an additional reason for bringing such factories under the Act. Since no effective check is put on the employment of such children, the issue of the certificates by the Certifying Surgeon amounts to a farce?—I am afraid it does.

B-925. On the question of double employment of children, you say in your memorandum that "many of them work at other occupations". By that do you mean that they work at home or in unregulated factory?—Either in the fields, or at home, or in any unregulated factory. I have no statistics to show that, but I am almost sure that children of between 12 and 15 years of age, who are only permitted in regulated factories to work for six hours, can if they choose or if their parents choose, go and work elsewhere.

B-926. Do you think that some of the children in the carpet factories or other unregulated places here in Lahore are partly employed in a regulated factory and partly in an unregulated factory?—To some extent I should think they are; as regards carpet factories I do not know.

B-927. Is there any co-ordination of the activities of Certifying Surgeons. For instance, when they are determining age, do they follow any medical schedule which enables them to maintain a uniform standard?—That I do not know; I merely get a certificate to show that the child is over a certain age and I must accept it.

B-928. Is there any control over the activities of the Certifying Surgeons by any one Department?—It comes under the Public Health Department, so far as I know.

B-929. So that the Director of Industries or the Factory Inspector has no control over their activities.—None whatever.

B-930. You simply have to accept the certificate of the Certifying Surgeon?—If I find that a child working in a factory is unfit, although he may have been certified, I send him back to the Certifying Surgeon to re-certify him; if he then appears again, having been re-certified, I must accept him as a healthy worker.

B-931. With regard to your remarks on "Acquaintance of workpeople with factory legislation", is there any arrangement made whereby they can understand the abstracts; is any lecture explaining it ever given to employees in the factories?—Not that I know of.

B-932. So that it means that only that small section that can read the particular vernacular language in which the notice may have been posted would be able to follow it?—I think that if one person in the factory can read that abstract the whole of the workers would know it very quickly.

B-933. Is the name of the factory inspector of the Province always put on the factory abstract?—No.

B-934. Do you not think that that should be done so that people should know to whom they should complain?—It would be helpful, but I do not think there is any difficulty in factory workers knowing where to complain.

B-935. Suppose they wanted to get a writer to send a written complaint to you, in these scattered ginning factories, are they likely to know where you are?—I do not think that is a difficulty. I think they know that they only have to address their complaints to "The Factory Inspector, Punjab". News travels very quickly in India, and if one person knows anything it would go round the whole village or town very quickly.

B-936. Are complaints from the workers as to evasion of the Factories Act on the increase?—No, I do not think they are.

B-937. Approximately how many a year do you think you receive?—There might be 50; not more than that.

B-938. Direct from the workers?—Yes; they are frequently anonymous and they are frequently written by some one in a competitive mill or factory and are not always genuine; it is very difficult to tell whether they are genuine.

B-939. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Have you ever met a worker who did not know what the legal working hours were and so on?—Many times; the average illiterate worker does not know; if you ask him at what time he goes to work he will say "Early in the morning"; if you ask him at what time he leaves the work he will say "When the engine stops". Many of them do not understand time at all. My remarks apply to the unskilled illiterate workers and not to the engineers and other staff.

B-940. *Miss Power*: The illiterate workers are the bulk of them, are they not?—Yes, in seasonal factories.

B-941. Dealing with "Rigour and efficiency of administration" you make some suggestions for increased penalties. In the memorandum submitted by the Punjab Government there is a reference made to the fact that there has been a tendency on the part of the magistracy, in the case of offences against women and children, not to fine but simply to warn?—That is so.

B-942. Do you think that if you had heavier penalties for repeated offences in respect of women and children, it would possibly have the effect of penalising the work of women and children?—I think it would, if it were deliberately done for offences of over-working women and children. At the present moment, if a factory owner can employ a man at the same rate at which he can employ a woman, he prefers to employ the man because the regulations are slightly harder with regard to the employment of women workers than men; so that, if you are going to penalize the employer in respect of women and children very much more than you do men, you will find that the women worker will soon be very little sought.

B-943. You think there would be that danger?—Yes. I issued an order prohibiting children under the age of 6 going into cotton ginning factories. One of the results was that the women were not employed in the ginning factories. They then appealed to me that it was a hardship to them rather than an advantage. That was why I withdrew the order later on.

B-944. Have you visited the place where wool picking is carried on?—Yes, I know it quite well. There are three or four areas in Lahore, and in other parts of the Punjab there are many more.

B-945. Would it be within your province to consider whether or not all such work should be done over a grid under which there was an exhaust fan?—It is within the power of the local Government; it is not within the power of the factory inspector. If these factories are brought under the Factories Act we can then frame rules to cover such cases. But they not being under the Factories Act at present, we have no power whatever.....

B-946. Supposing these factories were brought under the Factories Act, although there might be an attempt to divide them into groups, you could then provide that no such work as that involving such dust and risks should be done without it being done over grids with downward exhaust fans?—That would involve a certain amount of expenditure on the part of the employer, and I think, rather than incur the expenditure he would split up the factory into a number of small rooms, having one central press which would take the wool that had been cleaned in each one of these places. It would then be necessary to notify every such place as a factory regardless of the number of workers employed therein.

B-947. If they were all under one employer?—It is not impossible for one employer to have a dozen small factories.

B-948. Surely some legislation to regulate these factories could be devised to cover that point?—The Factories Act as it at present stands speaks of premises where so many persons are actually employed. I have known many

instances of printing presses and other factories where a partition wall is put down in the middle of a factory, with the result that each is split into two or more factories for evading the provisions of the Act in this respect. We have managed so far to get over such difficulties, but in the case of wool picking it is a very easy matter for the contractor or the owner to split his factory into small rooms.

B-949. Do you not think the cost of the exhaust fan system would be very small?—I do not know what power would be used for it. These factories have no power whatever at the moment. It is all hand work. The exhaust fans must have some power to drive them. That would necessitate a small power plant, either under every grid or a system of shafting or electric wiring to run the fans.

B-950. Is not this industry confined to towns?—Most of it is done in Lahore; there is a certain amount of it in Amritsar. There is also one other place, Fazilka, where a lot of wool picking is carried on.

B-951. Is there no electric power available usually?—It is available in Lahore and Amritsar, but Fazilka is a rural area and it is not available there.

B-952. *The Chairman*: You told us of administrative difficulties in the way of extending the scope of the Act so as to cover small workshops, say, in the bazaar, employing 10 or 11 workers. But from the point of view of health do you not think it more important to bring within the Act those larger groups of men and women who are at present outside the Act because no motive power is used in the factories in which they are working?—It is very important. But as I have said, they would split their factories into small groups and evade the Act, unless legislation were so tightened as to prevent their doing so.

B-953. Do you really think it would be difficult to make legislation sufficiently tight?—I do not think it would be easy.

B-954. *Mrs. Wilson*: Are most of the women workers in cotton ginning factories got through women contractors?—No woman contractor has come to our notice. I should imagine they are all got through men contractors.

B-955. That is not what the women told us the other day?—I have no experience; I know it is got through contractors.

B-956. But we saw one of them during our visits?—She was very likely a sub-contractor. It is very likely that her husband was the contractor who settled the accounts and that she was in charge of the women workers.

B-957. From the health point of view is there any inspection of quarters occupied by the Railway employees?—I have been round them on one or two occasions and have thought they were not too bad and that no action on my part was necessary.

B-958. Have you made any attempts to get women health visitors appointed in connection with these industries?—No.

B-959. Have you put any such suggestion before the owners of factories?—No, I never have.

B-960. Have you suggested that the women Sub-Assistant Surgeons attached to the civil hospitals should be asked to attend the workers in these factories once a week?—No, I have not done anything like that.

B-961. Do you not think it would be a desirable thing to do?—I think it would be a very good thing; but these are matters which concern the general district health administration more than the factory inspector. Provided a person in a factory is healthy and appears to be fit, as a factory inspector I have nothing to say. Apart from that, I have very little time to undertake such duties.

B-962. In regard to ventilation, have you made attempts to improve the atmosphere in the cotton ginning factories?—Yes, as I say I had some masks made for the workers to wear. I also got draft sketches of exhaust fans which might be fitted over gins, but their cost was prohibitive.

B-963. Is there any objection to using some simple model of the kind used here in this hall? It could be done in Lyallpur where there is power?—I have tried it but it does not do much good. The dust comes from the gin itself, and it would merely drag it swiftly through the room, possibly into the lungs of the people working, rather than take it straight out. When you have dust emanating from 70 or 80 machines, all of them three or four yards apart on either side of the room and distributed throughout the room, my experience is that it is very difficult to get rid of the dust except through the workers themselves.

B-964. Regarding first aid, do you ever inspect whether the arrangements are properly made?—I always look at the first aid appliance, and frequently suggest that they should renew things which have become old.

B-965. Are women forced to work longer hours when the cotton picking season is at its height?—Yes, I do find women working longer hours in such seasons. Whenever possible I take action against employers. During the last few years I may have taken action against 30 or 40 employers who have over-worked women and children.

B-966. Would it be of any help to the women concerned if you assembled them by beat of tom-tom and told them the hours they are entitled to work as we do with regard to public health measures?—I do not think so. The point is that a woman has her living to earn and if she is not prepared to work in the way the employer wants her to do, she is not going to get employment.

B-967. Do you not think that pressure is put upon doctors who certify as to the ages of children employed in factories. Have you any suggestion to make in that respect?—I fear there is because the Certifying Surgeon or rather the doctor to whom these powers are delegated is frequently a man living within the local areas, and apart from being the Certifying Surgeon he is also the local practitioner and possibly receives a retaining fee from the employer himself. Therefore it is very difficult to get a really straight deal from him. I think there should be a Certifying Surgeon attached to the Department as a whole-time Government servant.

B-968. *Miss Power*: If you had a Certifying Surgeon attached to the Department, I take it he could not do more than supervise the work of the other surgeons; he could not cover the whole Province?—No, but he could act as an inspector and pay surprise visits to factories, and I think that would promptly stop any mal-practice in this respect.

B-969. Has any suggestion of that sort ever been put to the Punjab Government, or to your Department?—No. I think we have almost thought that there are not yet a sufficient number of child workers. In bigger provinces I believe they have Certifying Surgeons attached to the Factory Inspection Department.

B-970. *Mrs. Wilson*: In your opinion is it actually harmful to have assistants who are of such a grade of industrial surveyors that they have relatively small salaries, and might have the same pressure put on them as you mention that my medical colleagues have?—I think the powers that an inspector has are such that they make it necessary for Government to employ the best possible person they can get, and I think, as a whole, the industrial surveyor working as he does at the moment is underpaid in view of the powers he has and the work he is expected to do.

(The Commission adjourned till Monday, the 28th October, 1929.)

**PUNJAB**  
**SEVENTH MEETING**  
**LAHORE**  
**Monday, 28th October, 1929.**

PRESENT:

The Rt. Hon'ble J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

The Rt. Hon. V. S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.C.

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).

Mr. HARKISHAN LAL, Bar.-at-Law.

Mr. W. TAYLOR, Director, East India Carpet  
Co., Amritsar.

Dr. K. C. HITESHI.

Mr. M. A. GHANI, Bar.-at-Law.

Pt. RAM AUTAR, Vice-President, North  
Western Railway Union.

Col. C. WALTON, D.S.O., Agent, North  
Western Railway.

Mr. M. S. GREGORY, M.C.

Miss SIRAJ-UD-DIN.

Mrs. DAGMAR CURJEL WILSON. } (*Lady Assessors.*)

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (*Joint Secretaries.*)

Mr. A. DIBDIN.

} (*Assistant  
Commissioners.*)

**Mr. W. H. ABEL, Inspector of Factories, Punjab, and Dr. R. C. RAWLLEY, Director of Industries, Punjab (*continued*).**

B-971. *Mr. Taylor:* Dr. Rawley, can you tell me whether there are any stipulated hours of work in the carpet weaving industry in Amritsar?—There are no stipulated hours of work as such, but, as I have mentioned in my memorandum, according to custom they work from sunrise to sun-set; if the sun rises at 6 in the morning and sets at about 5 or 6 in the evening, the hours of work may be 10 to 12.

B-972. There is no compulsion with regard to the hours of work that a weaver must work in a day?—No compulsion, as far as I know.

B-973. The weaver, I take it, can go into the factory when he wants to and leave it when he wants?—Yes, he can do that.

B-974. The carpet weaving industry is under the contract system?—Yes, the work is done on a contract basis.

B-975. It is quite possible then that a weaver does not work 10 hours a day in the winter?—Yes, that is possible. It all depends upon the amount of work. He might work 14 or 15 hours and it is also possible he might work 4 or 5 hours.

B-976. 14 or 15 hours is contrary to your own statement, because you say 10 hours?—That is in the winter.

B-977. Do you think that a weaver in the carpet weaving industry works longer hours than he would do in the cottage industry?—I am afraid it is difficult for me to say, because I have not watched their conditions all the time, but I should suggest that he works almost the same number of hours as he would work in his own home.

B-978. In your memorandum you say that "the rates of wages are still very low and the labourer gladly welcomes overtime work by which he can add to his meagre income". I take it you raised this question particularly with reference to the carpet weaving industry?—I think so far as the carpet weaving industry is concerned, the rates of wages as compared with the pre-war period are anything from 100 to 150 per cent. higher.

B-979. How does the weaver in the carpet weaving industry stand in regard to indebtedness?—In my opinion in the carpet weaving industry there is no indebtedness whatever, the reason being that the owners themselves advance money to the weavers and recover it from their wages. Therefore the weaver is not forced to borrow from the *bania*.

B-980. Is that advance given free of interest?—As far as I know it is given free of interest.

B-981. So that from the answers given am I right in coming to the conclusion that the weaver in the carpet weaving industry is fairly adequately paid, at any rate as compared with the ordinary textile weaving industry in this Province?—Yes, the carpet weaver is much better paid, it being a specialized trade.

B-982. In the Punjab Government memorandum it is stated that the children employed in the carpet weaving industry "continue their blind alley occupation". That means it is considered to be a blind alley occupation so far as children are concerned. Do you, as Director of Industries, subscribe to that view?—It is very difficult for me to say anything definite about it. One has to watch their future career and see if those employed at the ages of 6, 7 or 8, continue their occupation till the ages of 25 or 30. If it were so, it would not be a blind alley occupation. But if they left their occupation at the ages of 15 or 16, it would be a blind alley occupation. I think what the phrase "blind alley occupation" means is that there is too much employment of child labour in the carpet weaving industry; children under nine years form about 25 per cent. of the total labour force engaged in this industry.

B-983. That does not quite cover this statement. It is stated definitely that the carpet weaving industry is a blind alley occupation. Do you, as Director of Industries subscribe to that view?—No, I do not think that it is a blind alley occupation in that sense, because I have known of weavers who have continued their occupation till 30 or 40 or 50 years of age.

B-984. During your term of office, have you ever received any complaint from the carpet weavers themselves with regard to the hours of work or wages?—No, I have not, but the non-receipt of complaints is by no means an assurance that everything is all right in the carpet weaving industry.

B-985. But you have paid personal visits to Amritsar and I think you are personally acquainted with the carpet weaving. What is your personal opinion?—I gave my personal opinion at a meeting held by the Punjab Government, at which you were present. I think that children below the age of 9 should not be employed in the carpet weaving industry; children between 9 and 12 should work only for three or four hours in the morning; and children between 12 and 15 should not work for more than six hours a day.

B-986. Would you enforce that only with regard to children employed in the carpet weaving industry? Why should you not extend it to children employed in the general handloom weaving industry of the Province?—The general handloom industry is not concentrated in a parti-

ular place; it is scattered all over the Province; it is being carried on in the weavers' own homes in which not more than three or four people are engaged in it. On the other hand, the carpet industry is a centralized industry in which under one roof 200 people may be working.

B-987. In this Province?—Yes, so far.

B-988. Are you aware that in central and southern India the carpet weaving industry is carried on as a cottage industry in the same manner as the ordinary handloom weaving of the Province?—I do not know anything about central India; I know that the industry is localized in Ajmer and Agra.

B-989. In Persia also it is a cottage industry as in central and southern India. Supposing the hours of work in this industry were restricted, is it your opinion that the carpet weaving industry would continue as such in the factories, or do you think it would disperse, as was suggested by Mr. Abel, and the cottage carpet weaving industry would become prevalent in the Punjab?—It would in my opinion be very difficult to maintain anything like a good administration; that is to say, you would not be able to spread the right type of designs amongst the workers and watch the exact quality of their work, if the work were carried on in their cottages.

B-990. I believe last year you visited Poland, Greece and other countries and observed the conditions of the handloom carpet weaving industry in those countries. Can you tell us how the industry in India compares with the industry in those countries as regards the hours of work and wages?—In Poland the wages are very low indeed. I do not remember the exact figures. They are paid in Polish currency, Zlotis, but the wages work out in Indian currency at about Re. 1 to Rs. 1-6 a day. I also noticed a good number of small girls employed, who, the employer told me, were above 15; but as far as I could see, they were only 12, 13 or 14 years old. I was told that the weavers worked 10 hours a day and were paid for over-time after 8 hours. In Salonica and Athens also the conditions were not very much better than those in Amritsar.

B-991. Am I to take it that the wages paid in the carpet weaving industry overseas are less than those paid in Amritsar?—I think the Polish standard of wages is lower than that of Amritsar.

B-992. Can you give us the average monthly wages of an average weaver here?—It is Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 a month; of course there are experts with long experience who earn as much as Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 a month.

B-993. *Dr. Hiteshi*: Can you tell me Dr. Rawley why there are no trade unions of employers in the Punjab?—There are associations of employers.

B-994. Are there any registered associations of Employers under the Trade Union Act?—I think it is beneath their dignity to do that.

B-995. In your memorandum you stated that three trade unions, namely, the Textile Mill Workers' Union, the Electric Supply Company's Union, and the Punjab Mechanical Engineers' Union, have been dissolved. What was the reason?—They are defunct bodies. After taking the certificate they never complied with the law. They just automatically dissolved.

B-996. *Mr. Ghani*: You suggest that some wage-fixing machinery should be created in the Punjab. What method would you suggest to fix the minimum wages of labourers?—We have not gone into that question in detail. We have just given a suggestion that, taking into consideration the cost of living of the average industrial worker in the Punjab, some sort of machinery should be evolved whereby wages could be fixed, but as to what machinery will suit the Province itself we have not worked that out in detail.

B-997. In replying to Mr. Taylor you stated that the wages of carpet workers in Poland were less than they are in the Punjab. While you were touring in Poland, did you also enquire what was the cost of living in Poland?—Was it more or less than it is here?—The cost of living in Poland is also less, on account of the very low rate of exchange; when I was there last year the rate was about 800 to 900 zloties to the £1, so that obviously the



cost of living worked out in relation to exchange would be very low; but whether the actual cost of living in money and in kind is the same as in the Punjab or less or more, I cannot say.

B-998. *Mr. Gregory*: Does the Punjab Government employ contractors?—I am not aware of it. It may be that they do in the Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department.

B-999. Are you aware of any measures or regulations issued by the Punjab Government to enforce the Washington and Geneva Conventions on contractors?—Not so far as my Department is concerned.

B-1000. Are there any measures in force in the Punjab to safeguard the labour employed under contractors?—No, I do not think so.

B-1001. After the initial registration have you laid down any method to be adopted for the purpose of keeping a strict watch on the management of a trade union?—Under the rules framed under the Trade Unions Act, the union have to submit to us certain statements. That is the only check that we keep.

B-1002. At the end of the first year and subsequently, if necessary, you get a statement of accounts?—That is right.

B-1003. Do you scrutinize the accounts?—Yes.

B-1004. Between the time you register a union and receive the balance sheet, do you keep a watch to see whether the funds of the union are being correctly expended?—I am afraid there is nothing in the Act which empowers me to check that.

B-1005. *Col. Russell*: Have you any suggestion to make as to the method by which you might obtain mortality statistics?—My suggestion would be that there should be a greater amount of co-operation between my Department and the Public Health Department, and that figures in so far as physique and fatigue and similar matters are concerned, should be collected by the Department of Public Health and passed on to us.

B-1006. Do you think the Public Health Department will be able to do that?—They have district health officers now-a-days in almost every place. I think the District Officer of Health will be in a position to collect all the material that is required.

B-1007. Would it not be better to have something like an Industrial Health Research Board to make investigations of that kind?—Of course, that would be the ideal, but I do not know whether funds will be found for that or not.

B-1008. You say "Little control is exercised at the present moment over the building of factories". How would you propose to remove this lack of control?—There have been suggestions that all the plans should be submitted to the Inspector of Factories and the Director of Public Health, who should then comment on the plans from the point of view of ventilation, spacing and sanitary arrangements.

B-1009. Do you think that would be an adequate control?—In the beginning it should be.

B-1010. Would it be an adequate control?—I am afraid not.

B-1011. How would you suggest that you should get adequate control?—I would suggest greater powers being given to the Factory Inspection Department.

B-1012. *The Chairman*: I presume that the plans for a new factory have to be submitted to some Department of the local authority?—No; that is only under one Act—the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Act.

B-1013. Not generally speaking?—No.

B-1014. *Col. Russell*: There is at present absolutely no control over the building of factories?—At present there is none.

B-1015. *The Chairman*: Except in the Municipalities?—Yes.

B-1016. If it is proposed to build a new factory in Lahore, to whom would the plans go?—If the factory is to be situated within the municipal area, they would be submitted to the Municipal Committee.

B-1017. But then it does not come to you or to the Public Health Department?—No.

B-1018. Outside the municipality a new factory can be proceeded with without the plans being submitted to any authority?—There is some provision so far as District Boards are concerned. There is no effective control of any kind.

B-1019. This is an important point, and it was raised by Mr. Abel. Would Mr. Abel tell us what his suggestion is?—(Mr. Abel) There should certainly be some direct control over the building and altering of factories; but it would not be very useful merely for the plans to be submitted either to the Public Health Department or Industries Department for passing and sanction. We want more control over the actual material used in the building and supervision, if we are going to have any real control. At the present time plans for the building of cotton ginning and pressing factories do come to the Agricultural Department and to the Department of Industries, and we examine those plans and pass them if they are satisfactory; but we have no control over the building or over the material that is used. We may pass a plan as regards area and sanitation, and yet the factory may be built entirely wrong and collapse very soon. We have no control over that at all.

B-1020. Have you ever put down in black and white what amendment you would wish?—Yes, I have. This question has been discussed for the last two years or more with the local Government, and also with other local Governments; and the local Government have asked us on one or two occasions to frame rules which would govern the building of these factories; but it is very difficult, because a factory built in a town would be entirely different from that in the rural district. Our reply has been that we cannot possibly frame any hard and fast rule, but we suggested that not only should plans come to us for scrutiny, but also that we should have some control over the material that is to be used in the building of particular factories. What will happen really if this is enforced is that it will merely turn the factory inspector into a consulting engineer, and nothing more will be done unless we have a Department which can actually work it and see that what we say is really carried out.

B-1021. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Are you prepared to take the responsibility of seeing that the proper mixtures are used in a building, thereby transferring the responsibility from the shoulders of the contractor and the factory owner, so that if anything collapses, the owner can turn round and say:

“Mr. Abel and his staff came and inspected it and he must accept responsibility”?—I should need an enormous staff to do it.

B-1022. It would be an impossibility, would it not?—I certainly could not take the responsibility myself.

B-1023. *Col. Russell*: Are there any members of the Departments of Agriculture and Industries who now see these plans are capable of judging whether they are suitable or not?—Actually no civil engineer sees them; I think I am the only engineer and I am mechanical.

B-1024. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Dr. Rawley, could you tell me why children are employed in preference to adults in these carpet factories in Amritsar?—The argument given to me is this, that they have got very delicate fingers and can handle the operations much better than grown up people can. The second point is that obviously the wages of these children employed in these factories are much lower than those of adults. The adult contractor has a number of boys working with him, probably 3 or 4 or 5. The contractor gets the wages in terms of so many annas for so many hundred stitches, and then it is open to him to distribute these wages amongst the boys. So it is very difficult for us to determine as to what wages a child actually earns there.

B-1025. Would you give me some statistics as to what a child, let us say of 10, would get per thousand stitches?—The usual rate in Amritsar is 1½ annas for 1,100 stitches.

B-1026. Can you give me any figures regarding the profits made by the carpet industry in Amritsar?—Those figures are a mystery and a secret which nobody knows outside the carpet industry. It is impossible to find out; I have tried my level best to collect the statistics during the last few years, of the percentage of dividend paid or the actual money made, but I have not been able to secure the information at all.

B-1027. Are some of these joint stock companies?—Only the East India Company is a joint stock company.

B-1028. What has been the difficulty: the refusal on the part of the employers to let you have their balance sheets?—Yes; they do not want to let us know the cost of production.

B-1029. Is the carpet industry in Amritsar mostly owned by Indians, or is it owned by any outside firm?—There is one outside firm known as the Oriental Carpet Manufacturing Company, Limited.

B-1030. Is that the biggest firm in Amritsar?—Yes.

B-1031. Mr. Abel, in your memorandum you make a statement about unemployment and reference has been made to the Report of the Unemployment Enquiry Committee. Is it a fact that that Unemployment Enquiry Committee disposed of the question of unemployment among the illiterates in their Report?—(Mr. Abel) I have not seen this Report before, and I am afraid I do not know.

B-1032. Dr. Rawley, can you tell us anything about that?—(Dr. Rawley). Yes; I was a member of that Committee myself.

B-1033. Is it a fact that only 20 witnesses were examined by that Committee?—Yes, that is true.

B-1034. And generally they relied upon reports which they received from the District Officers?—That is true.

B-1035. So should I be correct in stating that that Committee did not really enquire properly or scientifically into the matter of unemployment in the Punjab?—You are right.

B-1036. It has been suggested to you by Sir Victor Sassoon that, the Punjab being an agricultural Province, the number of industrial workers is not very large. Should I be right in saying that according to the Census figures out of a population of 21,000,000 in the Punjab, there are at least 3,000,000 industrial workers and 3,000,000 persons dependent upon those industrial workers?—That is quite true.

B-1037. If we include the entire number of domestic servants and transport workers as industrial workers, it is practically half the population of the Province?—The majority of that number would refer to industrial works outside the scope of the Indian Factories Act. My memorandum refers only to workers within the purview of the Act. I have no experience of those outside the Act.

B-1038. Sir Victor Sassoon: Do you accept the statement that half the population of the Punjab is employed outside agriculture?—(Mr. Abel) It may be so according to the Census; I have no knowledge of it. (Dr. Rawley): Only 14,800,000 persons are employed in agriculture; that is out of a total population of 25,000,000 including the Indian States; the actual population of the Punjab is 21,000,000.

B-1039. Does your 14,000,000 include dependents?—Yes.

B-1040. *Dinoo Chaman Lal*: Any question of unemployment, to be tackled properly, must necessarily include those people who are outside the scope of your Factories Act?—(Mr. Abel) That is true.

B-1041. Therefore, if it can be established that there is unemployment, you would not be averse to the setting up of unemployment bureaux in order to deal with that problem?—I do not see why they should not be set up.

B-1042. There is a constant tendency on the part of the agricultural workers in this Province to move out from the villages into the big towns?—There is a tendency; I would not say that it is very strong.

B-1043. But does it affect large numbers of the population, taking the Province as a whole?—That is impossible for me to say; I only know that a certain proportion of agricultural workers come into the factory, as in the case of Dhariwal last year; they will come into the factory, find they like that work better, probably earn bigger wages, and remain on. But I do not think it affects a very large proportion of agriculturists. Apart from that, the average Punjabi has some sort of interest in the land; either his family have some share in a small holding, or something of that sort. The land requires him during the time the harvest is being brought in. Whether he is or is not getting more pay in the factory, it is my experience that he does go back to his land when he is wanted.

B-1044. Even for those numbers that come in from the villages it would be necessary to have some sort of organization in order to help them to find employment?—I think it would be very useful.

B-1045. In your memorandum you speak of the collection of statistics; is there any regular method or system for the collection of statistics for your Department?—Yes; at the beginning of the working season of every seasonal factory I get a report on the number of workers that are or will be employed in that factory; that is the average number for the season. That enables me to determine the number of workers there are actually in factories. I also get returns at the end of the year as to the wages paid, and it is on that that I determine my statement showing the average wages of workers in factories.

B-1046. The figures that come in naturally come in from the employers?—Yes.

B-1047. In your memorandum you give us a chart as to wages and you say that the increase in wages is due to the increased cost of living?—That is my presumption; I do not collect statistics regarding food.

B-1048. Can you give me any idea as to the increase in real wages?—Wages have undoubtedly advanced slightly as far as skilled workers are concerned.

B-1049. But could we get any estimate of the increase in real wages?—I do not think you can get anything beyond this, unless you take it from the worker himself.

B-1050. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: But do you say that real wages have advanced slightly?—Yes, real wages have, in the case of skilled workers. It is more costly now to get a blacksmith or a carpenter. Possibly in the last 6 or 8 years there has been a 10 or 15 per cent. increase.

B-1051. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: How much absenteeism is due to illness?—I have no statistics.

B-1052. Has any serious attempt been made in the Punjab to investigate the question of the prevalence of industrial or occupational diseases?—Not more than our ordinary visits. I have had metal analysed in order to endeavour to discover what percentage of arsenic there is or if the fumes are injurious; and in printing presses where lead is smelted special stoves are provided with exhausts for taking away the fumes. Beyond that we have done nothing.

B-1053. We can take it that the welfare of the worker in the Punjab is nobody's concern?—Yes.

B-1054. Do not you think it is essential that the State should lend a helping hand in the matter?—It would be very useful but it would be very difficult, because the average worker in the Punjab does not stay at the factory sufficiently long for anyone to be useful to him.

B-1055. If a worker stays even two months, would you not make your machinery for welfare work available for him?—I would in the case of all factories which work throughout the year.

B-1056. You make the very serious statement that cheap labour is one of the causes of accidents. Would I be correct in suggesting that, as far as this Province is concerned, the workers in those factories are treated, as so much raw material and not as human beings?—Not entirely. In many factories they are.

B-1057. In regard to sickness insurance, you suggest that the employers in certain factories do engage doctors to look after the workers. There you have the rudiments of the panel system. Could that be usefully extended if the State came in?—Yes, I think it could.

B-1058. With regard to inspection, did you bring the facts about prosecutions referred to in your memorandum to the notice of the Government?—I did.

B-1059. What action did the Government take?—Almost every year I bring these matters to the notice of the local Government, and they have on two or three different occasions addressed the magistrates, pointing out the necessity of inflicting adequate punishment for such offences. In this particular case I asked the Deputy Commissioner, who is the authority, for a revision, pointing out to him the exact details. The reply to that was that he felt that the High Court would not be prepared to do anything, and therefore it was useless approaching it.

B-1060. How do you explain the fact that in the Punjab a man is sentenced to two years' imprisonment for an ordinary theft, and yet in regard to these serious matters only small fines of Rs. 45 are imposed. Why do not the magistrates take as serious a view of these matters as they do in the case of an ordinary theft?—I think it is because our system here is wrong. A case under the Factories Act goes to the local magistrate, and the factory owner of that particular district is probably the most influential person in that area. The Public Prosecutor is a part-time servant of Government. During the other part of his time he probably works for the factory owner. The local doctor who issues certificates regarding children is also a part-time practitioner, and is probably also employed chiefly by the factory owner. Our difficulty arises, therefore, in the factory owner more or less controlling that area. Neither the Public Prosecutor nor the magistrate really do their job.

B-1061. What do you suggest in regard to over-working in seasonal factories?—One or two adequate punishments, such as heavy fines or imprisonments would very quickly stop it.

B-1062. The difficulty is in getting convictions and proper punishments. What particular method of control would you suggest in those cases, in order to obviate the difficulty which presents itself?—I would suggest in the first place that the Department should have its own Public Prosecutor, and the magistrate should assuredly be either the District Magistrate or the Deputy Commissioner.

B-1063. You mention that women take their children with them to work, and that when you passed an order stopping that they came and complained to you. Suppose a creche were instituted outside the factory: would the women be averse to leaving their children there?—They would; I have made arrangements in one or two places, but I have found the women do not like to leave their children.

B-1064. Suppose the creche were in the factory?—Then the dust would be bad for the children.

B-1065. At which places did you try this?—At Lyallpore and Ajmere, but they are not working satisfactorily?

B-1066. What is the arrangement in the creche?—A fairly healthy shed is put aside. There is water, a good floor, and a woman is told off to look after the children.

B-1067. Have you tried supplying free milk?—No.

B-1068. That might be an inducement?—It might be. We might get more children than actually belonged to the factory workers.

B-1069. I notice there is a good deal of indebtedness. Would I be correct in saying that the average worker in the Punjab is really living on next month's wages?—I should not like to say how far that is true. It works both ways. I know of instances where an employer has taken over a good *mistris* complete with his debts in order to get him.

B-1070. You make the statement that the figures of average wages are misleading. Will you explain that?—I get at the end of the year a statement from each factory showing the wages paid to the individual workers. Then I make an average of that for my Report. It is true that a blacksmith in Lahore City gets more pay than a blacksmith in the country. Again, a carpenter in a centre like Jhelum would earn very much more than he would do in the country. What I find is that a man may start as a blacksmith in a factory. He goes up possibly a rupee a month per year. He still calls himself a blacksmith. He is probably getting Rs. 75 or 100 per month. I find that on one statement. The next statement says a blacksmith is worth Rs. 25. Striking an average is not helpful.

B-1071. Would you consider that the wages of that particular type of worker are living wages?—As he lives at present, yes.

B-1072. As he lives at present it is not very good for him?—I think his conditions of living might be improved. He might improve them for himself very much.

B-1073. You talk about efficiency, and the foreign worker being more efficient. Are not the factors which govern efficiency, good housing, education, good food, and other amenities for a decent existence?—Yes.

B-1074. Would I be correct in saying that in the majority of cases these factors are lacking amongst the workers?—The housing is certainly not very good. I know nothing about their food, but I think the worker himself could help himself a good deal by becoming more skilled. I find very little ambition among the workers to get up into a better position.

B-1075. Are there any arrangements made for his training?—There are one or two industrial training centres. We have 23 industrial schools at present.

B-1076. What is the number of students who attend those classes?—(Dr. Rawley) We have at present on the rolls 4,000 students.

B-1077. Is the system of promotion based on efficiency, or is there no system of promotion? I am referring to a matter which probably is outside your competence, namely, the workshops at Lahore where up to a certain limit a man gets Rs. 2-8-0 a day and thereafter even if he were to put in 20 years' service he does not get any promotion?—I do not think that is so; the man working for Rs. 2-8-0, and knowing that he is worth more, will not stick to his job for a long time.

B-1078. We know numerous cases of that kind where the limit is Rs. 2-8-0 and the man cannot get beyond that. Would it not improve his efficiency if a better system of promotion were instituted?—That I cannot say, as far as the railway workshops are concerned. In private-owned factories I find that a fitter, a mechanic or a carpenter, when he feels that he is really efficient in his job, leaves one factory and goes to another if he likes.

B-1079. In your memorandum you mention a case where a fine of Rs. 45 was inflicted on an employer for not guarding the main line shaft alley, which is a very serious matter as it may endanger life. Would I be correct, therefore, in saying that the average employer considers the Punjabi's life worth Rs. 45?—Some employers, I am afraid, do. Since the Workmen's Compensation Act came into force I have heard one or two employers who told me deliberately that they are not in favour of employing well-paid men because in case of accidents they would have to pay more as compensation.

B-1080. Would you recommend that every employee should be compulsorily insured by the employer?—Yes, I would.

B-1081. *Mr. Cliff*: In the flour mills I understand that there are two shifts and each worker gets rest for two hours during his period of 12 hours of

duty. Have you any means of ensuring that that is strictly carried out?—At the beginning of each month a flour mill or an oil mill that works on this system sends on to me a copy of their proposed register for that month, showing the names of the persons who will work from a certain hour to a certain hour and will take rest from either 12 to 2 or from 2 to 4 as the case may be; when I go to inspect the mill I can take with me my copy of the register—a duplicate copy of which is also kept in the mill—and can go round and find out whether a man is actually on duty when he should be or should not be.

B-1082. Such registers are sent to you monthly?—Yes; but if there is a change after the register is sent on to me, I get a notice of the change, that such and such a man is ill or has changed his duty and will work at another period or from a certain date to a certain date; actually, I think that two hours rest is mostly given.

B-1083. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Can it be split up into two halves of an hour each?—It is not usually done.

B-1084. You have no objection if it is done?—No, provided not less than one hour is given at a time. When once a flour mill has started production it requires very few men to look after it; it could almost easily halve that staff.

B-1085. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Dealing with the question of offences under the Factories Act you recommend the appointment of a special Prosecutor. Is it because your present Prosecutor is not getting sufficient convictions that you make this recommendation?—The present Prosecutor has very little knowledge of the Factories Act inasmuch as he might only get one or two cases in a year; apart from that, the biggest trouble is that he is also a local barrister.

B-1086. From your annual report for the last year I find that out of a total of 130 cases instituted only in 8 cases were the accused acquitted. From this one can assume that your prosecuting officers have done their duty?—I would not say that; I never make a case against a factory unless I am almost perfectly sure of gaining a conviction.

B-1087. You have given us some very interesting facts regarding the prosecutions you instituted during recent years. Taking the first of the instances enumerated by you, I see that the employer was fined Rs. 45 for each of the two offences committed by him, that is to say, Rs. 90. He could have been fined at least Rs. 1,000 if the Magistrate cared?—Yes.

B-1088. In one instance the employer was fined Rs. 1,250; he could have been fined Rs. 4,000 if the Magistrate cared?—That is so.

B-1089. So the responsibility of inflicting light fines rests on the Magistrate?—Not absolutely; because the Public Prosecutor is there to press his case if he feels so disposed to. In this particular case, I myself attended the court for three days and gave evidence as a result of which I gained a fine of Rs. 1,250. The case immediately went to the Sessions Judge who without hearing any of us reduced the fine to Rs. 400.

B-1090. *Mr. Sastri*: You did not attend the Sessions Court?—No.

B-1091. *Sir Alexander Murray*: For inflicting small fines it is the judicial side that has to be blamed?—Chiefly.

B-1092. You say in your memorandum "There is nothing in the Act, which provides for an enhanced sentence for the repetition of an offence: hence no mention of the offences having been committed before, is legally permissible in the complaint." If I am a thief and you haul me up before a Magistrate you do not, till after I am found guilty, tell the Magistrate that I have been a thief a hundred times before and should get a heavier sentence?—That is true.

B-1903. What is the difference between an employer of labour and a thief if you are going to try a case on its merits; that is to say, surely you desire that cases where an employer is charged with an offence should be tried on their merits?—Exactly.

B-1094. Therefore the fact that previous convictions have not been mentioned in the complaint is no handicap in proving the case. After securing a conviction against an employer for his contravention of the Act is it the custom then to say "this employer last year or previous to that was fined and found guilty of the same offence; therefore I ask for a heavier punishment this time"?—I do that when I am in the court myself.

B-1095. I think it is the duty of the Public Prosecutor to tell the Magistrate, after he has found the man guilty, about his previous convictions and to press for a heavy sentence. Do you do it?—I do it, but I have been informed by the Public Prosecutor that it is quite an illegal procedure.

B-1096. Is it or is it not legal?—I have to take the word of the Public Prosecutor who is the legal authority.

B-1097. And he says that you should put that into the complaint before the man is tried?—No; he says it will not do any good at all. Some cases have been turned down as a result of my putting it into the complaint.

B-1098. To get a proper opinion on this important point, did you bring it to the notice of the Government and the Legal Remembrancer?—Not that deliberate point, but I have sent the whole proceedings to the Government on more than one occasion; in fact, in every case in which I thought an inadequate fine had been awarded I have sent the entire case to the Government.

B-1099. If I were a Factory Inspector what I would have done would be to wait till the man was convicted and then tell the Magistrate that he was previously found guilty of the same offence, and press for the Magistrate not fining him Rs. 20 but Rs. 2,000?—That I do, but I do not get much change out of the Magistrate.

B-1100. Do you think it is a reasonable proposition that while the case is going on it should be put in the complaint that the man had committed the same offence before?—No; it does not sound reasonable.

B-1101. You said that in seasonal factories the workers really do not know what the working hours are. Does that also apply to the factories that start at a particular time and close at a particular time?—No.

B-1102. Is it your experience that notwithstanding their illiteracy, the workers, generally speaking, know when they should be at the factory?—In the bigger textile or perennial factories, the worker, to a very great extent, knows when he should come and when he should go.

B-1103. From the statement given by you, Dr. Rawley, in your memorandum with regard to the registration of trade unions, I find it mentioned in the case of the North-Western Railway Union that at the time of registration their membership was 5,000; on the 31st of March 1928 the number again stood at 5,000 and the same was the case on the 31st of March 1929. To me it is an extraordinary coincidence to say the least of it. When you got those returns did it not occur to you that it was an extraordinary coincidence?—Yes, it did.

B-1104. Did you not feel justified in asking for an explanation?—We have to accept their statement.

B-1105. At the time of registration they might put their number at 5,000; on the 31st March following they might put it at 15,000 and 150,000 on the 31st March succeeding. So far as you are concerned you merely accept the figures?—That is so.

B-1106. *The Chairman*: Do you not check the numbers with the audit returns?—We do; but the statement as presented to our office we have to accept unless there is some doubt or we get a complaint.

B-1107. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: What do you do when there is a difference between the number furnished by the union and the audit statement?—We write to the President or to any of the office bearers to explain the discrepancy.

B-1108. Therefore you do not necessarily accept the figure furnished by the union?—We have to check the number on the rolls with the statement given to us by the auditor.



B-1109. *The Chairman:* Is there any penalty inflicted on the Secretary of the Trade Union who sends to you a wrong return?—I think there is.

B-1110. *Sir Alexander Murray:* How do you know whether he has or has not sent you a wrong return until you check it?—As a rule one has to accept it unless there is something substantially wrong with the union or we hear any complaints about it.

B-1111. There is no reason why the local Government should not appoint local Magistrates, Medical Officers of Health, Directors of Industry or anybody else who is directly or indirectly interested in factory administration?—They have done to a very great extent. All District Magistrates are inspectors under the Act. Certain revenue assistants, Extra Assistant Commissioners, and three assistants of the Public Health Department and certain Sub-divisional Officers have already been notified for certain sections; that is regarding health and sanitation.

B-1112. Do they send returns to you with regard to factory inspection?—Yes. The number of inspections made by *ex-officio* officers during last year was forty.

B-1113. Do you bring them out in your factory inspector's report?—Yes; and Government last year commented on the fact. They said that they were pleased to note that *ex-officio* inspectors were taking a slightly more interest in inspections.

B-1114. So that, if the Government choose to put more pressure on *ex-officio* inspectors, you could get much more efficient factory inspection in the Punjab?—I am not prepared to say that the inspection would be more efficient; in fact I think it would not.

(The witnesses withdrew.)

**PUNJAB**  
**EIGHTH MEETING**  
**AMRITSAR**

**Tuesday, 29th October, 1929.**

**PRESENT:**

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

The Rt. Hon. V.S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.O.

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).

Lala HARKISHAN LAL, Bar.-at-Law.

Mr. W. R. TAYLOR, Director, East India  
Carpet Company, Amritsar.

Mr. M. A. GHANI, Bar.-at-Law.

Dr. KARAM CHAND HITESHI.

Mrs. DAGMAR CURJEL WILSON. } (*Lady Assessors.*)

Miss SIRAJ-UD-DIN. }

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. }

Mr. A. DIBDIN. } (*Joint Secretaries.*)

(*Assistant  
Commissioners.*)

**Mr. GEORGE STEVENS and Mr. GERALD ALFRED DAVIES, of  
the East India Carpet Company, Limited, Amritsar.**

B-1115. *The Chairman:* Mr. Stevens, I understand you are the Managing Director of the East India Carpet Company, Limited, Amritsar?—Yes, I am.

B-1116. And that your company has four factories in Amritsar with a total of 267 looms out of which 93 are working?—That is right.

B-1117. You told us that the labour is paid on a piece-work basis, that the master weaver earns wages which vary from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 per mensem?—That is correct.

B-1118. Is that apart from the payment of the boys or does the payment of the wages include the payment of the boys?—It does not include the payment of the boys; that is the minimum amount of money which remains with the master weaver.

B-1119. But the master weaver pays the boys?—Yes, and the master weaver will earn more than that during the month.

B-1120. Out of which he pays the boys?—Yes.

B-1121. Does he pay the boys at his own sweet will or is there an agreed rate?—I think there is more or less an arranged tariff. It is not really a tariff, but it is arranged by the master weaver when he engages the boys.

B-1122. Do you find that in your four factories the payments to the boys are uniform or do they vary?—They are about uniform. The boys go on getting more as they are put in more efficient work.

B-1123. You told us that your factories are open really from day-light to dusk?—Yes.

B-1124. And that the people can work all that time if they please?—Yes, if they wish to; they are at liberty to work all that time.

B-1125. I take it that when they once begin on a carpet they work pretty steadily to get that carpet completed?—Not always; some of them do; some of them are slack and do not work so fast. They close for every holiday, both Hindu and Muhammadan, although they are Muhammadans; they are always ready to take advantage of a holiday.

B-1126. But the actual payment until the carpet is finished presumably is made by measurement?—Yes, it is made by measurement and then there will be a reckoning up when the carpet is completed.

B-1127. Therefore those who are anxious to get more money will put in more work?—Yes.

B-1128. But it may happen that after one carpet is completed on a loom there will be a considerable gap before another carpet is set up?—As a rule when business is good, there is not much of a gap. There is a gap of possibly three or four days. A certain amount of time is then occupied in preparing the warps for the new carpet.

B-1129. By the same men?—Yes; there is always a loss of two or three days' time.

B-1130. Then the master weavers do prepare their own warps?—Yes.

B-1131. Are the boys engaged then?—Yes, the boys are engaged too, but that is very easy work.

B-1132. As you know, there have been questions from time to time about bringing these carpet factories under the Factories Act?—Yes.

B-1133. I understand that the employers are afraid of a step of that kind?—I do not think "afraid" is the right word.

B-1134. What would you say?—We are not afraid of coming under the Factories Act, but it would certainly change the industry; there is every probability that if the carpet factories come under the Factories Act, the industry will become a cottage industry as it is in other places in India. For instance, in Mirzapur district it is all a cottage industry. There would then be absolutely no control of child labour.

B-1135. I take it what really has happened is that you have brought what was once a cottage industry into the organisation of these factories?—That I could not say, because the idea of a carpet factory was already existing when I came to India. I have only been in India since the beginning of 1923. At that time the industry in the Punjab was already in the shape of carpet factories. I think it has been brought into carpet factories because the weavers were not sufficiently reliable to be trusted to weave in their own houses; and apart from that they have got no capital.

B-1136. Is there not another advantage in concentration; control of designs?—It would mean greater difficulty in controlling the looms, but nevertheless that is the way we do it in Persia.

B-1137. I understand that before you came to India you were in Persia?—I was in Persia for 21 years.

B-1138. For this same company?—No, for a different company, but I have been there lately for the same company for five months; I have just come back from Kerman.

B-1139. This East India Carpet Company has allied businesses in Persia, Greece and Turkey?—Yes.

B-1140. In each of those countries are different kinds of carpets produced?—We try and keep them as different as possible so as not to have the different companies competing with one another. Persian carpets are entirely different, but I am not prepared to say as much about Greek and Indian carpets.

B-1141. That is to say, that if the conditions were made difficult in one country you fear that it might result in carpets being made, say, in Greece instead of in this country?—Certainly it would. As a matter of fact that is what has happened with Greece and Turkey. Greece is just about to beat

Turkey because the Greek Government is helping as much as possible the carpet industry. We have been lately requested by the Italian Government to start carpet factories on the same plan in the Dodacanese Islands which belong to Italy.

B-1142. You have told us that medical facilities are provided; "a doctor visits the factories each fortnight and certifies the age of any new apprentice; no boy under nine years of age is admitted to apprenticeship"—Yes.

B-1143. Will you tell us exactly what that means?—No boy under nine years of age is allowed to enter the factory. They can come there and play about if they like if they come with their fathers; but they are not allowed to work and they do not work.

B-1144. But if you are under the Factories Act that age would be raised from 9 to 12?—Yes.

B-1145. Do you think that the difference between 9 and 12 would make an appreciable difference?—I think it would because a lot of the weavers employ their own sons. For instance, a man who had three sons would only have two working.

B-1146. You are no doubt aware that in England it was thought in a similar kind of operation that a child of 10 was quite necessary and that the industry would be ruined if they could not employ children under 10? But they have found that when it was raised to 12 and 13 the industry did not happen to be ruined?—Yes. But at the same time I do not think Great Britain was faced with the same competitions as we are.

B-1147. In your written statement you say that "one very unusual feature of this industry is the absence of indebtedness to money-lenders, as advances without interest are afforded by the company when necessary". Since when have you been able to carry out that reform?—When I first came here I refused to give advances. Other companies were giving advances but I wanted to work without advances. I found it difficult to do so and I think, it was in 1924 that I decided to allow advances.

B-1148. Are you quite sure that the result of your action is that none of your men are indebted?—I have never had any complaints about money-lenders. At our mills at Chheharta I have known of our men being in debt to money-lenders; there was one case which came into my hands and I had to settle the debt to get rid of the money-lender.

B-1149. I take it that this arrangement of yours only affects the master weavers?—Yes.

B-1150. It is not in any regular form a credit society?—No, it is not in any regular form; we only give advances of course when we know the master weaver is going to weave a carpet for us; then if he needs an advance the amount of the advance is discussed with him and paid over. It is repaid gradually from the wages of the man. Sometimes a balance is carried on from one carpet to another carpet, but there is nothing binding in it; it does not mean that the weaver is bound to take a new carpet from us. Provided he refunds us what he owes us he is at liberty to go and work with any one.

B-1151. That does not make quite sure that the man has no other debts to the *bantia*?—If he has other debts we soon find it out because the weaver does not come to work if he is pressed for money. My sincere opinion is that there are no other debts.

B-1152. *Mr. Sastri*: Do you generally have these carpets made to order, or do you have them made on the chance of finding a market?—Up to about two years ago all our carpets were made to order; but during the last two years we have been working, as you say, on the chance of finding a market.

B-1153. You say a great many of your looms are idle?—We have got 93 looms working out of 267—that is because we have not found the market.

B-1154. We did not seem to see many looms idle; I suppose they are elsewhere?—We have two factories which are closed; one has two looms working, the other is entirely closed.

B-1155. You said that your men are comparatively speaking free from debt. You do not include the children in that category, do you?—No, I am talking about the master weavers.

B-1156. But you know nothing about the children?—I have got some idea that the children are indebted to the master weaver. The master weaver pays an advance to the parents to get the children when they are not, of course, his own relatives. If they are his own relatives there is no advance made, but in certain cases if the master weaver wants to have what they call *shagirds* he pays them something in advance. That is what happens everywhere, in Persia, Greece and Turkey.

B-1157. Whom does he pay it?—I suppose it is to the father of the child, but I am not certain.

B-1158. You have no knowledge?—I could not say that exactly.

B-1159. What is the number of children employed in these factories under you; do you know?—I am afraid I have not got the figures.

B-1160. Would it be something like 500?—No.

B-1161. Not so many?—On 93 looms I have not got 500 weavers all told. I may have on an average four men per loom.

B-1162. But every weaver has 3 or 4 children?—Yes, but of the four children two will be above 14.

B-1163. I suppose the children we saw to-day are the only children that come daily. Are there any children that we did not see?—Our factory has been shown to you as it is every day. No one has been sent away from the factory and no one has been introduced.

B-1164. How much would a master weaver lend to the parent to get the labour of the children; we are interested in the children and we should like to know how the children go into the factory and how they fare there?—I have my Indian assistant here who can give the information. (Indian Assistant) Sometimes they advance Rs. 100, sometimes Rs. 50 and sometimes Rs. 25.

B-1165. Is there any document that passes from the weaver to the parents?—Sometimes they take an agreement from their parents to work. The advance is not deducted continually but it is deducted by the instalment system.

B-1166. It is of some interest to us to know the nature of this transaction?—Deductions are fixed according to a certain period. When the loan is entered into there are two ways in which the money can be taken back. One is that he has got to work right through his period; the other is that an advance is paid to him and according to the agreement one rupee or two rupees are deducted as the payments are made to the boy.

B-1167. Are these advances usually recovered in the shape of wages regularly, or has the master weaver sometimes to go to court to recover the money from the parent?—Very seldom.

B-1168. That is to say the children labour faithfully?—Yes, faithfully. The other system is that if the child leaves and goes to another employer the other employer will pay the debt.

B-1169. During the time that the child is under a master weaver who feeds the child?—His parents.

B-1170. So that the children go to the parents every day for their meals?—Yes.

B-1171. If the children are playful, and not quick in learning or do not diligently do their work, how does the weaver get work from them?—By punishing them.

B-1172. What sort of punishment?—A slight beating.

B-1173. Beating in what way; is it on the hand?—On the hand and sometimes with a stick.

B-1174. *Mr. Ghani*: And with shoes too?—(*Mr. Stevens*) Sometimes. I have never seen any sticks used in our factories, but I have seen weavers slapping the boys.

B-1175. *Mr. Sastri*: To-day I have seen the very stick used. And a man of about 35 told me he had grown up with marks all over his body of the beatings that he had: he did not complain; he said "it is the regular way" and he thought it was the proper thing.—I suppose he was beaten by the stick 25 years ago, if he is 35 years of age now; but the use of the stick has certainly been abolished in our factories; I have never seen a stick there: but I have seen master weavers slapping the boys. I was slapped when I was a boy too.

B-1176. We have been told how the slapping is done and have seen also the instruments used to slap the boys. Have you seen any of these agreements?—(*Indian Assistant*) Yes; usually they are entered into a book.

B-1177. When such a document is filed in a court, does the court recognize it; I mean is it regarded as a valid and legal document?—The court has held them valid.

B-1178. Do you know if the children's names are mentioned there?—I think so; the children's fathers' names are mentioned; it is said that the father has made his son work with such and such weaver.

B-1179. Are the wages mentioned?—Yes.

B-1180. Are the hours of labour mentioned?—No.

B-1181. So this agreement which is the common basis of labour in these factories is a document purporting to proceed from a father to a weaver and pledging out a child's labour for so many months and so much a day. How much a day would it be?—It is according to the intelligence of the boy; some are paid 6 annas some Re. 1. (*Mr. Stevens*) I should say an average of 8 annas to 10 annas a day.

B-1182. Five annas is mentioned in this book?—I am talking about our factories.

B-1183. As it is from your factory that I got this document so this is the way in which labour is engaged from day-to-day here; apart from the master weaver the bulk of the labour in these factories is that of children engaged on term similar to these?—(*Indian Assistant*) Yes.

B-1184. The children are therefore pledged to the weavers for a certain period?—Yes. (*Mr. Stevens*) I do not think it is correct to say the bulk of the weavers' children because a good part of these children are above 14 years.

B-1185. Above 14 years you would not call them children?—No.

B-1186. Will some one translate this document?

*Diwan Chaman Lall*: "I, Booter son of Chakli, Chowkidar of Amritsar, owe Rs. 57 odd, of which half is Rs. 28-8-0, which I have borrowed from Booty, weaver, in advance. I agree that my grandsons N and F, should be handed over for the purposes of carpet weaving. N is to get Rs. 9 per month and F is to get Rs. 7 per month. I will take the wages monthly. I will not break this agreement. If I break this agreement I will return all the money I have borrowed to the man who has lent it to me."

B-1187. *Mr. Sastri*: Nothing is said about the children's feeding or their play-time or their time for study?

*Diwan Chaman Lall*: Nothing.

B-1188. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What is the date of that document?

*Diwan Chaman Lall*: The date is 2nd October 1929.

B-1189. *The Chairman*: Has that document been held by the Courts to give a claim to the work of these children for an indefinite period?—(*Indian Assistant*) No decision has been taken in regard to the services of these children; the decision was in regard to the loan, that this is a valid loan. If he does not pay this money back it can be recovered by means of a decree.

B-1190. *Mr. Sastri*: When they speak of a certain amount a month, does that mean that the boys have to labour every day, or do they get some holidays?—They will get their wages for which they work; if they are absent they will not get wages for those days, but there are certain instances in which they fix the labour for the month. And if it is arranged that they should pay Rs. 9, they pay Rs. 9 a month even though the boys have been absent four or five days.

B-1191. Have you known of cases in which the children run away from the work to play or to loiter?—Yes.

B-1192. How are they brought back?—Sometimes their parents bring them; the master weavers do not look after them because they will not waste their time.

B-1193. *Mr. Stevens*, you are not aware of the nature of this agreement?—(*Mr. Stevens*) I have never seen it; I hear about it now for the first time.

B-1194. How long have you been here?—I have been in Amritsar six years.

B-1195. And during those six years you have had this labour in your factory and known nothing about the basis of it?—I have had nothing to do with the children. I have only to deal with the carpet weavers.

B-1196. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Have you had artificial light of any kind in the factories?—Sometimes we have had the electric light when it was a case of making special carpets; we have had two or three shifts of workmen and work at nights.

B-1197. When I went there I did not see any lights?—They might not be there because we do not keep them on looms when we are not working.

B-1198. If you are working at nights what power lights do you use?—We use 50 candle power electric lights. It has been the case when we have had to make carpets for Delhi for Viceregal Lodge and the carpets have to be made for very urgent delivery; we have employed three shifts, some of the men working at night. We instal electric light on that particular loom. As soon as the carpet is finished the electric light is taken off.

B-1199. We have been told that normally you work from day-light to dark. There is nothing to prevent any factory working 24 hours?—It is said that weavers will not work.

B-1200. Have they a Factories Act or any regulation in Persia?—The League of Nations have sent a sort of Commission to Persia. I have been away to Persia and have come back to Amritsar only 10 days ago. The League of Nations have complained very bitterly about the conditions in the factories in Persia; it must be admitted that the factories in Kerman where I have just been are much better than they used to be; they are better ventilated and cleaner; and the cases of deformed spines in the girls in Kerman are fewer than they were. I was talking to the O. M. S. Mission Doctors in Kerman, and I think they told me, though I am not certain of the figure, that the cases had gone down from 100 to 15. So far as working hours in Persia are concerned, a lot of promises were made but none were kept.

B-1201. Do they work from day-light to dark in Persia, or do they use light at night?—They do not work at night because kerosene is too expensive and the weaver cannot afford to have light on his looms.

B-1202. Therefore a girl or a boy working in Persia is limited to the hours from morn to night?—He is limited to the sun-light hours. In certain parts of Persia you have mild weather in winter which enables the people to weave the whole year round, but in the north of Persia the temperature goes down to as low as 25° fahrenheit below zero and the looms are practically closed for three months sometimes because the weavers cannot handle the yarns, their fingers become frozen.

B-1203. In Persia the conditions prevent the boys and girls working more than 8 hours?—In certain parts they can commence at 4 o'clock in the morning and finish late at night.

B-1204. All the year round?—Not all the year round. The days are shorter in winter, but you get longer days in Kerman.

B-1205. How short are days in winter?—In winter they can work 8 to 10 hours a day easily when the weather is very mild.

B-1206. And in Turkey?—I cannot tell you; I have never been in Turkey.

B-1207. And in Greece?—I could not tell you.

B-1208. *Mr. Ahmed*: Your contractor advances money in order to get a supply of labour without any trouble?—Yes.

B-1209. And he advances money in order that the labourer may not run away without doing work according to the terms of the contract?—I do not think that is the idea; I think he really advances money because the parent of the labourer needs money, or wishes to have money. I do not think it is to prevent the small workers from running away.

B-1210. Rs. 7 or Rs. 9 a month is a very low rate of wages considering as you say that you sometimes pay Re. 1 per day?—Some of them are paid Re. 1 per day. There are 25 working days in the month.

B-1211. You have said just now that the average is 10 annas per day?—I think so.

B-1212. It is not your concern whether the contractor pays them liberally?—That does not concern us; we only work with the contractors. I have been into the matter when the case with regard to placing carpet factories under the Factories Act came up and the wages which the boys were getting in our factories. From the information which I received I gathered that the wages came to 6 annas to Re. 1 a day. I therefore took 10 annas as an average. I may be mistaken.

B-1213. Probably you will agree with me that in view of these conditions being contained in the agreement which has just been translated, the people are afraid to go away without fulfilling the conditions and the terms of the contract?—Well, I suppose the man who made the contract feels it to be his duty to fulfil it.

B-1214. Is your firm an old firm?—I think our firm is the oldest carpet firm in the world. I am not speaking of the East India Carpet Company but our mother company.

B-1215. I suppose you have been making very good profits?—We have been making good profits for two years, but we have reduced our capital enormously the first year we were in India.

B-1216. Nine-tenths of your business consists in supplying America with carpets?—That was so up to two years ago; it has not been so for the last two years.

B-1217. Is that the reason why you do not pay higher rates to the contractors?—We have paid a higher wage than any company has paid, and the rates of the contractors have gone up threefold in the last 15 or 20 years. Rates have not gone up threefold in Persia, Turkey or Greece; Greece may now be on the same level as India. India is the place where the highest carpet weaving rates are paid, and the Punjab is the highest in India.

B-1218. And in spite of that you have started four factories here?—We have started four factories in the Punjab; we have had in the Punjab 203 looms, but we had, I think, 860 all over India which we have brought to a standstill. I am keeping the wages where they were before.

B-1219. What were the wages before; were they more than Rs. 7 or 9 per month?—I am talking about what I pay for weaving my carpets. Years ago the master weaver used to get half an anna for a thousand stitches. Now it has gone up to 1½ annas. Therefore I am justified in saying that the wages of the master weaver are three times what they were. I do not know what the master weaver does with his boys, but I take it for granted that the salaries of the boys have gone up.

B-1220. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Have you ever reduced the rates?—The rates were reduced once when there was a strike before our time. Our com-



pany has only been in existence since September 1922. The rates were once reduced by a company which was afterwards incorporated in our company. That was on account of the strike. Now the rates have been restored to what they were before.

B-1221. When did you restore the rates?—(Indian Assistant) They were paid 2 annas.

B-1222. When was that?—In 1917, when prices were very high.

B-1223. The rate was put up to 2 annas?—Yes.

B-1224. How long did it remain at 2 annas?—For 1½ years.

B-1225. When was it reduced?—In 1921. (Mr. Stevens) That was before my time. We came here in September 1922. When we came here the rate was 1 anna 3 pies; we put it up to 1½ annas which was the rate before the strike took place.

B-1226. Mr. Ahmed: I take it the master weaver pays at the lower rate and takes the higher rate?—I suppose he will take as much as he can for himself and give as little as he can to his labourers.

B-1227. If the wages were paid direct by your firm to the labourer he would get more money?—I do not know that would be so, because a trained man should be paid more than an untrained man.

B-1228. If payments were made directly by you to the labourer instead of to the master weaver, I suppose the labourer would be paid properly?—The labourer would have been paid properly but a skilled man will always get more than an unskilled man. There would have to be a schedule of rates.

B-1229. You have not got that sort of thing?—No.

B-1230. With regard to hours of work: we went to your factory and asked some of these boys how many hours they worked. Most of them told us that they worked from 6 o'clock in the morning till 7 o'clock in the evening?—(Mr. Davies) The factory opens at 6 o'clock in the morning. When a weaver comes along to start his work the door is open and he is admitted; that does not necessarily mean that he goes and sits at a loom straightaway and starts putting in stitches. Many of them have not bathing facilities in their own houses and they come to the factory where ample facilities are provided. There are two water taps there; they bathe and wash, and generally start work when there is sufficient light, which is about 7 o'clock on days like this.

B-1231. So that you have provided quarters for them with all the facilities?—Yes.

B-1232. I suppose they would prefer to stay in your factory rather than go home?—(Mr. Stevens) The children are happier in the rest time playing in the courtyard of our factory than in their homes.

B-1233. And you like that sort of thing?—To me it is indifferent whether they play in the courtyard or my factory or in the street or in the house. But I think they are much happier playing in the courtyard of the factory than in the street. Comparing it with the street I think the children can play better in the courtyard and there is no objection to it.

B-1234. There is no provision for a supply of drinking water?—There is; we have kept pumping station water which we all drink in our houses without filtering it; I do not see how they can get better water.

B-1235. Would it not be better to have a system of working four hours in the morning and four in the afternoon?—It certainly would be more regular than the irregular hours which they keep now, which may be six hours one day, eight hours another day and nothing the day after.

B-1236. Would it be better to have fixed hours of work during the day, not in one stretch?—Regular hours of work would suit me much better. But I do not know that it would suit them.

B-1237. Mr. Cliff: In answer to a question put by the Chairman as to whether the Factories Act should be applied to carpet factories I understood you to say that the result would be that the carpet industry would become a

cottage industry?—Probably it would, though one never knows what will take place. You may restrict us to eight or ten hours and enforce the Factories Act; it is impossible to say at this stage what will happen. It may become a cottage industry. In my opinion the probabilities are that that would be the result or the industry may cease to exist. It may either kill the industry or transform it into a cottage industry. In any event it will not remain as it is.

B-1238. Do you mean that there is a possibility of the East India Company going out of business?—It may be so; it all depends on foreign competition. Persia is producing carpets considerably cheaper than we can produce here.

B-1239. Can you tell me the approximate number of boys who will be employed on these 93 looms?—I could not tell you; I should say that on the 93 looms we must have about 350 people working and there may be 100 boys. I am giving you figures at random. I can get you accurate figures if you like by getting statistics made in the factory.

*The Chairman:* I think our observation was that roughly speaking there were one boy and two older youths on the average per loom.

B-1240. *Mr. Cliff:* On previous visits that have been made there is a statement that one may take it that usually four to eight boys are employed on a loom. I want to know whether that would represent the position in your factory?—We have had visits from the Factory Inspectors and two years ago sometime in the summer I took the Deputy Commissioner round at about 7 o'clock in the morning without giving warning to anybody; we went there on the sly to see the number of boys there. We did not see more than about one boy in three.

B-1241. The note we have says that the wages earned by a master weaver vary from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 per mensem.—A loom produces about 12 yards a month on which the wages paid are about Rs. 7 per yard; so that the wages earned on a loom will come to about Rs. 84 a month for three to four people weaving. Sometimes they weave much more, but if the master weaver gets Rs. 30, the other Rs. 54 is divided between two or three boys. The master weaver may make Rs. 40 and the boys Rs. 44; but our average weaving in Amritsar is 12 square yards of our standard cloth per month per loom of four men for which we pay Rs. 7 per standard yard.

B-1242. *The Chairman:* I believe it is customary to speak of them all as boys if they are not master-weavers?—Yes, they are all called *chokras* here, weaving boys. The master weaver will be paid an average of Rs. 84 a month; that is for him and three other weavers. We have woven much faster than that, but on an average we calculate one 9 ft. by 12 ft. carpet per month per loom.

B-1243. *Mr. Cliff:* Would you say that the average earning is Rs. 84 per month for a master weaver?—Between Rs. 80 and Rs. 84. That was so up to last year in the Punjab; they may now be weaving slower or faster.

B-1244. You say there is an unusual feature of this industry and that is the absence of indebtedness. At the same time you say there is much under-employment.—I am talking about them when they are in employment, but of course when they leave our factories and are unemployed, the probability is that they will go and borrow money. We have had exceedingly few cases of weavers leaving us; as a matter of fact we have had practically no cases of weavers leaving us except to go and work in another carpet factory.

B-1245. You say you have 267 looms?—Yes.

B-1246. Can you tell me when the majority of these looms were being worked?—They were in full work up to about 18 months to two years ago.

B-1247. You have closed two factories. Are those men likely to be engaged by other carpet factories in Amritsar?—Some of them have, but not many. I have had no time to see what the other carpet factories are doing, but from the letters I have from everywhere I think there is a general crisis

high has affected India much more than other countries and I do not think many of the weavers we have lost have found work in other factories.

B-1248. Have you made advances to the weavers who are unemployed?—No, we have not. If we did the probabilities are that we should never get the money back. (Mr. Davies) We have made advances to some of them.

B-1249. *Mr. Ghani*: Have you got the money back?—No, we have not. We are willing to provide them with work until they have worked off the advances, but they do not want to come back. Most of these men are working in other factories. (Mr. Stevens) They will come back to us, I think, when they have finished their work in the other factories, to redeem the advances.

B-1250. *Mr. Cliff*: Have you any security for the advances?—(Mr. Davies) None at all.

B-1251. Is there a definite break in the factory for meals?—Yes, from 2 to 1.

B-1252. Do you turn them from their looms?—No, we do not turn them out; some go home and some have their midday meal on the loom.

B-1253. So that it may be that some of the boys are in the factory the whole of the day?—That is quite possible, but they are not there under compulsion; they can go home if they like. (Mr. Stevens) They leave the factory for many other reasons than getting their meals.

B-1254. You say they are not under compulsion. It does appear from the answers given that they are not under direction.—They are not under compulsion from us. I was speaking of the master weavers. Sometimes they do not come and the loom will be closed. When we ask the reason we are told that there has been a wedding; the whole loom goes to the wedding and you do not see them for a week. They go and come whenever they like; there is no compulsion.

B-1255. There is no compulsion and there is no regulation?—No; the factory is open to them, that is all.

B-1256. *Colonel Russell*: The position that these boys adopt when working at the loom is the normal squatting position; is it not?—Yes.

B-1257. So that there is nothing abnormal in the position they take up at the loom?—I do not think there is anything abnormal, but in Persia it has been found to be abnormal with very small girls. Little girls in Persia were put on the looms when they were two years old. We have made it a point that we are not going to have a single girl in the carpet factories. I mean that in the cottage industry we do not allow girls to be employed. The result of putting little girls of two years of age on the looms was that the hip bone never developed and that led to great trouble later on. I think I am right in saying that that has been stopped in Persia.

B-1258. You have never seen any such thing in India?—Never.

B-1259. Do you come across any cases of deformity of the spine among these boys?—In India, never; I have not seen any cases.

B-1260. Are there any other deformities?—I do not remember having seen any; I have seen it in Persia.

B-1261. What about flat foot?—I have never known such a thing.

B-1262. Your medical officer has never reported the appearance of any deformities among the boys in the factory?—I find they look just the same as other Indian boys who do not work in the factories.

B-1263. Has your medical officer ever reported to you any case of deformity?—No.

B-1264. What sanitary arrangements are provided in your factory?—Just the ordinary arrangements which they have in other factories under the Factories Act, I suppose.

B-1265. For instance how many latrine seats do you provide for those you employ?—(Mr. Davies) We have two latrines, ten seats.

B-1266. Do you employ women and girls?—(Mr. Stevens) Sometimes we have women for opening out yarns; they are in a separate compound.

B-1267. Then they will have separate sanitary conveniences?—Yes.

B-1268. I suppose in the hot weather these weaving sheds become very stuffy?—I do not think they become stuffier than other places in the town; they are well ventilated.

B-1269. How do you manage to ventilate them?—It is just the normal ventilation. There is always wind here. We do it by heightening the roof; but as a matter of fact in the hot weather they cover up the outside with curtains. They water the curtains. But the men do it themselves.

B-1270. It is your opinion that the ventilation of these sheds is satisfactory?—I consider it is.

B-1271. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Whenever a master weaver requires an advance it is you who give it to him?—We give it to him, yes. The factory advances a certain amount after discussion and after we have asked him how he is going to refund it; we come to some agreement.

B-1272. For instance, you want labour; you call in a master weaver and ask him to go and engage workers?—I do not ask him to engage workers; I tell him I have such and such a carpet and will he weave it for me.

B-1273. Suppose he then asks you for an advance for that purpose, you give it to him?—He does not ask me for an advance to get boys; he asks me for an advance, but he does not mention why he wants an advance. As a rule he has got boys because every master weaver carries his boys along with him. If he is a new weaver who has no boys he may ask for an advance in order to get boys.

B-1274. Mr. Sastri put a document to you. In that case I take it the advance did not come out of the pocket of the master weaver?—I do not know if that book comes from one of our factories or not, but if it does I have not seen the book; I do not know of the existence of the book. It is a weaver who has done the transaction; it has nothing to do with us.

B-1275. Suppose you have given the advance to a new master weaver who wants to get new boys; suppose he gets the advance from you and utilizes it for the purpose of getting these boys; in that case would you consider the master weaver to be your agent?—No, I know nothing about it; I do not see why the master weaver should become my agent.

B-1276. He is your agent in this sense that in order to get labour for you, you have advanced money and he again has advanced that from the money which you have advanced him.—I have not advanced him the money on the understanding that he is to get labour; I have advanced him money to weave a carpet for me. The two points are entirely different.

B-1277. A little while ago you told me that in the case of a new master weaver if he wants to get boys you do advance him money?—I do not say that in case he wants boys I do advance money. I do advance him money and he may use the money to get boys. It is not at all the same thing.

B-1278. You say there is no compulsion under which they are made to remain on in the factory?—I have not said there is no compulsion on the boys; I have said that I put no compulsion on any of the weavers. As far as I am concerned there is no compulsion whatever originating from me or my company. I do not know whether the weavers thrash their boys or not; they do not do it in my factory. If a weaver were caught thrashing a boy he would be turned out; but when it is a question of slapping a child's face, as I have said, I have been slapped many times and I expect I am much the better for it.

B-1279. You have not answered my question. It is your manager who made a statement that the boys are at liberty to come and go at any time they choose.—If my manager made that statement, I am afraid he has misworded his statement. The master weavers and the boys are at liberty to go as far as we are concerned: they can do what they like; but I cannot

guarantee that the master weaver will not tell a boy " Before going you have got to weave so many more stitches ".

B-1280. I may take it that what you say is this, that your statement does not apply to the actual workers; it only applies to the master weavers.—No, my statement applies to the labourers as well. It does not apply to the *chowkidars* who are paid monthly by me and have to stop there. My statement applies to the master weavers and the boys on the looms; they are free to go as far as I am concerned.

B-1281. But the boys may not depend entirely on themselves; they may depend on the weaver who gives instructions to the boys?—As far as we are concerned they are free; I have nothing to do with them.

B-1282. I am not attempting to foist the responsibility upon you; I am merely desirous of getting the facts. You mentioned that your *chowkidar* is employed by you on a monthly wage and has to remain in the factory?—Yes.

B-1283. Do you realize that these boys also are being employed on a monthly wage?—Not by me.

B-1284. Are they or are they not being employed on a monthly wage?—I am not satisfied that that contract which has been shown here is the one that prevails everywhere. That contract speaks of a monthly wage of Rs. 9; but I have an idea that some of the boys are paid according to the work they do and not a monthly wage.

B-1285. You have stated that if the Factories Act were applied it would possibly lead to the dispersal of this industry and would turn it into a cottage industry?—It might.

B-1286. Why do you say that?—My reasons are that the weavers may no longer be satisfied with the conditions prevailing and may start weaving in their own homes where they will not be under the Factories Act.

B-1287. Supposing a weaver who makes according to you Rs. 30 a month and works ten to twelve hours a day, is made to work nine hours a day and yet makes the same amount of money, what do you say?—The question would then remain to see whether the Indian business would be able to face the competition of Turkey.

B-1288. Now you are coming to the second point, but you agree with the first point that if the Factories Act were applied to these factories it would improve the conditions of work?—No. It would improve the welfare of the boys to a certain extent.

B-1289. That is sufficient for my purpose. Is your company a limited liability company and registered in India?—Yes.

B-1290. Can you present the Commission with your balance sheets for the last few years that you have been in operation in India?—Our company is a private company; it is not a public company.

B-1291. Would you be averse to telling us roughly what profits you have made since you started operations in Amritsar?—The profits we have made have not paid for the losses we have made. I do not think the application of the Factories Act would improve the factories. We have had two prosperous years, we have had one year without dividend and we have had another year with a reduction of capital. That is about as much as I am willing to state.

B-1292. With regard to holidays, do these people get Sunday off?—The factories are closed on Friday.

B-1293. For half a day or the whole day?—For the whole day. Sometimes a weaver will come in on Friday and go round. But 99 per cent. of the looms are idle the whole of Friday. Whenever there is a Hindu holiday all the Muhammadans are only too pleased to partake in it and whenever there is a Muhammadan holiday they close the factory as well. They are all Muhammadans with the exception of one loom which is worked by Hindus.

B-1294. Mr. Ghosi: In your factory the looms are worked in places with walls on three sides and open on one side?—Yes.

B-1295. Do you provide any fans?—No.

B-1296. Do you provide any heating arrangement in the places where they work?—No.

B-1297. Have you kept any schools specially for these children?—I was the first to suggest having a school in our factory. It was about four years ago that I suggested that to the Director of Industries. It was decided that the Municipality should give us a teacher, but the Municipality never gave us a teacher, we are still waiting for the teacher the Municipality is to give us.

B-1298. Did you suggest to the Municipality the opening of the school?—I suggested it to Dr. Rawley.

B-1299. Did you suggest it to the Municipality?—I suggested having a school at the factory you visited this morning and Dr. Rawley told us that certainly the Municipality would give us a teacher. The Municipality has not given us a teacher. I say quite frankly that I never expected much from the Municipality. We have got our mills which are under the Factories Act and we have a teacher there. They have a sort of canopy in the fields where the children are taught.

B-1300. Did you write and remind the Director of Industries of the promise to provide a school?—No, I have not written.

B-1301. I suppose there is no labour organization, no trade union of the master weavers or boys in your factory?—I do not think there is; I do not know. I have never had any bother with trade unions and labour unions and I know nothing about them.

B-1302. If one labour organization is formed, would you be averse to it?—I am afraid I do not like labour organizations.

B-1303. You have told us that there are two water taps in the factory. If your factory is in full swing how many people are employed?—Possibly 300 people. It would be very easy to put up ten more taps and I am quite willing to do so if necessary. But I think there are more than two. (Mr. Davies) That is only in one factory.

B-1304. Have you ever noticed that the boys get cuts on their hands from the knives they used?—(Mr. Stevens) The knife is so blunt that I do not think they could cut their fingers with it.

B-1305. I saw a boy this morning who had a number of cuts on his hand?—My son bought a pen-knife and cut himself with it seven times on the first day.

B-1305. *Mrs. Wilson*: You said that boys under nine years of age are not allowed in the factory. As a medical woman I am interested to learn how you know when they are nine?—The doctor comes and certifies their age.

B-1306. Who is the doctor employed by you?—Dr. Ram Rakamal, the Sub-Assistant Surgeon.

B-1307. He certifies that they are nine. Is there any other form of medical inspection of the children?—He goes there once a fortnight and sees everybody there.

B-1308. I myself work in a hospital in this town at times. I have been interested to see the deterioration of physique in your children as compared with the children who form hospital classes. You yourself said that you have never noticed anything about their legs?—I have never noticed that they were different from other children whom I have seen in other works or in the streets playing about.

B-1309. Do you mean in any other carpet works?—No, in any other works.

B-1310. I am accustomed to seeing the ordinary population that go to the hospital and they do not normally have these curves?—Possibly, but I am no doctor and I am afraid I have never noticed it.

B-1311. Have you any idea as to whether there is any eye strain among the children? My experience of Amritsar is that in the winter mornings it is distinctly dark up to about 10 o'clock.—When it is dark they do not come in; they do not start weaving until it is full light.

B-1312. As far as you know is there any evidence of any eye strain among the children?—Sometimes they get a little conjunctivitis and we treat them ourselves; we always have zinc solution, but I do not think there is any more conjunctivitis in our factories than anywhere else in Amritsar. As a matter of fact I am very friendly with the lady doctors of the hospital and they have never pointed out to me anything on the subject.

B-1313. Your factories here are situated within the municipal limits?—Yes.

B-1314. Have you had any assistance from the Medical Officer of Health in regard to the sanitary conditions in your factories?—I do not think we have. We have never asked for assistance; we prefer to be independent.

B-1315. Have you anybody with public health qualifications visiting your factories to help you in carrying out sanitation? The Sub-Assistant Surgeon has no public health qualification. Is there anyone who comes in?—I do not think anybody comes in.

B-1316. *Miss Power*: You were giving us some information in respect of your Persian experience. Is carpet weaving in Persia done in factories or entirely in cottages or in both?—It is called a cottage industry, but it is really done in large centres and large villages in the houses of the Persians.

B-1317. Regulations were passed some time ago as a result of agitation; did that in any way break up those units and make them smaller units than they were before?—No, but they were already very small units. The largest factory I have seen in Kerman, this time that I visited it, is a factory containing eight looms.

B-1318. How many workers?—There may be four or five people on each loom.

B-1319. So that 40 people was the largest you saw?—Yes, and that is an exception. As a rule there were two looms in all houses which belonged to the owner of the house who was himself a weaver and employed labour where he could get it. If his sons and daughters or his wife can weave they will weave when they are not in the fields gathering crops.

B-1320. You gave us some statistics implying that the regulations had been to a certain extent effective?—The regulations have been effective inasmuch as the carpet factories seem to me to be better ventilated now than they were. I do not guarantee the accuracy of my figures.

B-1321. Who has enforced that improvement?—The Persian Government.

B-1322. Can you tell me by what means?—I was not there, but they sent a commission there.

B-1323. You do not know whether they have a regular system of inspection?—I have visited all the more important looms in Kerman; I have visited about 800 looms. I do not find that the conditions in the villages are better, but the doctors of the C. M. S. hospital have told me that they consider that the actual condition of the health of the little weavers is much better than it used to be, and they attribute it to the better ventilation of the factories.

B-1324. You do not yourself hold the opinion that it is impossible to regulate an industry which is carried on in small units?—It is absolutely impossible to regulate an industry which is carried on in cottages. We have an affiliated company in Mirzapur where it is carried on by cottage industry and you cannot regulate it. It is impossible to enforce any satisfactory regulations in a cottage.

B-1325. Have the altered conditions in the Persian factories affected their competitive powers at all? Has it in any way increased the cost of production?—No. They white-wash their walls and paint the windows; that is all they have done.

B-1326. They have put older children on the work, have they not? I understood you to say that the girls of two years of age are no longer employed?—Little girls never weave. They used to sit there from the age of

two years but they never wove until they were five or six. It is the sitting position that impairs the development of their bones. Now you do not see them on the looms any more; they do not put children on the looms so young.

B-1327. *Mr. Clow*: Are carpets made in cottages in Amritsar district at all?—I do not think so; I do not think there is any carpet cottage industry in Amritsar district.

B-1328. Is there any cottage or factory industry of this sort in the Indian States in the Punjab?—I could not tell you; I do not know of any.

B-1329. *Mr. Taylor*: In view of your experience in Persia can you tell us how the general conditions as to carpet weaving compare in Persia and India?—I think in India the factories are much better organized and the conditions of hygiene in the factories are far superior in India than in Persia.

B-1330. Can you tell us how the wages compare with the cost of living?—I do not know what the wages are now in the north of Persia, but in the south of Persia in Kerman where I have been, the wages are lower than they are here; I should say they are 20 per cent. lower.

B-1331. How does the cost of living compare?—The cost of living is approximately same.

B-1332. So that wages in Persia are relatively lower than in India?—They are certainly lower and the cost of living is about the same.

B-1333. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Have you ever been asked to make advances for marriages among your workers?—I think we have.

B-1334. Have you any idea of the sort of amounts that they have borrowed from you?—They may come to very high figures.

B-1335. Can they borrow as much as a thousand or two thousand rupees if they wanted?—No, I do not think they go up to that.

B-1336. I was trying to find out the amount they might spend on a marriage?—It all depends on the class of men. One of our mechanics in the mills we have at Chheharta was married. His first marriage cost him Rs. 500 and his second marriage Rs. 1,200.

B-1337. Did he borrow all that?—I found out later that he borrowed all that money.

B-1338. From the firm?—No, the firm lent him Rs. 200, but that is not the carpet firm; I do not think we have ever advanced money for marriages. (Mr. Davies) No, not specially for marriages.

B-1339. So that they may be owing money outside for marriage or something of that sort if you do not advance them enough.—(Mr. Stevens) They have never asked us for advances for marriages, though possibly they have paid such expenses out of the advances they got from us. (Mr. Davies) The majority of the weavers here do not get married until they are in a financial position to do so.

B-1340. How many workers are there on each loom?—(Mr. Stevens) It depends on the width of the loom; I should say on a nine foot loom there are about four workers.

B-1341. And how many would there be on the largest looms?—Our largest loom is 45 feet; the number of workers would be in proportion; it is about one worker for 2½ ft.

B-1342. You say that you have 267 looms; you cannot really say how many people would be working on these looms because it depends on the width of the looms?—You can take a loom to be on an average 11 or 12 ft. The majority of the looms are 9 feet long; but we have looms up to 45 feet.

B-1343. So that there may be 8 or 10 people on a carpet; it depends on the width?—There may be. About two years ago when we were working to our full power I reckoned that we had about 5,000 people weaving carpets for us in India on a total of 860 looms.

B-1344. When there are four workers on a loom one would be a master weaver?—Yes.



B-1345. Would two of the boys be older boys?—I should say two would be young; if it is possible to say so  $1\frac{1}{2}$  of the boys would be older boys; out of six, two would be junior workers.

B-1346. Would one master weaver control more than one loom?—Sometimes two.

B-1347. Does he arrange it so that generally he has a team of eight people working two small looms?—Some of them have a team of more than eight people; some of them even have four or five looms, but they have an understudy in charge of each loom to dictate the designs.

B-1348. An assistant master weaver?—Yes; all the looms may belong to the same master weaver and they may all be in partnership on terms which they have arranged among themselves.

(The witnesses withdrew.)

**MUHAMMAD RAMZAN and RAJBAL, two master weavers  
examined (Diwan Chaman Lall interpreting).**

*The Chairman:* I asked that one of the master weavers should attend in case we required to question him and I asked the Secretaries to take one quite by chance so that there should be no possibility of selection in the matter. With a view to saving time I would suggest to my colleagues that we should ask Mr. Sastri to conduct the examination; I think we should all be satisfied to leave it in his hands.

B-1349. *Mr. Sastri:* Are you master weavers?—One of us a master weaver and the other is an assistant.

B-1350. How long have you done this work?—27 years.

B-1351. Do you work at one loom or have you more than one loom?—Two.

B-1352. Do you do piece-work or do you get so much per carpet from the proprietor?—Piece-work.

B-1353. How much are you paid for your piece-work?—One anna six pies for 1,100 stitches.

B-1354. How much would you get per day at that rate?—A strong healthy man would get 14 or 15 annas.

B-1355. *Mr. Clow:* Is that your remuneration for the day or the total amount given to you out of which you have to pay the boys?—My remuneration would be 14 or 15 annas and the boys would get 9 annas each.

B-1356. How many have you working under you?—I have 20 or 21 boys working under me.

B-1357. *Mr. Sastri:* After paying them you have 14 annas for yourself per day?—After paying out to these 21 boys at the end of the month I myself save Rs. 45 to Rs. 50.

B-1358. How often do you pay the boys; do you pay them every day or once a week?—Every fifteen days.

B-1359. *The Chairman:* Are the parents of the boys paid in advance?—We pay the parents of the boys.

B-1360. *Mr. Sastri:* Do you pay them in advance or subsequently?—We pay them in advance.

B-1361. Taking them on an average how much do you pay a parent?—Some boys get 8 annas a day, some 6 annas, some 14 annas and some 15 annas.

B-1362. But how much do you give to a parent in advance in order to get the work of his son regularly?—During the first two or three months the boy is learning his work; nothing is paid to the parent or to the child for the first two or three months. It all depends on what amount of money the parent needs. In some cases the advance is Rs. 50 and in other cases Rs. 80.

B-1363. Would that amount be for two boys or for one boy?—We have given as much as Rs. 100 for one boy.

B-1364. Then would an agreement be written out? Yes, agreements are written out.

B-1365. Is the name of the boy mentioned in the agreement?—Yes.

B-1366. Do you usually specify the period during which the boy shall work out the advance?—No period is mentioned, but it is mentioned that this money is to be paid back in so many instalments. When the money is paid back the boy is released.

B-1367. Otherwise the boy must work for years?—That is right. Until the money is paid back the boy has to work for me.

B-1368. How is the calculation made of the amount that the boy has earned every day?—Every day we make a calculation of the amount of work done.

B-1369. Supposing I am a boy engaged by you, is it I or you or the two together or the parent in addition who determine how much I have done during the day?—We pay them by the month and we make the arrangement with the parent.

B-1370. If you pay them by the month, is it so much whatever the amount of work turned out by the boy?—We see to it that the boy is made to work a little more than he ought to work; if it is one rupee's amount of work we see that we get 17 annas out of the boy.

B-1371. You know how to get 17 annas work out of the boy?—Yes, a little more.

B-1372. Do you get work from the boys on all the days in the month or do you give them specified holidays, Sundays or Fridays?—On Fridays there are holidays. Also if he is ill he does not turn up.

B-1373. In settling the account with the parent do you take interest into account or do you only take account of the money you have advanced?—No interest is charged.

B-1374. If a boy does not turn out efficient work how do you get him to do it?—Beat him, hit him on the face, hit him with the fist and whatever we have handy at the time such as a stick.

B-1375. Does the boy sometimes run away?—Yes.

B-1376. When he runs away how is he brought back to work?—Very few run away; when they do run away we go after them or send the parents after them.

B-1377. Supposing a boy does not like to work under a particular master weaver, has he any chance of getting a transfer?—Provided he pays back the money we have advanced.

B-1378. Do the boys, so far as your observation goes, usually improve from week to week or from month to month?—As they go along I notice some improvement.

B-1379. If a boy during the first month turns out Rs. 7 worth of work and then owing to the improvement caused by practice he turns out Rs. 9 worth of work next month does he get the Rs. 9, or does the parent get credit only for the Rs. 7 stipulated?—We stick to our agreement.

B-1380. Whatever the efficiency of the boy?—Yes, within the time limit. The only limit is when they pay back the money.

B-1381. Do you occasionally have to go to Court in respect of the carrying out of the agreement?—Sometimes we get hold of such a boy and such parents and we have to go to Court to recover the amount.

B-1382. When you go to Court do you put this agreement in as evidence of the contract?—Yes, we present this agreement.

B-1383. And the Court accepts it as valid?—The Court accepts it as valid.

B-1384. *The Chairman*: During the period does the boy or do the parents get cash or are the parents credited with the accrued monthly amount; that is to say, is the money deducted from the loan or is it paid in cash?—We pay in cash to the boy's parents; if he is not a minor we pay him.

B-1385. Is the loan repaid by regular instalments or is it allowed to drag on?—If a boy has done Rs. 10 worth of work we will give him Rs. 8 and keep Rs. 2; that is how bit by bit we get the loan back.

B-1386. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Supposing the advance is Rs. 84; does the boy work for 12 months at Rs. 7 a month which makes Rs. 84 and does that wipe out the debt or what happens?—If he can afford it we take the whole Rs. 7 in payment of the loan, but if he cannot afford it then it may be that out of the Rs. 7, he will take Rs. 6 and we keep Rs. 1.

B-1387. I suppose you would prefer to take only Re 1 because in that event it would be six years before the loans will have been repaid.—No, we prefer to get back cash, because sometimes we also have to borrow the money.

B-1388. *The Chairman*: What proportion of these boys go on to become master weavers?—There are some who become master weavers after ten years; there are those who have been working for twenty years and more and are still only assistant master weavers.

B-1389. *Sir Alexander Murray*: When you started did you start against an allowance?—No, I did not.

B-1390. What pay did you get?—Two rupees a month when I started work.

B-1391. What was your age?—About nine or ten years when I started.

B-1392. *Mr. Sastri*: When a boy is careless and does not turn out the expected work, besides punishing him is there a system of fining him?—We ourselves do not fine the boys.

B-1393. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What is the age of the youngest boy you have working in your looms?—10 or 11. I do not think I have any boy under 10 working with me.

B-1394. *Mr. Cliff*: What is the lowest grade of wages that you pay for a boy of 10, if there is no advance?—My boys are all on advances.

B-1395. What is the lowest wage?—It comes on an average to 6 annas a day though it is paid on a monthly basis. If there are four or five days in which the boy is absent and those are cut out, the average will come to 6 annas a day for a month of 30 days.

(The witnesses withdrew. The Commission adjourned to Delhi.)

# DELHI

## NINTH MEETING

Saturday, 2nd November, 1929.

PRESENT:

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, Bart.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KAMR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,

I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).

Mrs. J. C. CHATTERJEE (*Lady Assessor*.)

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (*Joint Secretaries*.)

Mr. A. DIEDIN. }

**Mr. W. H. ABEL, Inspector of Factories, and Mr. MEHTAB SINGH  
Industrial Surveyor, Delhi.**

B-1396. *The Chairman*: Would you, although it may involve a little repetition, tell us the organization of your Department with regard to the Delhi Province?—(Mr. Abel): I am the Inspector of Factories for the Punjab and for Delhi, having full powers to apply the Act. I have in Delhi one Industrial Surveyor who is a part-time Inspector under my control, and also notified for several sections under the Act, that is, for sanitation, hours of work and all the things which have nothing to do with engineering. He is resident here in Delhi, and I visit Delhi once or twice a month as I think necessary.

B-1397. I note in the memorandum you have submitted to us you tell us of a change which is going to take place next year?—The change is in the Punjab at the moment. Ordinarily speaking, any change in administration is first of all adopted by the Punjab and then it is for the consideration of any other Government, Delhi and the other two Administrations, the North-West Frontier and Ajmer-Merwara in which I have jurisdiction, to consider whether they would also like to adopt the same measure as the Punjab but it is for each local Government to consider for themselves whether they really want it or not.

B-1398. You say in your memorandum that in the case of the Punjab the Government "have decided to appoint one full-time Inspector with effect from April 1st, 1930, in the place of the five Industrial Surveyors of the Punjab under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act. Thus from April next there will be one Chief Inspector and one Inspector in the Punjab."—Will both of them be full-time officers?—Yes.

B-1399. You told us, I think, at Lahore that you thought that would contribute to the efficiency of your Department and enable more effective inspection to be carried out?—That is true. At the present moment, as I have full powers—and I am the only Inspector with full powers under the Act—it is necessary still for me to go to factories although they may have been inspected by Industrial Surveyors previously.

B-1400. Do you feel that your staff is adequate for the large area that you have to cover?—No, not by any means.

B-1401. You feel, as your colleagues in other countries do, I imagine, that greater staff could be usefully employed?—It would be extremely useful; the more staff we have the more work we can do. At the moment there is very

much work in factory inspection which is left undone that could be done if we had a larger and better staff.

B-1402. I take it from what you have already told us that it is so recently that the Factories Act came into operation that you have a great deal of difficulty with certain employers in getting them readily and willingly to observe the Act?—That is so. The Factories Act actually in India is yet a young Act, and it was drastically amended in 1922. Even now we are not actually up-to-date and we have not been able to get employers really to realize that the enforcements which are now law should be carried out.

B-1403. You have not yet arrived at a stage when employers think it bad form to be evading the Act?—We have not arrived at that stage yet.

B-1404. *Mr. Birla*: Discussing the question of efficiency you mention that, from what you have seen, the efficiency of the Indian worker is lower as compared with the foreign worker, and then you say that unless the labouring classes are well paid by increasing their wages it is not possible to increase their efficiency. Now, apart from the question of increasing the wages, could you suggest some other remedies for increasing the efficiency; for instance, the abolition of the drink evil, solving the housing problem and such other things?—Yes, to improve those conditions would naturally increase the efficiency of the worker, but I think there are two points which would help the worker to become more effective, such as standardizing his work or endeavouring to create a standard to which the worker would work up. For instance, trade unions could help, I think, in this direction so as to make a mechanic fit to be a mechanic when he has learnt his trade after apprenticeship.

B-1405. You know the trade unions at present are in an infant stage, and I should like to know how far the Government or the employer could be helpful in increasing the efficiency of the worker?—The employer could do very much. Certainly if better houses were provided for a worker and more interest taken in him, he would become more efficient and be more useful to his employer.

B-1406. I think I am inclined to agree with you that if every worker were provided with good accommodation the efficiency would increase, but the difficulty of the employer is that he cannot always get suitable land. Do you think it should be the duty of Government to acquire land at a reasonable cost for the employer if he wants to build houses for his workers?—It is very difficult to say; I am afraid I cannot give a reply to that question.

B-1407. It has been suggested in certain quarters that it might be possible for Government to grant loans, say, to the extent of 50 per cent. of the cost of quarters to be built for the working classes. Do you think it would be a desirable scheme?—I think any sound scheme whereby better houses could be produced and good housing facilities could be made for the worker would be a very useful thing.

B-1408. You know some of the factories here are working on a double shift, day and night?—Yes.

B-1409. How do you think night work affects the health of the workers as compared with day work although the night workers may get the same amount of sleep?—I am sure it is not as good for them.

B-1410. May I take it that you suggest shorter working hours for night workers?—No, I do not know that I should say that. I certainly think that a day worker is at a greater advantage than a night worker, but from the night workers that I have seen coming off duty I would not say that they are utterly fatigued or worn out. I do not suggest a reduction in working hours for the night worker.

B-1411. So far as the question of fatigue and health is concerned you think there is not much difference if the worker works for 10 hours either during the day or during the night?—There is not a great deal of difference. Certainly a worker would prefer to work by day if he had the choice.

B-1412. That is not necessarily so. In fact, I have come across cases in the hot season when workers prefer to work during the night?—That is possibly so in the hot season.

B-1413. You have not mentioned any views on the question of sickness insurance. Have you any suggestions to make on that point?—Sickness insurance would be very useful. It is a matter for the employer. I think if he considers that it would be profitable and useful to him, I am sure the worker would welcome it.

B-1414. But do you think the worker would be prepared to contribute to the sickness insurance fund?—That I am not prepared to say. In Lahore we had a conference to consider whether sickness insurance should be brought into force and we found there that the workers consulted were rather reluctant to pay anything out of their wages. The sum that they could afford to pay would be so small that it would be hardly useful. On the other hand, the employers were not very interested in paying anything towards insurance, and the only suggestion that we could get was that Government should finance the scheme.

B-1415. *Miss Power*: Mr. Abel, you were giving evidence just now about the adequacy or inadequacy of the inspection staff. I take it that your remark in your memorandum that "the staff is adequate" is a misprint; your considered view is that it is inadequate?—Yes. I am sorry about that. It is a misprint.

B-1416. *The Chairman*: That, of course, refers to the Province of Delhi and not to the Punjab?—Yes.

B-1417. *Miss Power*: You also refer to the fact that the people who were imported from Rajputana and Central India have now very largely settled in Delhi and further on you say that there has been unemployment owing to the contraction of activities in the Public Works Department Workshops. Is it customary when large numbers of workers are imported for a special job, to take no action to send them back to their place of origin when that work is practically finished?—I have never heard of any scheme whereby arrangements have been made to send them back, but in the case of importing these coolies to Delhi, they were imported 10 or 12 or possibly 15 years ago for the work on New Delhi, and they have more or less settled and made Delhi their home.

B-1418. But is industry in Delhi growing sufficiently quickly to absorb these people when the construction work is over?—I do not think it is.

B-1419. Does that mean that there is likely to be a permanent unemployment problem?—It will gradually decrease, but the decrease in the number of workers as a result of the buildings having been finished is much greater than the increase in industry to absorb that amount of unemployment. The result is that there is a good deal of unemployment amongst unskilled workers in Delhi.

B-1420. You say "no occupational disease has been reported or has come to my notice", but in the evidence given by the Government Press they refer to certain cases of lead poisoning which they say came to their notice as a result of obtaining information for submission to the Commission. Is there any obligation under the Factories Act that cases of that kind in industrial undertakings should be notified to the Factory Inspector?—There is no obligation. We invariably enquire, I have taken up his question rather carefully, and I certainly have not heard of any occupational disease, particularly with regard to lead poisoning.

B-1421. Do you think there should be an obligation on the employer to report those cases?—I think it would be helpful; but no case has ever come to my knowledge, and it is one of those things we take an interest in; I really thought that there was no such case.

B-1422. Dealing with "Industrial Efficiency" of workers in your memorandum you say that the "health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of the workers and unless the labouring classes are well fed by an increase in their wages, it is not possible to effect any improvement in this behalf". Have you made any investigation in the course of your work as to what is the cost of living for an industrial labourer in your area?—No, I have not.

B-1423. Have you any experience upon which to calculate whether the wage paid to the unskilled worker in this district will cover the cost of a family?—I think I have if I had time to go into it, but one would need to take the average over a number of months before you could really get anything material.

B-1424. Even if you have not investigated it scientifically, what is your conclusion: Is it that the average wage of the ordinary labourer will cover the family requirements like food, housing, clothes, etc.—It is only just enough; it does not leave anything for him to spare, or very little, and as a result my experience is that he does not eat as much as would be good for him in the ordinary way, and then on such a day as this, the *Divali* day, he probably spends the whole of what he has saved which should have been spent on good food.

B-1425. You mean to suggest that if he has anything to spare, instead of spending all of it on living he spends some on the smaller luxuries and as a result goes without necessities?—That is what happens.

B-1426. That is what the rest of us would probably do?—Yes.

B-1427. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: Is it not a fact that the rents of working class quarters in Delhi have vastly increased?—That I am fairly sure about. I have no statistics about it, but house rents in Delhi have increased enormously within the last five or six years.

B-1428. Do employers of small factories give any allowance for house rent?—I have never heard of such a case.

B-1429. Dealing with the extent to which medical facilities are utilized by women you say "Women do not always make use of the medical facilities on account of their traditional *parda* system." Is it not a fact that women working in industries do not observe *parda*?—They observe no *parda* when they are actually inside the buildings, but I find that women are reluctant to go to the mill doctor for advice.

B-1430. Do you not think it is because women doctors are not provided for them? Naturally they might be shy of going to a man doctor?—If women doctors were provided, they would make more use of them than they do of the men doctors.

B-1431. Do you think if factories or groups of factories provided medical facilities with women doctors they would be better utilized?—I think that if there was a lady doctor either within the mill area or in the mill itself, the women workers would take advantage of her presence.

B-1432. So it is not absolutely that *parda* stands in the way?—Not absolutely *parda*, but it is the fact that they have been accustomed to *parda*.

B-1433. In your memorandum you talk of recreation grounds provided by employers. Could you tell me where these recreation grounds are?—The Birla Spinning Mills have provided very good facilities in this respect.

B-1434. How far are they made use of?—The workers do make use of them to a very great extent.

B-1435. Do women make any use of them?—I do not think I have ever seen women workers making use of them.

B-1436. You say that some workers are low paid. Are there not particular industries in which they are low paid?—There is no special industry in which they are lower paid than in others; but the average wage of the unskilled worker is low—about 10 as. a day.

B-1437. Is that for both men and women?—No, the woman gets slightly less; a woman worker probably gets 7 as. and a man worker 10 as.

B-1438. Does it mean that she does less work?—No; she usually does a much lighter work.

B-1439. *Colonel Russell*: In relation to fatigue you say "The break after putting in 6 hours work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue." Have you made any personal observations with regard to that matter?—I have frequently been in factories just before the rest interval,



and I have thought, by the look of many of the workers, that it was time they did have rest.

B-1440. Are there any statistics?—I have never taken any statistics in that respect.

B-1441. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Can you tell me something about exemptions that are asked for from the Factories Act by the employers and by Government?—Exemptions were asked for fairly frequently after the Act was amended in 1922; and Government were in the habit of giving exemptions to almost any one to start with. We gradually worked factories up to a state when exemptions were not required so frequently. It was customary to give exemptions to a privately owned printing press here nearly every year to enable it to deal with the rush of work, and apart from that Government factories have fairly frequently for, and obtained, exemptions even up to this time.

B-1442. So I take it that the Government of this Province has been the greatest sinner as far as exemptions are concerned?—They have had more exemptions than privately owned factories.

B-1443. Did you take any action against the stone factory here for working more hours than they should have done?—Yes, I have done so recently, possibly two months ago. After having written to them several times regarding overwork, I found rather a bad case of overwork and I lodged four or more cases against them for overworking their employees.

B-1444. That is also owned by the Government?—It is a Government factory loaned to some extent to the contractors. The work produced there is for Government; the produce is Government, the machinery and buildings are all Government property, and it is controlled, I am told, to a very great extent by the Public Works Department.

B-1445. Is it a fact that after you launched this prosecution, the Deputy Commissioner of Delhi gave an order withdrawing the prosecution?—I lodged these cases in the court, and I appeared when the case was first opened. The case was adjourned that day as it could not be finished I think it was two days later I saw in a newspaper that it was strongly rumoured that the Deputy Commissioner was withdrawing the cases. I wrote to the Deputy Commissioner to ask if that was a fact, and the reply I received was that there were certain circumstances under which it would be preferable not to proceed with these cases. I have not entirely agreed with the Government's action on that point. The cases are still pending. No decision has yet been come to as to whether they shall be withdrawn or proceeded with.

B-1446. What was the date of the institution of these cases, could you give me a rough idea?—Three cases were made on the 16th February and then another case later on on April 25th, 1929.

B-1447. *The Chairman*: And still undecided?—Yes, they have not advanced to that stage.

B-1448. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: One case was nine months ago and another seven months ago and they are still pending?—That is so.

B-1449. What are the other functions of the Industrial Surveyor here?—I think he can best describe them himself, but he is the officer in charge of industries here under the Department of Industries, Punjab. Part of his duty is to collect trade prices to look into any problem regarding industries and in addition to that he has a laboratory here as a science man for making tests for the Municipality, for the Health Department, Chambers of Commerce, factory owners and anyone who cares to bring anything for analysis.

B-1450. So that he is a sort of Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Chemical Examiner and Collector of Statistics, apart from the other duties that are connected with your Department?—That is so.

B-1451. So that in spite of the fact that you have got a very able Industrial Surveyor here, he is not in a position to cope with all the work?—It must be very difficult for him. Sometimes it must also be very embarrassing to have so many subjects to deal with.

B-1452. A question was asked by Mr. Birla about the efficiency of the workers and their drinking habits. Have you any statistics in regard to their drinking habits or the alleged drinking habits of the working classes here?—No, I do not keep such statistics.

B-1453. *Mr. Clow*: Is drink a serious evil?—I do not think it is really a serious evil. It is noticeable once or twice a year.

B-1454. *Mr. Cliff*: Is that the Scotch New Year's Day?—No.

B-1455. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: In his memorandum the Industrial Surveyor mentions the fact that the average wage of the unskilled worker was about 10 as. ?—Yes.

B-1456. In their memorandum the Punjab Chamber of Commerce have mentioned that the question of efficiency is not really governed by housing conditions, better conditions of living and so on. You do not subscribe to that view?—No, I do not. I think that the more you look after the worker the more efficient he would become, the elements being good housing, good food, education, recreation and welfare work.

B-1457. You have mentioned in your memorandum that there has been a reduction of hours without any reduction of pay and that the workers welcomed it?—Yes.

B-1458. If the working day were reduced to an 8 hour day, do you think that the workers would welcome that?—I think the workers would naturally welcome that, if they get exactly the same pay for an 8 hour day, as they get for a 9 or 10 hour day.

B-1459. The Washington Convention gave an exemption as far as India was concerned and fixed the limit at 60 hours the explanation given being that the conditions were different in India. Do you find that the conditions are different in any way which would justify Government in keeping to 60 hours instead of 48?—I find that the worker here in India is very much slower getting on his job than in Europe; as a result a good lot of time is wasted in starting and stopping. He is ready, to get on to his job and then wait for half an hour before he really starts. He is also very ready at the end of his six hours or even before that to prepare for closing down. So that if the hours were reduced very much more, a considerable proportion of his day or the same proportion would, I think, still be spent in starting and stopping and production would suffer very heavily.

B-1460. Do you mean to say that the average worker does not get there before the usual time for opening the factory?—He does get there before time. But he is, very slow. I find that the worker will get on his job a quarter hour, half an hour, possibly longer than that, before the time he should be there. Nevertheless he is even longer than that in starting on his job.

B-1461. If he is slow at work that is also a matter of efficiency?—Exactly.

B-1462. If you improve the efficiency you will improve the method of work too?—If you could improve the efficiency then you would improve the output.

B-1463. Is not that a vicious circle? Can you not improve the efficiency of the worker by reducing the hours of work and increasing his pay?—I think that a moderate line will have to be taken. The average factory worker now does not put in a 10 hour day.

B-1464. Do you seriously mean that the worker who does put in a 10 hour day now-a-days has any leisure left for recuperation of any sort?—I quite agree that he has very little. But if he is persuaded to put in a full 9 hour day and actually work those 9 hours, both the employer and himself would gain very considerably.

B-1465. Is there any arrangement here whereby either the technical worker or the unskilled worker is being trained in order to increase his efficiency?—Not that I am aware of.

B-1466. A question was put to you about land for housing the workers. Would it not be better if either the State or the Municipality undertook the

task of providing houses for the working classes?—I should think it would. I believe that has been tried in Bombay and has not been successful.

B-1467. There are other reasons why it has not been successful. The reasons were that the workers were not consulted on the type of houses that were built. They were too hot in summer and too cold in winter. It was not a case of the workers not wanting better facilities for housing?—I certainly think whoever put up good quarters and made houses for workers would reap the benefit of them in the efficiency of the worker.

B-1468. *Mr. Cliff*: The memorandum of the Industrial Surveyor records that there are 60,000 industrial workers in Delhi, whereas you record 10,443?—Yes.

B-1469. You also say that these workers, are employed in 61 factories?—That is so.

B-1470. Can you tell me whether there has ever been a census of the factories in Delhi other than that 61?—Not that I am aware of.

B-1471. Would the factories and workshops in Delhi be recorded in the census in 1921? Would they take a census of the factories there, or is that a census of population?—I think it was only a census of population.

*Mr. Clow*: There were industrial figures in that census, I think, of establishments employing ten or more.

B-1472. *Mr. Cliff*: Have you an approximate idea of the number of unregulated factories? Have you had any experience?—Only from observation. The number of unregulated factories employing ten persons or more in Delhi must be twice or three times as many as those that are under the Factories Act at the present moment.

B-1473. Have you visited any of these factories?—Yes, many of them.

B-1474. Can you tell the Commission what kind of conditions you saw in those unregulated factories?—The conditions are not too good; small children are employed; the workshops themselves are very crowded, very small and very dirty. They leave very much to be desired.

B-1475. Do they work long hours?—Yes, they do.

B-1476. Longer than under the Factories Act?—Very much longer.

B-1477. Have you any idea about the prevailing rates of wages?—No.

B-1478. With regard to the difficulty of obtaining what in your judgment is a satisfactory penalty for contravention of the Factories Act now, is there any means of forming public opinion which has been adopted by your Department other than prosecutions in courts?—I do not know of any.

B-1479. The Chairman suggested by question that you had not reached a stage where it was regarded as being bad form to contravene the Act. I was wondering whether your Department ever did any propaganda work with regard to the observance of the law?—We never have undertaken any propaganda in that respect, I do not think the ordinary person would be sufficiently interested.

B-1480. As far as I know from your report given to us at Lahore, you have not sufficiently interested the magistrates even?—Yes, that is so.

B-1481. I wonder whether with this experience of having had the administration of this law, you have reached any conclusion as to whether by circular letter or by articles in periodicals or the Press, you could create a stronger and more virile public opinion?—I think it would be very difficult. Often cases are reported in the press. Also there have been some writings in the press particularly from the other Provinces regarding small fines. I do not think that will help very much.

B-1482. Has this ever been the subject of a resolution or discussion in the Legislative Assembly?—No. I think the only discussion that has taken place will be my annual reports and my letters to the Government authorities concerned.

*Mr. Clow*: The Assembly in 1929 did agree to a substantial enhancement of the maximum penalty for contravention of the Act.

B-1483. *Mr. Cliff*: Since that date, with regard to the enforcement of the law in very serious cases to which Mr. Abel called our attention the other day, has there been any action taken by the responsible Ministers with a view of creating public opinion even in the Assembly?—No. With regard to what was happening in Delhi, when I reported to the Deputy Commissioner that the fines were not sufficient, he replied that he had instructed his magistrates to pay more attention to these matters and that fines should be heavier. That has had a slight effect.

B-1484. That is as far as it has gone up to the present?—Yes.

B-1485. You make a reference in your memorandum that unskilled labour has not made any progress or has not made progress during the last few years? Has there been any real attempt to train unskilled labour?—As far as I know, none.

B-1486. Having in mind the illiteracy and the helplessness of this population, is it to be expected that there will be an improvement unless they are aided and trained?—Certainly not.

B-1487. You said that sickness insurance would be useful. May I ask you whether you mean by being useful it would be helpful?—It would be helpful to the worker.

B-1488. Would it be helpful to the industry as well as to the worker?—Yes, I should think it would be.

B-1489. With regard to contributions, I take it that you accept the canon that no one should be called upon to pay except in so far as he is able to pay?—Unless you fix some definite rate such as a percentage of pay or something of that sort, you would have most people saying that they were not able to pay.

B-1490. You cannot put upon the poorest people of the land a burden heavier than their capacity to pay?—That is so.

B-1491. *Mr. Ahmed*: You remember when we visited the Government Press this morning we saw many workers there who were not very healthy. Is that due to overwork under the piece-work system or to insanitary conditions of their dwelling?—I think it is more a case of the type of person that is recruited. The conditions in that Press are good; lighting and ventilation are good; hours of work are not excessive; the rates of pay are good; the quarters they live in compare favourably with others. I think it is more a point of the type of person that is recruited for the work. There is one other thing that may be the cause of the workers there not appearing to be physically fit; and that is the press is comparatively new and the workers there might have been imported from other Provinces where the physique is not quite so good as it is here. I cannot think of any other reason. The work that they do is not unhealthy.

B-1492. Increased wages, good housing, facilities for education and recreation, supply of pure drinking water and such measures will increase the efficiency of the workers?—Yes, that is so.

B-1493. Will that not be a great help to the employer as well?—It would; because it would enable the worker not only to get more pay, but to earn more.

B-1494. They would be able to discharge their duties more satisfactorily?—Yes, that surely would happen.

B-1495. Do you think that it would be a good thing if Government granted loans to the employers for the purpose of acquiring land for housing workers?—I imagine it would help the employers to put up quarters for their workers.

B-1496. Does not working in the night cause a lot of accidents owing to the peculiar nature of the work and various other difficulties?—I do not know that accidents are more frequent during night than during day.

B-1497. Are they not more likely to occur?—Yes, they are more likely to occur, because the worker is less likely to be alert.

B-1498. It would be better for the worker to work at day than at night?—Undoubtedly better.

B-1499. Is it not difficult for him to work at night for eight to ten hours at a stretch?—He gets the rest interval in the night exactly the same way he does in the day.

B-1500. But he has to pass sleepless night?—Exactly.

B-1501. With regard to the sickness insurance scheme as to which Mr. Birla asked whether the workers would be willing to contribute, do you think it reasonable and feasible to ask the workers to contribute towards any such scheme?—If you do not get something from the workers you will be putting a tax on the industry. If the worker is going to be benefited from the insurance I think it is reasonable that he should be expected to contribute something towards it, however small.

B-1502. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In his memorandum, the Industrial Surveyor says that "the industrial employer is given facilities for the grant of Government land on favourable terms for purposes of building workers' houses." Can you tell us something about it? (Mr. Singh) I am afraid I do not know anything about it, except that one of the cotton ginning factories applied to Government for the grant of Government land at reasonable prices for the construction of coolie quarters and Government complied with their request.

B-1503. In how many cases did Government extend similar help?—I know of two cases.

B-1504. If any other employer in Delhi comes to Government with a similar request is he likely to receive the same consideration?—I think so, if the land belongs to Government.

B-1505. Do you know whether there is anything corresponding to that in the Punjab or in any other Province?—I know only so far as Delhi is concerned; I do not know of any other Province.

B-1506. Do you consider that the statistics of the cost of living compiled by the Industrial Surveyor are fairly accurate?—So far as the prices of commodities are concerned, they were taken from Government publications. But so far as house rent, social functions and cotton piece goods are concerned, we had to cover fresh ground and we have done that to the best of the resources at our disposal.

B-1507. As regards the variation in the cost of living. You give eleven different items, add up their prices, divide the total by 11 and call that the average cost of living for the period?—Yes.

B-1508. Now take sugar. In 1924, the price was 92 and in 1925 you say that the price rose to 349. By taking the actual figures 92 and 349 without weighing them properly you make your calculations faulty. Supposing, a man eats one maund of wheat in a week he may eat only one pound of sugar in a month. According to your calculation you have given the same weight to wheat as you have given to sugar. Have you any idea how much sugar a man will consume in the time that he takes to consume one maund of wheat or *bagra* or *jowar*. Will it be one pound?—I have no idea; I cannot say.

*The Chairman*: I think it is like reckoning the cost of the meal on the cost of the mustard.

B-1509. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Mr. Abel, dealing with the question of unemployment I think you said that that was due to the stoppage of building operations in Delhi?—(Mr. Abel) Yes.

B-1510. There must have been many thousands of workers engaged in building operations in Delhi?—There must have been probably 20,000 or more.

B-1511. What has happened to them?—They gradually disappeared. Many of them doubtless have gone back to their homes. Some of them have found employment here in Delhi.

B-1512. And many of them must be out of employment at the present moment?—Exactly.

B-1513. Do you know anything about the working of the double shift system in connection with the building operations in Delhi?—They did that when the Public Works Department had a great deal of work to do. But it was chiefly unskilled work. The difficulty arose that it was not possible to get skilled workers in order to put on an extra shift. When the application came in for exemption for these works, knowing that unemployment was prevailing in this Province, I suggested that an extra shift of workers should be put on. The Chief Engineer, Public Works Department said that it was not possible owing to the fact that there were not enough skilled workers. He said that it could not be done.

B-1514. Many of the workers employed in the building operations in Delhi must have been skilled workers. Is it the case that they have found employment elsewhere?—I do not know where the skilled workers could have dispersed. The work of stone masons is a specialized work.

B-1515. In connection with printing presses you said that probably these workers were recruited from other places. You went through the Government Press to-day and you are in the habit of going through presses periodically, I take it?—Yes.

B-1516. What have you to say of the physique generally of the workers in the press as compared with the workers you see in other industrial undertakings to which you go?—I think the standard of physique in the press we saw to-day was lower than that in the iron foundry or even in textile mills.

B-1517. Why should that be so?—I think it is a matter of recruitment. I know of no other reasons.

B-1518. *Mr. Clow*: You do not think it is because they are overworked?—No, the hours of work in the Government Press are 48 hours a week, normally; occasionally they go to 52 hours; and on very rare occasions, once in year, they apply for exemption to work 60 hours. I do not think it is a case of overwork.

B-1519. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You have stated in your memorandum that the average worker instead of working 10 hours a day is not more than 8½ hours on his job. Supposing you reduce the 10 hour day to an 8 hour day or 9 hour day, how long do you think the average worker will be on the job? Do you mean to say that there is a possibility of the time spent on the job also being correspondingly reduced?—I think he would still spend some time not on his job. In an 9 hour day he will be on his job for 8 or 8½ hours. It is the habit of the worker to take rest between 8 and 9 in the morning for a quarter of an hour.

B-1520. The Certifying Surgeon suggests the possibility of children between the ages of 12 and 15 years being periodically examined in order to see whether their health is maintained. He further suggests that that should be continued up to the age of 20, and that, if necessary, medical officers should be appointed by Government, their pay being charged to the mill owners. Would that be a reasonable proposition—that the mill owners should pay for Certifying Surgeons?—I do not think so.

B-1521. He gives, as his reason, that it would be necessary to see how the health of the children continued from year to year. On the other hand, he gives statistics which show that during 1928 he examined 1056 children, and only 10 of these were declared unfit on account of disease. That is less than 1 per cent. Do you think that would justify the appointment of a medical man to check the health of the children from year to year?—I hardly think it would.

B-1522. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: In the report of the Industrial Surveyor it is stated that an unskilled worker expects his wife and children to work whereas a skilled worker does not; so that in working out the family budget of an unskilled worker you would have to take into account the wages earned by his wife, and in the case of a skilled worker you would only have to take into account the man's own wages. Do you agree with that statement?—I should think that the families of men workers earning up to Rs. 150 a month would do something towards contributing to the upkeep of the house.

B-1523. Whether they are skilled or unskilled?—I should have thought so. I have not very great experience.

B-1524. From what you have noticed, would you say that it was not only so in the case of the unskilled worker but in the case of the lower paid skilled worker too?—I think it is so in the case of the lower paid skilled worker too.

B-1525. If night schools were started for the benefit of skilled and unskilled workers, do you think they would take advantage of them—if there were no fees or very small fees?—Skilled workers would take advantage of them to some extent, but I do not think that unskilled workers would.

B-1526. Even if there was a small fee charged?—Not very many. There would be a certain proportion of the skilled workers who would take advantage of free schools; but I do not think that either the skilled or unskilled worker is sufficiently ambitious to pay anything in order to learn at a night school.

B-1527. Am I right in thinking that your view is that if there was no fee you might fill a school, whereas if there was a fee you would not expect to fill the school?—That is so.

B-1528. On this question of the efficiency of the workmen, I take it that, compared with Europe, we have to take his efficiency when he is working all out, and we have to allow for his habit of being a slow beginner and leaving his work more quickly. There are two sides?—Yes.

B-1529. When he is working all out would you say that his efficiency compared very badly with the European worker?—I am of opinion that he compares unfavourably.

B-1530. And on the top of that you have this habit of his of delaying beginning?—Yes.

B-1531. So it is a question of his always being slow in getting on to his work—quite apart from how much work he is capable of doing?—That is so.

B-1532. Supposing better housing were provided for workers but that they had to pay a little more rent for it, do you consider they would take advantage of it, or do you think they would still prefer to live where they are because it is cheaper?—Judging by the fact that even when they have good quarters provided for them they are very keen to sub-let, it would seem that if bigger houses were provided for them at a bigger price, they would not take very much advantage of them. It is a matter of education—training the man up to appreciate something more.

B-1533. Am I right in thinking that the worker would only take a better house if he felt he could make more out of it by sub-letting and that he would not take it if he were not allowed to sub-let?—If the cost was heavier I doubt if he really would take it.

B-1534. *Miss Power*: Sir Alexander Murray put the question that there was a very small percentage of children whose physique was poor, and that this possibly showed that there was no necessity for the appointment of full-time medical officers. Do you not think the figures possibly reflect rather the inadequacy of the type of medical inspection made by the Certifying Surgeon than the actual state of health of the children?—The Certifying Surgeon does his work well but there is probably quite a lot in what you say—that all Certifying Surgeons should be conscientious men.

B-1535. You do not accept these figures as being typical of the standard of health of the average child who applies to get into factory labour?—Not absolutely, but it is very seldom that I find a child in a factory who is physically unfit, and whom I have to send back to the Certifying Surgeon to be re-examined.

B-1536. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: You make the statement that “there has been retrenchment in some industries owing to several causes. In order to minimise the cost of production, there is a general tendency for the introduction of labour-saving appliances and high speed machinery in the industrial undertakings generally”. And you go on a little later to support that statement by saying that “the iron foundry

industry is in a depressed condition owing mainly to the reported poverty of the yield of sugarcane crop in the surrounding districts coupled with increased external competition in recent years." Then the whole problem that we are asked to investigate depends upon the economic production of factories?—(Mr. Singh) These are the causes which have led to the surplus of labour in Delhi.

B-1537. You say labour saving and high speed machinery has to be brought in in order to meet external competition, and as a result unemployment increases?—Surely.

B-1538. The capacity of the employer to employ the number of hands usefully depends upon his ability to produce on a basis by which he can compete successfully with foreign imports?—Quite so.

B-1539. And therefore any proposals to increase the cost of production would probably have the effect of increasing unemployment, because if the factory is unable to produce on an economic basis, and to successfully compete, in the open market it would have to shut down?—Quite so.

B-1540. Therefore the problem has to be examined from the point of view of successful competition?—To some extent.

B-1541. And in order to get that successful competition labour must be efficient and the management must be efficient?—Quite so.

B-1542. Now if management and labour are both efficient, if the machinery employed is up-to-date, then there is a fair chance of that industry prospering and being a source of larger employment?—Yes.

B-1543. Anything that militates against successful enterprise would adversely affect all the industries concerned?—Surely.

B-1544. Then you say "The development of home industries is known to play an important role in the national welfare of a country." And again "The solution of the problem of economic salvation of the masses fundamentally lies in the organization and development of home industries." Dealing with the question of labour and its well being, would you advocate a solution on the lines you have indicated, namely, an increased number of successful enterprises in industrial development with both management, and labour freely efficient?—Yes.

B-1545. And the cost of production should not be such as would allow successful competition. These factors have to be borne in mind in coming to a decision on these problems?—Yes.

B-1546. *Mr. Clow*: Is primary education compulsory in this province?—In certain municipal wards.

B-1547. It is not general?—No.

B-1548. Are these wards in which primary education is compulsory wards in which industrial workers live?—No.

B-1549. You mention that there is undue competition with Indian States. To what States are you referring and to what industries?—Sarawar, Kishan-garh and Vijyanagar.

B-1550. This does not refer to Delhi?—No.

B-1551. Have you any responsibility for the enforcement of the Boilers Act?—No.

B-1552. Is your work carried on entirely with Government funds or do you receive contributions from employers?—The Industrial laboratory was established from funds contributed partly by industrialists, but now it is being maintained by Government.

B-1553. Employers are no longer contributing to it?—No.

B-1554. Could you give us a specific instance of any particular industry which is competing with the industries of British India?—Cotton ginning and pressing.

B-1555. How many ginning factories are there in the surrounding Indian States?—I know of seven.



B-1556. *Miss Power*: You state that a large number of woman and children are indiscriminately employed. Do you know whether there are more women and children employed in the unregulated workshops than there are employed in the regulated workshops?—In the thread-ball factories, of which there are about 18 in Delhi, from 40 to 200 women are employed making thread-balls. What hours do they work?—Ten, eleven and twelve hours a day.

B-1557. Can you answer my first question—whether there are more women and children employed in the unregulated workshops than there are in the regulated workshops?—We have no statistics.

B-1558. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: You state that a maternity home has recently been started at the mills. Have any women been appointed in connection therewith?—A woman has been appointed as midwife.

B-1559. Is she a midwife or a nurse?—A midwife and a nurse.

B-1560. Has she had any special training?—She is a trained midwife.

B-1561. You mention the question of unsatisfactory sanitary arrangements at certain places. Has the matter been brought to the attention of the Health Officer?—I have brought it to the notice of the Inspector of Factories, under whom I act.

B-1562. Has the Inspector been able to do anything?—Not to my knowledge.

B-1563. You refer to welfare work. Do you think the proprietors of the mills do anything for the workers in this direction?—Libraries are provided for the literate people and the illiterate take part in games.

B-1564. Is there any particular organisation existing which looks after these matters and which induces the people to avail themselves of these facilities?—There is a labour secretary, who entertains them.

B-1565. Do you not think some outside agency would be able to do it better?—It would be very helpful.

B-1566. *Colonel Russell*: You say in your memorandum: "The coolie camps housing the industrial operatives employed in the building trades in New Delhi present not a pleasant spectacle, and suffer by comparison". By comparison with what?—Similar accommodation provided by the mills.

B-1567. You are not comparing it with houses in Delhi?—No. I am comparing it with the houses provided by the employers.

B-1568. You say "The food of the average worker is poor, and consists of inferior quality of flour, pulses, rice and ghee". Is it a fact that the workers are only supplied with inferior qualities of these things?—They cannot afford to purchase good qualities of food.

B-1569. Do you know anything about vegetable ghee?—Yes. It is a cheap commodity taken advantage of by the poorer classes.

B-1570. Would you have any objection to it being prohibited, or do you think it is a valuable foodstuff in itself?—It is a commodity which is consumed by the poorer classes, but it is devoid of food value.

B-1571. You refer to the question of medical facilities, and you say that they are not availed of owing to the fear of the worker of a loss of a day's wages entailed in the visit. Is it a common experience that the men do not make use of medical facilities because of the fear of the loss of their day's wages?—They do not go if it means a long journey, because they would lose their day's wages.

B-1572. What happens if a man is very sick?—Then he is attended by the factory doctor, or he is taken to the nearest medical man.

B-1573. But they do make use of the medical facilities available?—Yes.

B-1574. You refer in your memorandum to the general absence of statistics. Have you a statistician?—Recently I have had an assistant appointed under me.

B-1575. What is his training?—He is being trained now. His actual work will commence from the 1st January 1930.

B-1576. Who is training him?—He is getting training here, locally, in the Municipal Committee under me, and I propose to send him outside too.

B-1577. So that you anticipate that from the 1st January your statistics will be of greater value?—Yes.

B-1578. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: You state that the average wage of an unskilled worker is 10 annas a day. Would I be correct in saying that the average unskilled worker living on that wage is living on a starvation wage?—That is the minimum living wage for that class of worker.

B-1579. Is it or is it not a fact that a minimum wage of 10 annas a day for an unskilled worker is a starvation wage?—He can accommodate himself. He is accustomed to accommodate himself within that limit.

B-1580. You have given us in your memorandum a family budget for the unskilled worker. You say that this budget is for a family of five. You put down food at Rs. 17 a month. Does that work out to about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas a day per head?—Yes.

B-1581. Would you not agree with me that, taking into account that on food they are spending  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas a day per head, that is a starvation wage?—It is an inferior quality of stuff which the man purchases. He takes sufficient food to fill his belly.

B-1582. Would it be correct to say that, because they spend only  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas a day, many of the workers go without the usual two meals a day?—I have no experience.

B-1583. On what basis did you estimate the Rs. 17?—Flour.

B-1584. How much flour would you require for a family of five?—Five *chapatis* for the man, and five for the woman and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  for each of the three children.

B-1585. And what else?—And *dal*.

B-1586. That is all?—*Dal*, oil, common salt, pepper and turmeric.

B-1587. Supposing this is the diet that is given—one seer of *atta*, a little *dal* I presume, oil, salt and pepper for a family of five. No milk, no vegetable?—Nothing of that sort. Only on ceremonial occasions they take extras.

B-1588. Do I take it then that the average unskilled worker is living on this diet?—Yes.

B-1589. In the skilled worker's budget you have given in your memorandum, you provide Rs. 18 for food for a family of five. Do I take it that the average skilled worker's family is also living practically on this diet, at only a difference of one rupee a month?—Yes.

B-1590. It is not a healthy diet. Nor a nourishing diet?—No.

B-1591. A question was asked a little while ago as to whether these workers would be ready to pay a little more rent in order to go into a better class of houses. Is it because the margin of their wages is so small that they cannot afford to pay a single anna even towards extra rent?—In my opinion, they cannot afford to pay.

B-1592. In your memorandum you mention that the permanent workers in Delhi are 60 per cent., while (Mr. Abel) in his memorandum says they are 80 per cent?—That may be in regard to factory labour.

B-1593. There are two figures given, one is 60 per cent. and the other is 80 per cent.; which is the correct figure?—I have taken industrial labour as a whole, including the factory labour. I have calculated 60 per cent. as the total labour force which is permanent in Delhi.

B-1594. There are no proper methods of calculation?—Only from personal inquiries I have come to this conclusion.

B-1595. You say that you are "not aware of any appreciable degree of dismissals nor of any voluntary retirements." Is it correct that the average agreement that a man enters into when he seeks work in a factory is purely a verbal agreement?—Yes.

B-1596. So that at any time he can be discharged or dismissed?—Mostly that is the case.

B-1597. There is no security of tenure at all?—No, in most cases.

B-1598. You say "there is no marked distress noticeable amongst the industrial population in this province" and yet you say that many of the industries are passing through a period of depression. That would entail unemployment, I take it?—It will throw out of work a certain number of persons.

B-1599. You do not mean to imply that there would be no distress amongst those who have been thrown out of employment?—At present there is no marked distress amongst the industrial population.

B-1600. What do you mean by "no marked distress"?—They are not going without food or clothes.

B-1601. You mean even those who are unemployed and have no means of earning their livelihood?—They are earning enough for their maintenance.

B-1602. Would you agree with me that there would be distress if a man were thrown out of his job?—He will get some other job to earn his maintenance.

B-1603. Suppose he is not able to, considering that the industry is passing through a period of depression?—If he cannot earn anything, of course he will be in distress.

B-1604. Would you be in favour of a scheme for unemployment insurance in order to protect that particular class of worker?—I think the unemployment insurance, under existing conditions, might be productive of idleness. The thing is that industrial workmen are uneducated, they are illiterate, they do not realize their responsibilities at present; so it might encourage them to be idle.

B-1605. Have you any experience of the system of unemployment insurance in other countries?—No.

B-1606. What is your suggestion regarding training and promotion of workmen; have you any concrete suggestions?—The Government industrial schools can provide training for these people.

B-1607. You have got an industrial school here?—Yes.

B-1608. How many pupils have you got in that industrial school?—About 300.

B-1609. In your memorandum you say "The effects of contract work appear to be generally satisfactory to the parties concerned". What do you exactly mean by that? Let me put it like this: Do you mean to imply that the average worker is willing to part with a portion of his earnings which he has earned to a man who is a contractor who does no work himself and is pleased with the idea that he should part with a portion of his earnings to that particular contractor?—I mean the employer who gives a contract to the contractor. He gets an out-put from him, and the employee who works under the contractor gets his wages.

B-1610. Would you prefer such a system?—I wish to eliminate the middleman.

B-1611. Are you in favour of setting up unemployment exchanges?—Yes.

B-1612. You say "The cooly-camps housing the industrial operatives employed in the building trades in New Delhi present not a pleasant spectacle and suffer by comparison." Would you be in favour of a comprehensive Housing Act which would undertake legislation in regard to housing?—I have no experience of it.

B-1613. What attempts have you made to find out whether the workers want better housing or not?—Have you any experience of that?—No.

B-1614. Have you made any attempts to investigate the prevalence of occupational diseases?—I have been enquiring every now and again during

the course of my duties, and I have never come across any case of occupational disease in Delhi.

B-1615. No special inquiry has been instituted?—No.

B-1616. Dealing with sickness insurance you quote the resolution of the Assembly that the Governor General should not ratify the Draft Conventions nor accept the Recommendations of the International Labour Conference. What is your personal view about this matter?—I am in favour of sickness insurance.

B-1617. In your memorandum you speak of amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act. You have made very helpful suggestions, if I may say so Mr. Mehtab Singh. Are they the result of your considered judgment and practical experience in this matter?—Yes.

B-1618. Dealing with the reduction of hours, you say: "There appears to be no possibility of reduction in maxima as was indicated in the recent speech delivered by the Employers' Delegate from this country at the last International Labour Conference." What do you mean by that? Do you mean that the employers are averse to it, or it would not be a desirable thing?—I mean that the existing imperfect development of industrial organization in India does not make room for reduction in the maximum number of hours.

B-1619. Do you mean to say that the employers are to blame for not organizing industry, or do you blame the workers?—The thing is that the Indian worker is less efficient as compared with the foreign worker.

B-1620. And therefore you want longer hours of work?—I do not want to adversely affect industry and, at the same time, the worker, because he is mostly employed on piece-work system at present, will not be able to earn what he is earning now if the hours of working are reduced.

B-1621. Dealing with Trade Combinations you say that the *Mazdur Sabha* met with no success. That was a local trade union that was formed, I believe, last year when the Assembly was in session?—Yes.

B-1622. Is it a fact that the employers generally refused to recognize the leaders of the *Mazdur Sabha*?—I cannot say.

B-1623. Knowing what you do, can you tell me whether the increase in the cost of living in Delhi has been greater than the increase in the wages of the workers in the periods that you mention in your memorandum?—I have given there the variations in the wages also.

B-1624. But what is your opinion?—That the wages have also fluctuated to some extent.

B-1625. In your opinion, have the wages kept pace with the cost of living in Delhi or not?—I cannot say.

B-1626. *The Chairman*: Mr. Mehtab Singh, how long you have held this present office?—Since 1924.

B-1627. And what is your previous experience of industry?—First of all for six years I was employed as a lecturer in science in the Gordon College at Rawalpindi, and for 5 or 6 years I was doing business in indigenous medicines, drugs, herbs and chemicals.

B-1628. You have given in your memorandum and in evidence some opinions about various schemes, for instance, unemployment exchanges, sickness insurance and also unemployment insurance. Have you made an estimate of the cost of those services?—No. I am asked by the Government to submit my opinions to them on these Bills and I make a personal study of the existing conditions and submit my views to the Government.

B-1629. But you did not carry out an investigation into the cost?—No.

B-1630. Do you know if any investigation has ever been carried out in India as to the cost from an actuarial point of view?—Not to my knowledge

(The witnesses withdrew.)

**Mr. P. MUKERJEE, Mr. W. R. TAYLOR and Mr. SHRI RAM,**  
**representatives of the Punjab Chamber of Commerce.**

B-1631. *The Chairman:* Will you tell me about the organization of your Chamber of Commerce?—(Mr. Mukerjee) The organization of the Chamber of Commerce started in 1905. We have at present about 72 members including both Europeans and Indians. We represent all interests, banking, industrial, mercantile, railway, etc., covering an area of the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi and certain parts of Ajmer-Merwara and Rajputana.

B-1632. Do you consider your membership fairly representative?—I think there are very few firms of importance in these provinces which are not members of the Chamber.

B-1633. Are there any sub-divisions of your Chamber of Commerce in which employers in specific industries meet together?—They are not exactly affiliated to the Chamber of Commerce, but there is an association here in Delhi called the Millowners' Federation of which my friend and colleague Mr. Shri Ram is the President.

B-1634. Your Chamber as such deals not specifically with employers' questions but with general questions of trade and commerce?—We have different Standing Sub-Committees in which we take up different matters. For instance, if there is any question relating to Industrial matters it will be dealt with by the Sub-Committee appointed for the purpose and if there is any question on banking, it will go to the Banking Sub-Committee and so on.

B-1635. I notice that you express sympathy with the proposal for sickness insurance on a restricted scale. You say that the cost of the scheme should fall equally in the proportion of one-third on the worker, one-third on the employer and one-third on the State. Do I take it that the employers within your association are agreeable to bear their one-third?—Yes; we referred this matter to all the employers and this is their considered view.

B-1636. You also agree to bear one-third in your second capacity as taxpayers on your income?—Yes.

B-1637. Have you any evidence if the worker is willing to contribute his one-third?—No.

B-1638. Has your association formed any estimate of the cost of a scheme of that kind?—No, we have not. We considered it as a general proposition; we have not gone into the details and we have not even considered about the practicability of instituting the proposal. There are practical difficulties in the way.

B-1639. It is a kind of expression of good-will?—I think it can be put in that way.

B-1640. Referring to the question of the method of payment of wages you say "The system of monthly payment of wages is generally in vogue in industrial undertakings in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi. Some of them however pay wages fortnightly".—Yes. For instance, Mr. Taylor in certain cases pays his labour fortnightly.

B-1641. What kind of factory is this?—Carpet factory.

B-1642. Are wages paid fortnightly in more than one carpet factory?—(Mr. Taylor) In the carpet industry we pay fortnightly.

B-1643. You do not find the men objecting to that because we have had it suggested in some quarters that they would hate to be deprived of the monthly payment?—We have not found it so, because we have always paid fortnightly. Probably if we were to pay them on a monthly basis they would object strongly, having got so accustomed to the fortnightly payment.

B-1644. Your experience is that it has not done them any harm to be paid fortnightly?—No.

B-1645. In your memorandum you make an interesting reference to prohibition. You say "As regards alcohol and drugs, absolute prohibition will not only raise the moral standard of the worker but will also increase his efficiency".—(Mr. Mukerjee) I think that necessarily follows.

B-1646. Do I take it that the members of your Chamber of Commerce are ready for that proposal applying not only to the workers but to everybody?—On that I have some doubts.

B-1647. *Mr. Clow*: As regards the payment of wages in the carpet factories, is that a payment to the contractors or to the workmen?—(Mr. Taylor) Payment to both; we pay to the contractors who in turn pay to the workmen; it is a general distribution.

B-1648. They do pay them actually fortnightly?—Yes.

B-1649. Is there much delay in the payment of wages in this province?—(Mr. Mukerjee) They are paid monthly. If they are paid, say, on the 15th of this month, they will be paid exactly on the 15th of next month.

B-1650. What is the usual period lapsing between the end of the month and the payment?—About 15 days.

B-1651. Would you find it very inconvenient if you were compelled to pay, say, within 2 or 3 days?—It is almost impracticable, as it would be impracticable to make up the pay-sheet even.

B-1652. You could not do it?—I think big industries cannot do it.

B-1653. It is done in other countries?—I think in other countries they pay weekly.

B-1654. Surely that is more difficult because more accounting has to be done?—I do not think so.

B-1655. If a weekly system were adopted, would there be the same difficulty?—I think the difficulty would be greater for the change from the system which obtains at present would not be liked by the workers.

B-1656. But what is the difficulty in calculating the wages due in two days? Is it lack of staff?—It may be due to lack of staff, but in case the suggested change of payment is enforced, i.e., within the first week of the succeeding month it would lead to unnecessary increase in the staff who may not have enough work for the whole month.

B-1657. Take a factory employing 1,000 persons. Suppose Government compels you to pay wages in three days how much extra staff would you require?—(Mr. Shri Ram) The position here is quite different from the position in the west. Here we have not only to calculate the monthly wages due to the man, but we have also to calculate the wages due to him under the piece work system. We have to make deductions for rent, bad work, advances paid, provident fund and so many other things. We have to make all these calculations through human agency, unlike in the west where they employ machines even for ordinary calculations. Moreover from time immemorial the workers here including the clerks have been accustomed to receiving their wages once a month. Of course those employed on inferior jobs such as road-making and building receive their wages weekly or fortnightly. The rest would not like to receive their wages weekly or fortnightly.

B-1658. Because they would feel that their status has been reduced?—Exactly.

B-1659. The average man's wage does not vary from month to month?—It varies on account of various causes such as his absence from work, the advances he has received, and deductions for bad work. The regularity of attendance here is nothing like the regularity of attendance in the west. That is why the calculations take a long time to finish.

B-1660. Are advances generally given to the great majority of the workers?—So far as my mill is concerned we give two sorts of advances, provident fund advances and pay advances. Provident fund advances are

given for big expenses such as marriage and pay advances are given every week for meeting small expenses before they get their pay.

B-1661. Generally what proportion of the pay is given to them as advances?—In the case of the monthly wage workers we give anything between 25 to 30 per cent. and sometimes even 75 per cent. of the pay for new comers; for the old hands we give up to 50 per cent.

B-1662. Do you charge interest on these advances?—We do not charge interest on advances against pay; but on advances from the provident fund which are taken for buying land, for marriages and so on we charge  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

B-1663. Do other employers charge any interest on advances against pay?—I do not think anybody charges interest on such advances. The small interest we charge on provident fund advances is intended just to keep them from taking too much advances.

B-1664. *Mr. Birla*: It has been suggested that the employers in Delhi are generally in favour of sickness insurance being introduced and that they would be prepared to contribute their own quota to the sickness insurance fund. Taking a specific case of your own mills do you think that you would be prepared to contribute towards such a fund?—We have all of us sympathy with the sickness insurance fund. So far as my mills are concerned, even without the sickness insurance I do not think any of our workers suffers. When he is sick he is helped in some form or other. He is helped so far as medical attendance is concerned, which he gets free. Even with regard to wages he is given some form of help. But if it came to a question of compulsion it would all depend on the conditions then existing in the factory.

B-1665. You may be doing many things voluntarily, but if you are compelled by law to contribute to the sickness insurance fund would you do it?—I have no idea what that amount of contribution will be. If it were a big amount certainly we would fall out of the scheme.

B-1666. I take it you have not considered this question seriously and what has been expressed in this memorandum is a sort of lip sympathy?—Not lip sympathy exactly, but as the Chairman put it, just an expression of good-will.

B-1667. Do you think that your workers will be prepared to contribute towards such a fund?—Certainly not. It was years before we could make the provident fund system compulsory; it had been optional all the time before.

B-1668. When did you start this provident fund?—About 12 or 14 years ago.

B-1669. What percentage do you contribute?—Jobbers, mistries and clerks contribute  $\frac{1}{12}$  of their pay and we contribute an equal amount. It is on a sliding scale for the lower staff. People getting Rs. 10 and below and half-timers contribute 8 as. to 12 as. a month.

B-1670. What does your worker do generally if he is ill?—Does he take advantage of the medical facilities provided by you, or does he prefer to go back to his native place?—If he has ordinary illness, certainly he takes advantage of the medical facilities which I fortunately have in abundance. My mill is hedged on all sides with medical institutions like the Tibia College, the Lady Willington Medical School, and the Municipal dispensary to the cost of which we contribute a good deal. Those who have been ill for a long time and those who have not become permanent residents of Delhi would rather go away to their villages.

B-1671. Suppose a man is seriously ill and wants to go to his village and draw from there the benefit due to him, would you be averse to pay him on the certificate of any unknown doctor; or how would you manage it? You know it is not easy to get doctors in our remote villages.—We are aware of the difficulties. We pointed them out when the question came before us. Even the Government referred to them in their letter to us.

B-1672. In your opinion apart from the difficulty of contributions, which as you say is a small thing the employers might agree to, there are other difficulties, *viz.*, about administration. Therefore you think that at present it does not seem to be a practical proposition?—Yes, I think, so.

B-1673. All the same you are in sympathy with the object in view and you would desire that some sort of scheme should be promulgated?—Yes.

B-1674. In your memorandum you say: "As far back as 1920 a suggestion was made by Government as to the desirability of interesting Local Governments in the matter of housing which this Chamber fully endorsed and it is understood that Government always assist by leasing out its land for industrial concerns on favourable terms". Is that your own experience too?—My experience is just the reverse of it. I do actually want to build houses for my workers. But it is simply impossible to get any sort of help from Government. So far as the Local Government is concerned they are quite willing to help. In one case they recommended to the Imperial Government that a plot of land might be sold to me at Rs. 4 per square yard. The Imperial Government turned down that proposal and I had to pay Rs. 9 a square yard for that land.

B-1675. What is the sort of help you want from Government?—We must get land somewhere near the factories. Then we should get advances of money on favourable terms. In their circular letter No. 628, dated 12th August, 1920, the Government of India clearly stated that the Local Governments and Municipalities would help us financially in building houses for the workers; but in practice it is impossible to get anything out of them.

B-1676. You suggest that Government should not only give you lands at reasonable prices, but that they should also grant you loans if necessary.—Yes.

B-1677. It has been suggested in certain quarters that if the working hours were reduced the efficiency of the worker would be increased. Can you throw any light on that point?—I doubt if we could get any more output in proportion if we cut it to 8 hours. At present for a 10-hour day we are getting 8½ hours work.

B-1678. What is your spinning efficiency?—I could not tell you since I have been out of touch for the last six or seven months. I think it might be about 90 per cent.

B-1679. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: How many ounces do you get per spindle on 20's?—With warp spindles we get 6½ to 6¾ ounces.

B-1680. *Mr. Birla*: I think it would be more appropriate if I put the question as to what efficiency you get. Because so far as the number of ounces are concerned, it all depends on the speed of the machine and the quality of cotton. With cotton of bad quality the speed would have to be reduced and consequently the output of thread in ounces will be diminished. I want to know what efficiency you get.

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: How is he going to work that out?

B-1681. *Mr. Birla*: Ounces are not essential from my point of view. You think it is 90 per cent.?—I think so, but I am not quite sure.

B-1682. This 10 per cent. goes towards doffing, breakages and contraction and all that sort of thing?—Yes.

B-1683. If we reduce the working hours from 10 to 8 what do you think will be the efficiency of the worker converted into 10 hours production? In the ordinary course there must be a 20 per cent. reduction.—Efficiency does not vary with the number of hours.

B-1684. What will be the percentage of efficiency converted into 10 hours production?—There might be 1 or 2 per cent. better efficiency. I do not think there is room for much. When we were having a 16-hour day, the efficiency was the same as when we had a 12 or 13-hour day. Now, I think it is all different and there is not much room for efficiency.



B-1685. Could you furnish the Commission with a statement showing what would be the increase in the cost of production if the working hours were reduced from 10 to 9 or from 10 to 8?—If the working hours are reduced from 10 to 8 per day, it will mean an increase of 16 and 13 per cent. in the cost of yarn and cloth, respectively.

B-1686. Because I think that would be very helpful in finding out what the increase in the cost of production would be in a cotton mill, if any question of the reduction in hours were considered.—I will work that out.

B-1687. You have experience of the double shift system?—Yes.

B-1688. I understand that your mills also work 10 hours during the day and 8 hours during the night?—Yes.

B-1689. What is your experience about night work? Do workers prefer to work at night or during the day?—Certainly during the day. For 8 hours in the night I have to pay the same wages as for 10 hours in the day.

B-1690. Have you got cooling arrangements?—Yes.

B-1691. Does that keep the temperature down during the warm season lower than it is outside?—Except in the rainy weather, it is comfortable.

B-1692. Have you any experience of trade unions in Delhi?—There is no such thing as a trade union.

B-1693. There is no organized trade unions?—Organized or disorganized, there is no such thing.

B-1694. Did you ever refuse to recognize any? I understand there was one union some time back?—A few people at one time collected together and called themselves a *Mazdur Sabha*. (Mr. Mukerjee) What Mr. Shri Ram says is that there was no registered trade union. (Mr. Shri Ram) Registered or unregistered it does not matter. There were certain mushroom trade unions which lasted for not more than a month or 15 days. I do not think they lasted for more.

B-1695. *Diman Chaman Lall*: Why did they not last longer?—There must have been some inherent defect in them.

B-1696. *Mr. Birla*: Did you refuse to recognize any trade union?—If there had been any trade union I would have recognized them. There did not exist any proper trade union.

B-1697. Are you doing welfare work?—Yes.

B-1698. What is the welfare work you are doing?—We give them every week some soap and water to wash themselves with. Then we hold the workers' fair every year in which we give for each man half-anna tickets worth one rupee with which to buy sweets and things of that sort, so that there might not be any hoarding of money. We arrange joy rides, magic lanterns, a laughing gallery and so on. They enjoy them immensely.

B-1699. Do you provide any sort of daily recreation?—Since I came back I started loud speakers and playing gramophones half an hour before the mill starts, twice a day. We have some other small things in our own way. We give them cinema shows.

B-1700. Does any outside agency ever afford any help to you in the matter of your welfare work?—When this so-called *Mazdur Sabha* was started some well-intentioned people volunteered to work among my staff; but I did not require their services, because I think I am in a better position to serve my staff than those coming from outside who really do not know the labour problems.

B-1701. Are there any social workers in Delhi who are working among the working classes?—Very few, I might say, one or two only.

B-1702. What is your view about this drink problem? Do you think that total prohibition of drink among the working classes would help to improve their efficiency?—It is much less as it is, than it was ten years ago. If compulsion were introduced I do not think anybody would object except very few old sinners.

B-1703. Would it increase the efficiency of the workers?—Certainly. The advantage will be not in efficiency, but in better attendance.

*The Chairman*: You do not suggest Mr. Birla, that it should be applied to one section of the people only?

B-1704. *Mr. Birla*: Is it not a fact that so far as Indians are concerned they look upon drink as a sort of evil and generally they do not drink, at any rate publicly?—(Mr. Mukerjee) I think there are many of those who drink and do so publicly.

B-1705. You think that Indian public opinion would strongly support a proposal for total prohibition?—(Mr. Mukerjee) I think so. (Mr. Shri Ram) I do not know about the country, but the Delhi Municipality of which I am the Vice-President has already proposed to increase the duty on liquor from nothing to Rs. 5 per maund during the last four or five months.

B-1706. *Mr. Cliff*: What is the Delhi surtax?—Up to about a few weeks ago there was none. I understand that they have imposed a tax of Rs. 5 a maund.

B-1707. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: On country liquor or imported liquor?—Less on country liquor and more on imported liquor. I was away and I do not know definitely how much it is.

B-1708. *Mr. Birla*: May I take it from you that so far as Indian public opinion is concerned they will support such a proposal?—Yes, there will be a preponderating majority in favour of a proposal for total prohibition.

B-1709. *Miss Power*: In dealing with staff organization you say that "owing to lack of education it is not easy to train labourers for promotion to the superior staff and there are, therefore, not many facilities to train them". Do you know of any experiment being conducted by the members of your Chamber to give any educational facilities of that kind to the lower grade workers?—We are doing our very best to induce these people to attend night schools and improve themselves and make themselves fit for higher posts. As it is they cannot rise above the post of jobbers.

B-1710. Is there anything else for them except night classes?—Nothing else except the night classes. Even the night classes they would not take advantage of.

B-1711. Do you not think that possibly long hours of work has something to do with that? People working 10 to 12 hours a day may not be inclined to go to night classes after that.—I do not think that stands in their way. That is mere change of work.

B-1712. Our experience in the West has been that working long hours stood very much in the way of attendance at night classes.—I do not think that stands in their way here.

B-1713. *Mr. Cliff*: Why do you not think that it stands in the way?—That is my view. I have been with them for 25 years now and I know they are averse to any sort of education. All that is now slowly changing and they want to learn something. But still they are far behind.

B-1714. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Children below the age of 12 years are not employed; they could go to school if they wanted to?—Yes.

B-1715. *Mr. Cliff*: Do you provide a school for the workers in your mill?—We provide the building and the Municipality provides the staff.

B-1716. *Miss Power*: In your memorandum you have stated that "in a very restricted scale maternity benefits are available. An allowance of three months' wages is in certain cases given to women labourers, that is, two months before and one month after confinement". Can you tell me how many firms are involved in a scheme of that kind?—I think only one.

B-1717. How many women are covered by that?—I cannot tell you about this particular firm, but we have not 1 per cent. of female labour in our mills.

B-1718. So that it is less than 1 per cent.?—Mr. Birla has introduced this maternity benefit scheme in his mills. I do not think they have many women there.

B-1719. Would your Chamber be in favour of a Bill of the nature referred to in your memorandum covering the whole of the Punjab and Delhi?—(Mr. Mukerjee) We have said that we have full sympathy with Mr. Joshi's Bill about maternity benefits which was introduced in the Legislative Assembly before 1925. If the scales of benefit are placed before the Chamber, we shall examine them and we shall be able to give a considered opinion on the Bill itself. As it is I understand that employers in general throughout the country have some sort of maternity benefit scheme.

B-1720. You say: "Stringency of inspection and enforcement of regulations are generally at times more than necessary both in seasonal and permanent factories". Would you explain what you mean. Do you mean that there is not an excessive amount of industrial inspection?—I mean that there is too much industrial inspection. If any mill applied to Government for exemption to work over-time within limited periods, although it is provided for by the Act, such exemption is not usually granted, or if it is granted it is done so too late. The mill authorities do not even get a reply from Government in less than a month. Our practical experience is this. This is one form of stringency. Again they do not allow any laxity on the part of employers and the inspecting authorities are only too ready to pounce upon them even for small lapses.

B-1721. Do they not give you a warning first?—They give a warning, but they are also very prone to instituting prosecutions even for small lapses.

B-1722. Are you referring only to cotton ginning factories?—I am referring to cotton ginning factories, mills and everything coming under the Indian Factories Act.

B-1723. Do you imply that the cotton ginning factories never work above the regulated hours?—No, they do not. They cannot, according to the Act.

B-1724. Your evidence, you probably know, is contrary to that of the Factory Inspector who stated that there is a great deal of over-time work in the cotton ginning mills in the Punjab?—That has not been my experience.

B-1725. How are you in a position to say that? Have you any means of collecting information as to the actual number of hours they work every day?—We have not found that necessary.

B-1726. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: With regard to welfare work you said that you give them soap and water to wash themselves with once a week and you conduct some fair when you give Re. 1 to buy sweets. Do you think that is sufficient welfare work?—That is a matter of opinion. We think we do more than what most of the factories do not only in India but also in the West.

B-1727. What is your definition of welfare work?—That is again a difficult question to answer.

B-1728. Had you any definite scheme after you returned from Europe regarding the welfare work?—Problems of India are quite different from the problems of the West. What is necessary in the West is entirely unnecessary here.

B-1729. I could grant that it is so. But have you not to stretch your imagination and try to suit those things?—I am thinking of them. We have just started, as I said, playing the gramophone and the loud speakers half an hour before the work starts, twice a day.

B-1730. *Diwan Chamon Lall*: Mr. Mukerjee, you state in your memorandum that the indebtedness of the workers is almost general. Can you tell me what it is due to?—I am afraid I have to revise my opinion. On further enquiry I understand that that is not so general as it used to be ten years ago.

B-1731. If there is indebtedness, what is that due to?—I think the indebtedness of the labour population is due to the extreme poverty of the country.

B-1732. But you go on to say that raising the level of wages will not increase the efficiency of the labourer?—I personally think that the labour population does not understand the value of money. So long as they have got enough to eat, they will not go to work. That is my personal experience. Raising the wages will not necessarily increase the efficiency of the worker.

B-1733. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: Is not the inefficiency of the worker really due to lack of food? The physique of the people is generally going down. Have you not noticed that?—No, we do not say that; we say that lack of education is the main factor.

B-1734. You do not think that lack of food has got anything to do with it?—I think as long as a man is properly fed he is all right.

B-1735. But do you think the labourer is properly fed?—I think so; I think the labour population is well fed; I think it is the middle classes who are not well fed.

B-1736. *Col. Russell*: We have been told in other connections that malaria sometimes exists in the Punjab to such an extent that it may affect 80 per cent. of the working population for two or three months. The resulting cost of such an epidemic would be far higher than the 12½ lakhs you have quoted in your memorandum?—If that is actually the fact, yes.

B-1737. Therefore it becomes still more difficult for you to face the financial obligations involved in connection with an insurance scheme?—(Mr. Taylor) Yes.

B-1738. But in India you must not only consider normal malaria; you must also consider the question of these abnormal epidemics that occur?—(Mr. Mukerjee) The financial liability must be much more, but I do not agree with the suggestion that malaria accounts for 80 per cent. of the sickness of the whole working population.

B-1739. You say that the "accommodation provided by the employers is generally satisfactory and in most cases it is far better than the standard of houses in which the working population lives in its village home". Do you think that is a sufficient standard on which to base your estimate?—I think the housing conditions provided by industries generally are quite satisfactory.

B-1740. With regard to the industrial efficiency of the workers, you say. "It is admittedly a fact that in recent years the efficiency of workers has improved". Then you say that the health, physique and standards of living cannot be said to affect it to any appreciable degree. How do you reconcile those statements?—As I have said in answer to Mrs. Chatterjee's questions, it is not the health, the physique and the standard of living that account for the inefficiency of the working population; that inefficiency is mainly due to lack of education.

B-1741. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Would you consider that a man and his family living on 1½ annas a day for food well-fed?—I do not think so.

B-1742. Is there unemployment and under-employment in Delhi?—There is no unemployment of the labouring classes.

B-1743. In your memorandum you say that there is no "acute" unemployment; I take that to mean that there is unemployment but that you do not consider it to be acute?—You must consider the answer in reference to the question in order to follow it.

B-1744. I am taking the words in your own memorandum: "Amongst the working classes there does not seem to be acute unemployment"?—I do not think there is any kind of unemployment.

B-1745. Have you any method of finding whether there is or is not?—No.

B-1746. Did you ever try to find out?—Yes. We have asked the Industrial Surveyor.

B-1747. You have not investigated the matter yourself; you have accepted the statement of the Industrial Surveyor?—We have investigated the matter practically in this way: We have to recruit labour and we find that labour does not come to us. That means there is no unemployment, because we find difficulty in recruiting labour.

B-1748. What class of labour—unskilled labour?—We may not find much difficulty in getting unskilled labour, but there is difficulty in recruiting skilled labour.

B-1749. We have evidence to the effect that there is no difficulty in the recruitment of unskilled labour because there are many people available for that purpose, which proves that there are many people seeking one particular job. That leads to the further conclusion that there must be some kind of unemployment?—(Mr. Taylor) My experience is that the ordinary working class men do not as a rule remain for any length of time at their job; they are always leaving for some reason or other. It may be for no reason at all, or simply to get a change. There is a continual circle of people leaving employment and getting other jobs; one has a continuous flow of people going out and coming in.

B-1750. If that is so, would it not be better to have some arrangement to assist them in finding the jobs for which so many are looking?—(Mr. Mukerjee) There is no doubt about it. (Mr. Taylor) I personally do not think it would serve the purpose either for skilled or unskilled labour.

B-1751. You are contradicting one another?—(Mr. Mukerjee) We say there is no unemployment.

B-1752. Supposing people are continually leaving employment and seeking employment elsewhere, would you have any objection to a systematic arrangement being made by means of which the workers could place their demands before some organized body and asked that they should be placed in their particular jobs; what objection would you have to that?—(Mr. Taylor) No objection at all, except that there seems to be no necessity for it.

B-1753. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: In the opinion of your Chamber would it not be preferable to make the Municipalities or the State responsible for the housing of the working classes?—(Mr. Mukerjee) Yes, we would welcome it; in fact there was a Government proposal to that effect.

B-1754. In your memorandum you say that from the health point of view such accommodation is generally satisfactory.—We have been told that in some cases there is congestion in the living rooms, and a medical witness says that the number of deaths due to tuberculosis is 12·8 per cent. among the general population. There are no exact statistics with regard to the labourers. Obviously this is not a healthy state of affairs?—I think tuberculosis is more to be found in middle class families than among the workers.

B-1755. You say further that "the moral effect of industrial housing conditions on the worker has not been found detrimental, otherwise there would be many instances of disturbances in areas where houses for labourers are situated. Do you mean that you test the moral effect of housing by the existence or otherwise of disturbances?—I think it follows.

B-1756. Then you say that the wages of workmen are fixed more or less verbally. I take it that your Chamber would not be averse to a better system of entering into agreement between employers and employees?—It would not.

B-1757. I understand you to say that efficiency is not governed by the health, physique and standard of living of the workers. Surely a worker in good health with good physique and who lives better would be a more efficient worker?—That is in answer to some specific question; we say

that it is not so much governed by the health of the worker as the efficiency of the machinery.

B-1758. You speak of industries being in a depressed state. I take it that the cloth mills are not in a depressed state?—They are very much more so.

B-1759. You refer also to the Indian States. Have you any more information as to what the Government of India have done in regard to this matter?—Not since I returned from Geneva.

B-1760. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Do you consider that labour in Delhi is in a better or worse state than labour in the surrounding agricultural districts?—I think the industrial worker is generally better off than the agricultural worker.

B-1761. Do you consider he is better or worse off in Delhi than he would be in a large industrial centre?—I do not know.

B-1762. You have had had a temporary influx of workers due to the building of New Delhi?—Yes.

B-1763. When New Delhi is finished naturally a large number of these workmen will have to leave because there will not be employment in Delhi?—Yes.

B-1764. I take it that that is beyond question?—Yes.

B-1765. May that be the cause of temporary congestion of housing?—Yes.

B-1766. May it be that the reason why that congestion was not obviated was because it was known that the labour would be here temporarily?—Yes.

B-1767. So that the congestion that may have been existing during the last two or three years in Delhi will not continue?—No, it is not continuing. Had it been permanent labour the employers would have taken good care to provide good housing conditions.

B-1768. So that we need not expect that these unfortunate housing conditions will continue?—No.

B-1769. Is it not a fact that the grain merchant is in the habit of giving credit to work-people?—Yes.

B-1770. He gives a month's credit as a rule?—Yes.

B-1771. Whether the workmen were paid by his employers at once or at the end of the month the price charged by the grain merchant would probably be the same?—Yes.

B-1772. He would pay the ruling price whether he pays at once or in a month?—Yes.

B-1773. When a workman starts work, as you pay your work-people a fortnight after the end of the month, he would not be able to pay his grain merchant for six weeks?—Yes.

B-1774. Do you think that the grain merchant would insist on being paid or do you think that knowing that the workman was to be paid a fortnight later, he would give additional credit for that fortnight?—I think he would give him that latitude.

B-1775. So that the workman would not have to go to the money-lender in order to pay the grain merchant?—No.

B-1776. Afterwards the workman would only be a month in arrears?—Yes.

B-1777. And if he changed his employment, I take it it would still only be a month?—Yes.

B-1778. It is only the new worker who has that extra fortnight?—Yes.

B-1779. Even if he were paid with only one week delay it would only mean that he would have to take five weeks' credit instead of six weeks?—Yes.

B-1780. Probably the workman is no worse off by having a delay of a fortnight than if he were paid the day after because of the credit he gets from his supplier?—Yes.

B-1781. The workman would not have to go to the money-lender in order to pay the merchant who supplies his grain?—Yes, because he gets advances from the employer in the interim.

B-1782. What would these advances be for?—For his own daily food.

B-1783. Does he pay cash for his daily food?—Sometimes he gets advances.

B-1784. What does he do with the advances; would he use the advances in order to pay the grain merchant?—Sometimes.

B-1785. In Bombay the grain merchants always give credit. He would not have to pay rent in advance?—No.

B-1786. Would he have to pay cash for his food?—Sometimes he can get advances.

B-1787. Would he have to pay the grain merchant cash?—No. He would get credit with the grain merchant and he will make payment after he gets his pay.

B-1788. Therefore the advances would be used for extraordinary expenditure and would not be used to pay for his food or his rent?—No.

(The witnesses withdrew.)

**Rai Bahadur BSAKHA SINGH, Contractor, New Delhi.**

B-1789. *The Chairman:* How long have you been a contractor in New Delhi?—In New Delhi from 1912, but I have been a contractor since 1907.

B-1790. How many men do you employ as a maximum?—2,000 at a time.

B-1791. How many have you now?—Now at different places I still have about 2,000. They are at Multan, Lahore and here. I have got about 500 here now.

B-1792. The term "contractor" with reference to yourself includes more than merely collecting and supplying labour?—I recruit the labour myself and do the whole thing.

B-1793. That is to say, you contract for the doing of certain work?—Yes.

B-1794. What kind of work do you undertake with the labour that you bring?—Different sorts of work, with masons, carpenters, stone dressers and unskilled labour.

B-1795. That is, general building work?—Yes.

B-1796. Does it include actual erection of buildings?—The erection of buildings also.

B-1797. Is it under the supervision of the architect?—Yes, under the supervision of the Government architect and engineers.

B-1798. You take a contract to carry out the work?—Yes.

B-1799. Therefore you are what in England is called a 'building contractor'?—Yes, a building contractor.

B-1800. I understand there are other people in India called contractors who merely collect and supply labour and have no further responsibility?—There are some petty contractors, but I take up the work myself because I am an engineer. I did some service for the Government in the beginning, and I now take on work which I supervise.

B-1801. When Government enters into a contract with you for some large scheme of building, which I take it they do, does Government put in any conditions or directions to you with regard to your labour force, or is it left absolutely to you?—No, they do not make any condition as to labour; it is left to me. If the contractor does not pay, the labourers generally go to the officers; but that very seldom happens.

B-1802. No condition is laid down as to housing or medical facilities, or anything of that kind?—No.

B-1803. There is one matter in your memorandum which I do not understand. You say in one place "Improvements are possible if labour exchanges—that is, State Bureaux similar to those in Great Britain—are established, where unemployed can register their names and occupations, and to which the employer in need of labour may apply". In the next paragraph you appear to say something which is quite the opposite—"Public employment agencies should be discouraged, as these would be harmful considering the present labour conditions in India." What distinction do you make?—That should read "Private employment agencies should be discouraged."

B-1804. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola:* You say "Industrial workers are generally recruited from amongst the ranks of those uprooted from the soil, whose ancestral land has under the baneful influence of fragmentation dwindled to a point at which it will no longer support its owner and his family". That is to say in your view the labour which finds employment in industry is a surplus over what the land will stand. People who are unable to maintain themselves on the land are driven to industrial occupations?—



Yes. Those who cannot maintain themselves on the land have to seek labour outside.

B-1805. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: You say that the general health of the workers is not very good. How do you account for this?—In the first place they have not good houses, which affects their general health. The houses are overcrowded, being occupied by three, four or five families.

B-1806. Is that the only reason? Do not you think there is lack of food?—They eat very little.

B-1807. You say the birth rate is low and that infant mortality is high. What are the reasons for that?—The health is bad. They cannot keep their children in good houses, and therefore the infant mortality is high.

B-1808. You say that their physique is generally weak. What is the reason for that?—They have no facilities to improve it.

B-1809. You state that the provision of women doctors is very poor. Can you suggest any remedy for that?—The Government should put in every contract with its contractors a clause providing for medical attendance for the workers. At present there is no such clause in the contracts. Sometimes I employ doctors for the workmen, but it is in my private capacity. There should be something in the agreement to the effect that the contractors are responsible for the general health of their employees. Government provide one or two doctors, but the number is not sufficient.

B-1810. Medical aid is too expensive under the Western system of medicine. Has any effort been made to try the indigenous system?—The people were at one time prejudiced against the English medicines, but now that prejudice is breaking down.

B-1811. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Is it not a fact that with regard to Government contracts Government provide doctors, dispensaries and medicine?—Yes.

B-1812. Is that the reason why Government does not ask the contractor to provide such things—because Government itself provides them?—Yes.

B-1813. *Mr. Chow*: How do you get your labour? Suppose you want more labour to-morrow, what do you do?—We know that there are certain centres of available labour, and we have got mates, whom we send to the villages to recruit labour which we know is available there.

B-1814. Do the mates have to give advances?—Sometimes, yes—advances and railway fares.

B-1815. Not always?—Not always. Those who have faith in us will not ask for advances.

(The witness withdrew.)

# DELHI TENTH MEETING

Monday, 4th November, 1929.

PRESENT :

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

<p>Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.          Sir IBRAHIM RAHIMTOOLA, Kt.,          K.C.S.I., C.I.E.          Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,          C.B.E.          Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.          Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.</p>		<p>Mr. G. D. BIRLA, M.L.A.          Mr. JOHN CLIFF.          Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.          DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.          Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.          Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,          I.M.S. (<i>Medical Assessor</i>).</p>
<p>Mrs. J. C. CHATTERJEE (<i>Lady Assessor</i>).</p>		
<p>Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (<i>Joint Secretaries</i>.)          Mr. A. DIBDIN. }</p>		

**Major J. R. D. WEBB, I.M.S., Health Officer, New Delhi.**

B-1816. *The Chairman:* Major Webb, you are the Assistant Director of Public Health, Delhi Province?—Yes.

B-1817. How long have you held this office?—I have been here since March 1928.

B-1818. Your previous experience?—I was at Simla from July 1923 until the time of joining here, with a break of about four months, while I toured India in connection with the interchange of health officers of the League of Nations. Apart from that I was stationed in Bombay doing public health work there from 1917. I was on active service during the Great War. I have been serving in India since 1913.

B-1819. You have long experience of the Indian health conditions over a wide part of this country?—I believe I may say so.

B-1820. And you have specially devoted yourself to the study of malaria and its control?—I would not say entirely malaria, but field work in connection with the improvement of all classes of individuals living in India.

B-1821. And as a result of your experience you in your memorandum lay great stress on malaria as being the greatest ill to which the health of the Indian people is subject?—I do.

B-1822. You quote some figures where you say that well over a million deaths occur solely from malaria?—These figures are quoted from the Director of Malarial Survey in India. 1,130,000 deaths occur per annum from malaria alone.

B-1823. You suggest that the great number of deaths is only a fraction of the harm that is done to the national health by malaria?—That is so.

B-1824. You again tell us that there is a loss of over 300,000,000 working days per annum in India on the top of the death rate?—Yes, that is so. I took the figure from the Director of Malarial Survey of India.

B-1825. Has that loss of so many working days per annum ever been put into the form of a percentage of loss of national working efficiency?—No. It has been calculated in rupees, annas and pies; and we find that there is a potential loss to the country of about Rs. 1,50,00,00,000 or £100,000,000 sterling.

B-1826. Has that ever been put in the form of percentages; for instance, would you say that the loss of working efficiency amounts to 20 per cent. or 30 per cent.?—I would not be prepared to make that statement without reference to the Director of Malarial Survey. That question could better be answered by him. I have not worked that out.

B-1827. Could you obtain that from him?—I could do so.

B-1828. Because it would be most useful to us in our work if we could have a reliable estimate on which depends so many other things?—Exactly.

B-1829. Is it the case that this national weakening from malaria predisposes the population to other epidemics when they come along, for instance cholera, plague and hookworm?—That is so. Not only those diseases which you mention, but other diseases such as leprosy, pneumonia, influenza and weakening generally of the physical side of the people through re-attacks of malaria. That is not generally appreciated by the workers themselves and those controlling labour.

B-1830. I take it that it is your deliberate opinion that the control and practical elimination of malaria, or at any rate a reduction of malaria to a small item in the national health, would do more than any other one thing?—I do believe that. When one refers to the conditions in America and the Federated Malay States where work is being done, there would be no doubt felt in that respect.

B-1831. And I notice that you have pinned your opinion to a practical point in your memorandum where you say: "I do not believe that an insurance scheme against sickness could be successfully introduced at present. My reasons are as follows: Such insurance schemes cannot successfully operate until we have reduced the incidence of disease to a reasonable figure"—I believe that is so. I understand from enquiries in Delhi that insurance companies of a very small nature have been started from time to time in connection with the insurance of labourers against death. These are small insurance companies with no capital behind them admittedly. They do not bear too close an inspection in respect of even insurance against death. It would be more difficult to insure against sickness in our present state.

B-1832. Therefore you consider that the control of malaria is a condition precedent to any practical scheme of sickness insurance?—I do. That is one thing. But other epidemics occur, such as cholera, plague, enteric fever which are not brought to the fore, and tuberculosis. All these revolve round the same subject.

B-1833. I understand you to say that once malaria was conquered the work of tackling other diseases would be simplified?—Yes.

B-1834. Your reason I take it is that as long as this terrible national weakening through malaria persists, the actuarial basis of any scheme would involve such heavy contributions from the worker, the employer and the State that it would not be a practical proposition?—That is exactly the point.

B-1835. *Col. Russell*: In your memorandum you say that "In the earlier days the labour was entirely controlled by the Public Works Department." Can you explain what that means?—That requires a qualification. The Public Works Department representing Government did not directly control labour in the sense of recruiting them and paying their wages directly. All they did was to build quarters for them, afford them medical facilities, supply them with good drinking water and arrange for the conservancy of their quarters.

B-1836. The Public Works Department lines were built by Government agency. Did the coolies pay any rent for them?—The coolies did not and do not pay any rent for the coolie lines, with the exception to my knowledge of one small coolie line in the notified area. I am excluding Delhi City for the present from my remarks and speaking of the Imperial Capital and the Notified Area. The Notified Area has a small remains of coolie lines which at one time was controlled by Government and

which the Commission saw yesterday. The coolies there pay on an average 12 annas per mensem to the contractor who at present owns these lines.

B-1837. In your memorandum you say that "Government maintained dispensaries and sub-assistant surgeons to attend to the minor ailments of labour,.....". How many dispensaries and how many sub-assistant surgeons were in use?—The history of that in the Imperial capital is interesting. At the beginning two sub-assistant surgeons, two compounders, a small staff of menials and one choukidar were maintained by Government in one area. One sub-assistant surgeon worked in the dispensary and the other moved into camps amongst labour carrying with him a certain number of medicines for treating the labourers. This formed the initial basis of development of what is known as the combined hospital at New Delhi. In addition to this, one sub-assistant surgeon and one compounder were kept in the southern area to look after the large mass of labour engaged in the manufacture of bricks. In addition to this a contractor paid for and started a dispensary with a compounder in charge near the Secretariat. Later on he moved that on to the stone-yard. The Municipality also employed a compounder and a woman worker who was not fully qualified to look after a small labour camp. That served very well for the transitional stage before the combined hospital was started. There was practically nothing else for the workers except a small crèche which was developed at that time, the welfare centre opened by the Baby Health Week organization and the lady compounder who lived apart near the clerks' quarters.

B-1838. Then I take it you think that these arrangements were not sufficient for 30,000 coolies?—I do not think so.

B-1839. Were there no first aid posts?—With the exception of what I have described there was no first aid post actually in the camps at a later date.

B-1840. I take it you approve of the foundation of first aid posts?—I do most decidedly.

B-1841. Did you ever ask for these?—I was not here at the time. Immediately I came to Delhi I did ask for them.

B-1842. You say in your memorandum that the crèche was not a success. Can you tell me why?—There are several reasons why it was not successful. One was that it was a new idea foreign to women labour. Secondly this crèche was left entirely in the hands of amateurs to operate. Thirdly, there was the difficulty of breast feeding of children. Indian women feed their children at the breast and there was the difficulty of the women returning to their children. Attempts were made to bring women into the crèche for that purpose. Fourthly, as the building progressed, the crèche had to be moved from one room to another. Lastly, this crèche was paid for by a contractor who withdrew his subscription and gave it to another charity, and the crèche closed down.

B-1843. Is it your personal opinion that these crèches will always be a failure?—I do not think so, if they are properly operated.

B-1844. Then I take it that you would be glad to help in the development of welfare work of that kind?—Yes.

B-1845. What have you done in this direction in Delhi?—When I first came to Delhi two ladies Miss Griffin and Miss Graham were carrying on welfare work here under the auspices of the Lady Chelmsford League of India, an organization for welfare work. Later on Her Excellency Lady Reading took a personal interest in the matter and started the Lady Reading Health School. We had then a small welfare centre staffed by a compounder and the lady worker to whom I just referred and who was chiefly working among the clerks and not among the coolies. We then learnt that this welfare centre was under the control of the Delhi Baby and Health Week Association, a most excellent institution whose aims and objects are to formulate and establish centres for welfare work in various part of India, and as they become established, to hand them over to the local governing bodies. We made a proposal to that association to take over the welfare centre

at New Delhi and asked the Municipality to increase the work. It took a considerable time and the matter was then settled in April 1928. Before September of the same year we established six welfare centres in the coolie camps in the various lines. I may state here that we did not officially wait for sanction as we knew that sanction was going to come. We forged ahead with what money was left in the balance of funds of the Baby Health Week Association and we personally established those centres in anticipation of sanction.

B-1846. Have the labour force welcomed this work?—Yes, they have done so. In this connection I would refer you to the pamphlet enclosed with my memorandum, describing maternity and child welfare work in Delhi, in three labour camps for the year 1928. The camps were opened in May; and before December of the same year, the clinic attendance at one of them was 3,130, at another, over a thousand, and at a third, nearly 4,000. On page 14 you will see that the house to house visits in these camps range round 4,000 for each camp. I may observe here that labour here is generally fatalistic in its outlook with regard to work of this sort and education is necessary to firmly establish good work amongst them.

B-1847. From your last remark I take it you consider that some advance in educational facilities would not only be appreciated, but would be made use of?—Educational facilities are absolutely necessary. We see them making some attempt. The coolies themselves in one particular camp have started a small educational institution. They contribute two rupees per child. In the Notified Area we have a night school for all adult coolies, which the Commission saw yesterday. They also saw the school mentioned above. A well-known lady of Delhi, whose name I do not mention here, has started an industrial school for workers in a highly populated village in the Notified Area. That will be extending the work for helping labour in industrial and minor education.

B-1848. I would call your attention to a statement made in the memorandum sent in to the Commission which runs as follows: "The causes of the troubles among Indian labour are"—I will not read item No. (1)—"the growing feeling of unrest among Indian labour and the limited scope of welfare activities". Have you any experience either to support or refute such a statement?—In New Delhi and the Notified Area there is no unrest amongst the coolies. They are disciplined. In this connection I would mention that about two or three years ago the headquarters of the Communist Party in connection with labour was actually stationed in Delhi. I am told,—I was not here at that time—that there was some unrest at that time. But very shortly afterwards, in about six months the headquarters was transferred to Bombay, because Delhi was not considered to be an industrial city.

B-1849. Another witness says that medical facilities are not properly used because of the fear of loss of a day's wages entailed in visits to hospitals and dispensaries. What is your personal experience?—That is absolutely correct. That was one of our reasons for establishing first aid posts in the labour camps in New Delhi.

B-1850. You think you would solve that difficulty by establishing first aid posts?—I do.

B-1851. Has the propaganda work carried out by your department been of any lasting good?—Would you like to extend the work?—Propaganda work is a subject of its own. It requires a special staff. In Delhi city, the Notified Area and the rural areas of Delhi my small public health staff has done considerable propaganda work apart from their other activities. Last year, they gave 83 cinema and lantern lectures with a counted attendance of 40,000 persons. Similar work is being carried on by various bodies like the Delhi Social Service union. Private individuals, such as doctors and certain Medical Officers of Health are making efforts at doing propaganda work in the city.

B-1852. In her memorandum Dr. Scott, Secretary of the National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India, says

stress upon the necessity of investigation into the causes of infantile mortality amongst industrial workers. At present no such investigation is made?—No. In this connection I would refer you to the memorandum of Dr. Sethna, the Health Officer of Delhi Municipality, who deals with this point. I regret to say that even my own figures in this connection are not absolutely fool-proof.

B-1853. Then she says: "Medical women in India have repeatedly pressed for an enquiry into the causes of infant mortality." Do you know why that enquiry has never been made?—I presume it is a question of money.

B-1854. Is there any source at present from which you can get any reliable statistics of the incidence of disease and low health of many of the workers?—Not that I know of. There is absolutely none.

B-1855. What suggestions would you make for the collection and investigation of such statistics?—I would suggest that essentially we require women workers amongst the people to obtain these statistics. At present these statistics are obtained through the agency of sweepers in various areas or through menial public health servants in Delhi city. Two sub-assistant surgeons are also employed by the Delhi Municipality to determine the birth rates and death rates, chiefly the latter. I am unable to give you any details in that respect.

B-1856. I take it you do not approve of the method of employing sweepers for collecting statistics?—I do not.

B-1857. Have you any practical suggestions as to how it can be carried out?—It can be carried out by women workers if they are properly trained and work under the Public Health Department.

B-1858. Then you would agree with Dr. Scott when she says it is a very important point that women medical officers and health visitors should be used in order first of all to gain the confidence of women and then to collect information?—Yes.

B-1859. Is there any difficulty in getting medical women, trained midwives and women to do welfare work?—There is the greatest difficulty. In New Delhi and the Notified Area I had sanction for two women. It took me six months to get one and nine months to get the other, because I was determined to get one who would understand what welfare work was. We tried women and we said good-bye to them; we tried others and said good-bye to them. Eventually we were successful in getting two good workers whom we have now.

B-1860. There is one other statement in Dr. Scott's memorandum which is of considerable importance. She says: "The provision of good medical and health facilities for women would prevent the exodus of women to villages for confinement and would tend to correct the disturbance of the sex ratio in the industrial areas. No one can doubt that both these factors would help to stabilise labour." Do you agree with that statement?—I consider that to be so; it is mixed up with the question of sex ratio and one has to consider other points in this connection; but, generally speaking, there is no question that welfare work would tend to stabilise labour, because, as we know, women will stabilise men so to speak.

B-1861. This kind of work would also add to the efficiency of the worker?—I think so, yes.

B-1862. In another memorandum submitted to us from Delhi it is stated that the results of general welfare work are not at all satisfactory. Do you agree with that?—Welfare work in Delhi is in its infancy; it has been started and an effort is being made; but it does not always get the support it might have, and I am sorry to have to admit that the general public do not know what welfare work is. I have personally communicated with many contractors here, and I have a letter from a contractor in reply to a personal letter of mine. That contractor is very kind and very helpful; but he finishes his letter by calling my welfare centre a dispensary. That indicates the mentality of these people; they do not really know what welfare work is, and not knowing I do not think they are in a position to criticise.

B-1863. Is it easy or is it difficult to get any Indian men and women to take up this work?—It is not easy. In Delhi I can count on the fingers of one hand the Indian ladies who have taken an active part in welfare work. We hope that as time goes on the number of these ladies will increase. But I must admit that it is not easy to get ladies to take an interest. Certainly it is not easy to get the right type of worker for taking up this work.

B-1864. The Inspector of Factories in his memorandum has stated that the health of workers is generally good. Do you agree with that statement?—I would say no; the health of the workers and the physical conditions of the worker in Delhi are generally poor. This may be due to many reasons: malaria which we have already discussed and similar diseases, domestic worries, large families, difficulty of housing, food, etc., etc.

B-1865. Is there any clause in the contractors' agreements in New Delhi compelling them to supply housing or do any other welfare work for the labour they employ?—There is no definite clause; I believe there is a vague statement to the effect that the contractor must attempt to help his labour.

B-1866. Do you think that clause should be made more specific?—I do.

B-1867. In what directions?—In connection with the actual buildings, the way in which they could supply facilities for scavenging and general sanitation. There is the necessity for improved conditions during epidemics. These are the chief headings.

B-1868. *The Chairman:* Have you ever attempted to draft a clause which you would like to see inserted in the contract?—I have not personally.

B-1869. Do you know of the clause which is inserted in England when any large public works are undertaken?—No, I have no acquaintance with it.

B-1870. You say a clause exists in the contract whereby contractors are held responsible for the proper housing of their labour?—I believe a clause exists; I was told that by the Chief Engineer of the Public Works Department at Delhi. The details could be obtained from him.

B-1871. But there is no clause comparable with the one which exists in similar cases in England whereby these matters are made subject to the approval of the Medical Officer of Health?—No. That leads me to explain that the whole of the Capital of New Delhi was built without any reference to the Medical Officer of Health, and without any reference subsequently, until I came here in 1928, since when references are made to the Medical Officer of Health.

B-1872. Would you be in favour of the insertion of a clause in all such contracts?—I would.

B-1873. To provide that where any considerable body of labour is being imported into the district, provision for housing and general sanitary arrangements should be made subject to the approval of the Medical Officer of Health?—Most certainly.

B-1874. Do you think that a general clause of that kind would add greatly to the efficiency of the labour?—I do. Without that clause may I explain what happens here. In one of our camps we have labour making bricks; in June of 1929 we had 35 cases of cholera; at first we could get little done to improve that camp; we really had to send our men. Then we got into touch with the Chief Engineer and we said "we must be helped". The Chief Engineer saw the contractors and we got that help.

B-1875. If a clause such as I have suggested were standardised and made applicable to such contracts all contracts would be on the same level?—Yes, and we should automatically get that help.

B-1876. The contractors would take into account these requirements in the making of their contracts?—Yes.

B-1877. Therefore they would not be hurt in any way?—No.

B-1878. And you would then have no such camp established without your approval of the conditions?—Exactly.

B-1879. *Col. Russell*: You have stated that the Public Works Department never consulted the Public Health Department in connection with the construction of these camps?—Unofficially, but not officially.

B-1880. You have also done public health work in other parts of India. Do the same conditions apply to those other parts?—No, the Public Health Department is always closely consulted.

B-1881. Have you got any type plans approved by the Sanitary Engineer and the Director of Public Health for the housing of workers on Government works?—I have not seen any type plans, but I am told that type plans of a vague kind existed when the camps were originally established. I have not been able to see them and have not had time to make further detailed enquiries, but you may take it generally that at the present moment there is no type plan.

B-1882. And any plan which was prepared was prepared without any consultation whatever with the Public Health Officer?—As far as I know, yes.

B-1883. Do you see plans prepared by the Public Works Department for housing schemes, etc.?—I do now see them.

B-1884. Since when?—Since I came here.

That is because you have taken a personal interest in the matter?—Yes.

B-1885. But there is no Government regulation by which they have to be sent to the Public Health Department for approval?—I cannot say whether there is a Government regulation to that effect; it is always an automatic thing elsewhere wherever I have been.

B-1886. Do you consider that a room 8' x 10' is sufficient for a family of 4 or 5 living together?—Speaking generally, no.

B-1887. What minimum would you suggest?—It is difficult to lay down a definite size because the health of the people depends not only on the actual size of the room but on the ventilation, the air, moving currents of air coming in and out. One would have to take all these points into consideration in laying down any particular definite size, cubic space, and so on.

B-1888. You have no statistics to show whether the sickness rate or the death rate is higher among those living in one room houses than those living in two rooms?—I have no statistics to that effect.

B-1889. Are you satisfied with the type of the houses at present provided in the coolie camps which have been described by another witness as "not a pleasant spectacle"?—In reply to that question I would say it seems to be an exaggerated statement. Admittedly the mud huts of the coolies are not spacious and they are not luxurious as opposed to the better type of houses, the remains of Government houses, which are not at all bad. The Commission has seen them and one would not say that they are simply miserable human habitations.

B-1890. But another witness says definitely they are unfit for human habitation?—All I can say is that I have lived in places very similar for nearly three years during the war.

B-1891. Which would you consider more important: the actual floor space within a hut or the spacing of the huts in their lines?—The spacing of the huts in their line is a very important subject. With regard to the space between one series and another series, as you saw in the camps, we have spacing in between lines in three of our camps here and not spacing in houses except very occasionally.

B-1892. But I observed that in some cases the spacing had been done and laid out it was allowed to be filled up?—Yes, encroached on.

B-1893. You have no power at present to stop that?—We have not.

B-1894. *Col. Russell*: One of the memoranda that we have had put before us states that there is a general increase in mortality owing to the bad system of housing. Have you any statistics to support or review that statement?—The statement cannot be regarded as being an accurate statement because there are no statistics that I know of.



B-1895. You think this witness has no information which could confirm that remark of his?—I believe that to be so.

B-1896. There is another curious statement made by the same witness; he says that official supervision is lacking and boards of health are too few. Can you tell us exactly what he means by that?—I entirely refute the statement that official supervision is entirely lacking as far as New Delhi and the Notified Area is concerned. With regard to the city I would prefer not to express an opinion as I am not in medical control of Delhi city.

B-1897. Is there any maternity benefit in the Delhi province?—As far as I know there existed at one time an attempt in New Delhi towards maternity benefit; at the crèche labour workers made an effort to get a woman paid but not allowed to work; it was not very successful. I do not think more than two or three women actually benefited from this effort, though there may be a few more. Speaking generally, there is no maternity benefit.

B-1898. Are no allowances on leave given to women workers before and after confinement?—On enquiry I find an attempt has been made, on paper, to try and allow the women worker to work at lighter work during that period; but in actual practice it is impossible for a contractor to go round and see that every pregnant woman does light work and in actual practice it does not happen.

B-1899. What percentage of his earnings does the average labourer spend on food alone?—I should say 70 per cent. of his earnings are spent on food.

B-1900. Does that include food substances like sugar, ghee and milk?—It does not include milk because the labourer cannot afford to buy milk, and it does not include ghee because the labourer cannot afford to buy ghee. In place of ghee he buys oil. It includes a small quantity of sugar, namely, two ounces per meal at a cost of three pies. It is *gur*, which is not sugar in the sense of being purified Western sugar.

B-1901. Is the milk supply sufficient?—The milk supply is a big problem and it will take a long time to solve.

B-1902. I take it you agree that milk is an essential part of a vegetarian diet?—Yes, but the question is whether the labourer could ever afford to get it.

B-1903. *The Chairman:* You are no doubt aware that the same problem arises in the poorer parts of our cities in England?—I am quite aware of that; there is an absence of the vitamins A, B, C and D.

B-1904. I mean there is inability to purchase milk?—Yes, it is a question of supply and demand and costs; it involves a hundred and one things, such as the number of cattle and the grazing grounds.

B-1905. *Col. Russell:* Milk is highly expensive and grossly adulterated?—Yes. An effort has been made in Delhi to supply milk. The Municipality at one time started a small farm on the eastern side of the river; all the *goshis* or cattle dealers were sent out of the Delhi city over to the other side where there was built for them a more or less model village. At a later date this farm was taken over by Mr. Edward Kerenter. The actual proposal or hope of establishing a cheap milk supply for Delhi city failed miserably. At the present moment the Delhi Health and Social Service Union have a proposal to start a similar undertaking. It means capital and it means very careful supervision; to my mind it is very doubtful whether such a thing can be established without most careful thought.

B-1906. What about the question of vegetable ghee, which is sold very largely in the bazaar? It has no nutritional value, as the chemists tell us, although it is a very useful fat for cooking. It is a very useful fat, is it not?—Yes. Chemists have made their tests on cats fed with vegetable ghee, as you know, as compared with ordinary ghee and the results are not very satisfactory.

B-1907. *The Chairman:* But is not that corrected a good deal by a partial fruit diet?—Yes.

B-1908. The working classes in England seldom see real butter; what we call margarine corresponds to your vegetable ghee?—Yes.

B-1909. But here in India you have the advantage of a fruit diet?—Having bought his ghee at a certain price it is difficult for him to find money to buy fresh oranges or limes.

B-1910. *Mr. Cliff*: Am I to understand that the working man gets fruit or does not get fruit?—He does not.

B-1911. *Col. Russell*: Have you a Food Adulteration Act in this province?—There is the Punjab Food Adulteration Act, which they are making an attempt to introduce into the Province of Delhi. It is only an attempt; there has been a lot of talk but nothing has been done.

B-1912. It is practically a dead letter?—Yes.

B-1913. One witness says that the food is poor and consists mostly of inferior flour, pulses, rice, oil or ghee. Is that your experience?—One cannot say that the food, wheat and pulses are of the highest standard by any means; for the lower classes you may say it is rather a low standard.

B-1914. Are there any malnutritional conditions or diseases in your Province?—The subject of malnutritional diseases is one which requires investigation. The Commission have seen the state of the actual labour in the camps in Delhi; they have seen that the children are feeble. I would like to stress the particular point that the child at birth gains weight and is quite happy and healthy until it reaches the age of about 8 months; then it starts to lose weight very rapidly. That is accounted for by the fact that all children are breast fed until they are, roughly speaking, 8 months or a year old. As soon as they come off the breast they start to chew chapatis and other adult food straight away and they simply go down in health, and it is a question of the survival of the fittest.

B-1915. That would be largely counteracted by improving the education of the women?—Yes. I may say that what I have mentioned does not by any means apply to the labouring and the coolie classes only; it applies also to our intelligent clerical labour.

B-1916. Then do you agree that there is poor physique generally among the labouring classes?—Yes.

B-1917. Is that due to the poor quality of the food or insufficiency of food?—I would say both poor quality and insufficiency; then there is disease, lack of housing, worry and so on. There are many causes; I do not think you can attribute it to food alone.

B-1918. Is it a fact that a coolie and his family in Delhi Province when doing full work can earn from Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 a month. We were told that by one of your workers?—That is a statement which one of my workers made to you yesterday that the wage was somewhere in the region of 50 to 70 rupees. That is not in fact so as an average. The position is this: the coolie man draws 8 or 9 annas a day; generally in New Delhi it is 9 annas a day; the woman is also a worker and she draws 7 annas a day; the children are also workers; if they have passed the age of 12—at least we hope that they are past the age of 12—they draw four annas a day. If you take that family to be five in number you will have a round figure of about Rs. 40 a month. When the children grow up and become or appear to be adult, they will earn not 4 annas but 9 annas, the wage of a man. So that you may take it that the average earning obviously varies in families according to the size of the family and the ages of the members of the family. I would put the figure at an average of about Rs. 40, 42 or 43. The exceptional families which come forward and say they are drawing Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 a month are very lucky.

B-1919. Taking your average figure of Rs. 40 to Rs. 43, would that be sufficient to provide a physiological diet for a family of five?—No, certainly not.

B-1920. *The Chairman*: By a "physiological diet" you mean an ideal diet?—An ideal diet.

B-1921. *Col. Russell*: With the necessary vitamins, vegetables, and so on.

B-1922. *The Chairman*: The minimum scientific requirements for full health.

B-1923. *Col. Russell*: Yes?—It may be described as a balance with the wages on one side and the diet on the other; they are just about holding the balance; sometimes it goes one way and sometimes the other way.

B-1924. *Mr. Cliff*: Is this physiological diet a minimum diet?

B-1925. *The Chairman*: It is a minimum physiological diet. It is what the doctors say we ought to have.

B-1926. *Col. Russell*: Would not the opening of food shops by employers prevent the sale of inferior articles of diet to the workers?—Here in New Delhi there was a difficulty in getting grain at one time; the contractor, aided by Government, started a grain pressing machine where the grain was ground in a sort of common grinding place and sold at rather cheap rates. Later on this disappeared. Labour which comes from the Indian States into Delhi brings with it bad debts. As they bring with them bad debts the man who is looking for these bad debts accompanies them, namely the bania; he comes to Delhi and plants himself down with the labour; he is an importation with that batch of labour and I do not see how you are going to get over that difficulty. As the labour goes back to its own country, so the bania goes with it. No doubt control of the supply of food in the sense of co-operative societies would benefit labour considerably.

B-1927. One of our Delhi witnesses has also stated that the economic value of public health is not understood by the management and industrial workers. Do you agree?—That is absolutely true in Delhi.

B-1928. Can you give us any idea as to the chief causes of absenteeism amongst the workers?—There are no statistics.

B-1929. You have admitted several times that there are no statistics available. Would you favour the formation of a body like the Industrial Research Board in England for collection of statistics?—Most certainly.

B-1930. How would you staff such a board?—It is difficult to staff from India, because workers from India would not have any facilities for learning work of this nature, and the only method would be to select and to send and to train Indian workers in other countries.

B-1931. You would send Indians to England to be trained?—Yes.

B-1932. Would you favour the passing of legal provisions for places at present outside the Factories Act?—Yes, most certainly, with definite clauses, as far as housing, sanitation, water-supply, epidemic diseases and the like are concerned. The Factories Act, I am given to understand, is not very definite on these points.

B-1933. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: In answer to Col. Russell, regarding the unsuccessfulness of the crèche, you mentioned two causes, one was that it was under an amateur organisation and the second was breast feeding. Are you aware of the fact that the person who managed the crèche was a trained health worker brought down from the Lady Reading Hospital?—My inquiry showed that the management was started by a lady in New Delhi who was not a health worker and that a subordinate, so to speak, was employed who worked as a matron at the centre and that under her worked two aayas or nurses. I have an admission from the ladies who worked at the centre.

B-1934. Are you aware of the fact that I used to look after the crèche when that lady used to go to the hills during summer?—I am not aware of that.

B-1935. Are you also aware of the fact that at least Rs. 300 or Rs. 400 a month was being spent on this crèche whereas only about 20 babies on an average made use of it?—I was informed that the cost was about Rs. 100 a month, that the maximum attendance was 20 and that the average attendance was in the region of 6 or 7.

B-1936. You say the monthly cost was Rs. 100. Can you tell me what the trained health worker who had full midwifery qualifications was paid

not that job?—That revolves round the question that the institution seemed to have been governed by amateurs.

B-1937. *The Chairman*: Your opinion on this particular point really is second-hand?—Exactly; I explained at the start that it was so.

B-1938. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: I supervised this thing myself during the lady's absence in the hot weather and I know as a matter of fact that Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 was being spent every month on this crèche, including the salary of the health visitor, the matron and the ayas. Do you not think that if you had four crèches in different areas of the working class people, you could have made the crèches more successful?—I admit that. I do not say that crèches are useless. I think they are excellent, but I do think that unless they are carefully watched and handled, not weekly or monthly but daily and some actual health worker is made responsible for their proper working, we cannot hope to achieve any success. The crèche that existed seems not to have been successful due to the facts which I have mentioned.

B-1939. Are you not prepared to admit that there are not sufficient number of crèches or child welfare centres in Delhi, and one of the chief reasons is that anything that is started either by Government or under European organization is made top heavy so much so your wants are to be restricted, whereas by maintaining a low paid staff your wants can be increased?—My experience is not that. At New Delhi when we had one centre it cost a lot of money; to-day we have six centres which cost on an average about Rs. 90 a month. I do not think that is too expensive.

B-1940. I do not blame you at all; I know that you are doing very useful work here. I am talking of other places?—That may be so.

B-1941. With regard to housing, will you tell me what is the average number of occupants of each house?—On an average about 5 for a family; you know that well.

B-1942. You say that a large number of labourers go back to their homes during the rains. What proportion of these labourers are agriculturists?—I have not investigated the actual figures, but I should think that the fluctuating population is about 40 per cent., and 60 per cent. are, at least here in New Delhi, more or less farm labourers. During rains, when brick kilns are closed down, they go to their villages and come back again after rains.

B-1943. Regarding the diet of the worker, a question has already been put to you for not including ghee?—Oil has been included.

B-1944. Have you read Dr. Lancaster's report on tuberculosis?—I have.

B-1945. I have not unfortunately read the report, but during a conversation I had with him, while he was making this inquiry, he told me that a great percentage of tuberculosis was due to the lack of supply of ghee in the food-stuffs, and the classes who suffered most from tuberculosis were those who could not afford to go in for ghee. As far as my knowledge goes, I am personally convinced that oil is not a good substitute for ghee?—I think I have made it sufficiently clear of what I think about it.

B-1946. About the weights of children. You are aware of the fact that I have been managing baby shows since 1921 and I have got statistics of weights of different babies. To my knowledge the weight of the labourer's baby is far below the average; I should say that 70 per cent. of the babies of the labouring classes in rural areas are under weight. In your child welfare centres two things are taught, first, cleanliness and, second, feeding of infants. According to the statistics that we have received from various people, we find that the earning of a labourer is only just enough to keep his body and soul together. Do you think it is possible for those babies who are under weight as it is, when they are brought to child welfare centres, to get average weight without any proper food?—That is a point that we have been trying to stress. Although food is not conveniently available, we are trying to impress upon them the necessity for improving food conditions

and the necessity for teaching your people to improve not only bodily but mentally.

B-1947. How can you manage that effectively?—It is a question of rupees, annas and pies, is it not?

B-1948. As a medical man, can you say that a child who is under weight will grow up to be a healthy man, fit to do physical work which he naturally will have to do?—That is a very difficult thing to argue. I give you the example of a baby who won a gold medal for being the best baby is now a miserable specimen. That I was told by a very well-known health worker in Delhi a few days ago.

B-1949. I also know of cases of babies who died the very year in which they won gold medals. Have you got any means by which you could increase the weight of the children?—I do not know what you want me to say. Naturally you want to improve their diet which we admit; if you have money you would spend it on improving their diet.

B-1950. You say in your memorandum that the average debt of a cooly is about Rs. 80 a year and you also say that for his marriage he spends Rs. 200 to Rs. 400. How does he meet these demands?—As far as I know, most of the coolies own land somewhere although they may be in debt. They go on saving small amounts by which they buy a cow and land. The bania, apart from lending money against the possible cost of that land, will gladly lend them more and chase them for the rest of their lives, getting interest at 37.5 per cent. per annum.

B-1951. Have you made any personal investigation into this matter or only heard about it?—Investigation was made in 205 camps here. It is a well-known fact that all your labourers are in debt to the bania, and I am told that the investigation lasted sometime and the banias and the labourers were together; the banias were asked questions before the labourers and the labourers were asked questions before the banias and they had a little chat amongst themselves, and they put down the average debt at Rs. 80 a year and the interest at 37½ per cent.

B-1952. *The Chairman:* What puzzles me is that there is practically no margin between the dietary cost of living and the family income; yet the bania prospers well?—He does because they have got to find that money for paying him his interest sometime during the year; it goes on mounting up.

B-1953. Presumably he does not go on lending and lending without any repayment?—It practically amounts to that. Debts are carried on, and the general feeling is that he will hold that money, only collecting his interest; they thus never get out of their debts.

B-1954. He only spares his debts in paradise. In addition to that, is it not a fact that on an average the coolies send something like Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 every year to their village?—They do that although they are indebted to the bania.

B-1955. Still it is a little bit of economic puzzle?—The bania chases them to their village and back again to their work, and he is always in touch with them.

B-1956. *Mrs. Chatterjee:* You mention that there are no schools started by your Committee. Why is that so especially when construction work in Delhi has been going on for the last 15 years?—In New Delhi one contractor who was a member of our Committee was desirous of starting a school; that was just when I came to Delhi. I was desirous of introducing welfare work first, to be followed by a school. I still maintain that if you have got your school you better educate your boys, and if you have got welfare work you better start schools; if you have money to do both it is well and good, but if you want to have only one of the two, I say welfare work first and education second. You may not agree with me.

B-1957. I personally feel, after ten years or more of experience of health work that we must put education first and health after. You are talking of preventives whereas people need curatives?—That leads to a discussion

of the academic training of education as opposed to the vocational training. If your education is going to be of a vocational nature and of knowing to write your name and to add up a few figures, then I say yes. But what is education? It is an academic training which does not touch on these vocational subjects which we know are necessary.

B-1958. *The Chairman*: You told us that the bania in your district only thinks of getting 37½ per cent.?—As I mentioned, that was the figure that was arrived at after discussion in the presence of the bania and the coolie. I am unable to say if that is the definite figure but I should think that it is fairly correct.

B-1959. So there are modest banias in your district?—It appears to be so.

B-1960. As a matter of fact, what really happens is that he does not so much want any return of his capital as a constantly increasing mortgage on the lives of the people at the rate of 37½ per cent.?—That appears to be the position.

B-1961. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: In the process as between a bania and a coolie it is hardly possible that the bania will continue to give debts to the coolie indefinitely. Do you see that a possible explanation is that when the debt increases the man has got to minimize in his food, in his clothing and in various necessaries of life in order to be able to pay a portion of the debt and interest to the bania?—That is quite possible, but he holds on to his land and his cows as long as he possibly can.

B-1962. A stage must be reached, unless he pays up his debts by striving to live on practically nothing, when the bania takes possession of the land he may have or any cattle, and the fellow goes to ruin. Is not that so? Therefore the whole problem is an economic one?—Yes.

B-1963. *Mr. Clow*: We saw a large number of coolies, both men and women, this morning at the building of the New Press who were not getting what you described as the proper diet, yet to a layman's eyes they appeared to be fairly adequately nourished. Is that due to a lack of observation or is there any other explanation?—There are exceptions to every rule. You will see from my statement that I have given there two diets—one is the ordinary diet and in the other a little extra is added which may be called the luxury portion of the diet. If you study the figures the cost comes to about Rs. 40 for a family of five while wages is somewhere in the region of Rs. 40, 50, 60 or 70. If you investigate into the matter closely, you will probably find that the healthy looking people are getting that diet—chapatis and dal, which is called the basic diet, of the family, plus one anna per head per day for ghee, oil and gur.

B-1964. They told us they only got gur very occasionally when they had extra money?—Yes. That may have been sufficient to keep the pot boiling.

B-1965. *Mr. Birla*: Regarding the question of malaria and the prevalence of other diseases, do not you think it is very closely connected with the question of poverty of the people?—The actual infection of malaria is not connected with poverty, but the resistance on the part of the people who suffer from that disease, when it gets into the system, is very closely connected with poverty, because in our present state of knowledge we do not know everything about malaria.

B-1966. What I was trying to point out was that in view of the low vitality and the low resisting power, the worker is more liable to infection than he would be if he were properly fed and clothed, and if he had all vitamins such as you get in milk, ghee, etc., provided to him which he does not get at present?—Do you mean to say that if people are properly fed, housed and clothed, they will be free from malaria. Panama canal is an instance in point.

B-1967. Is it not a fact that malaria is more prevalent among the poor who cannot afford to purchase mosquito nets and provide themselves with such precautions as are necessary?—You are now referring to the subject of control. Naturally, the wealthy people live in better houses, some are protected with wire gauze houses, some have mosquito nets; some people take

precautions round about their houses to prevent mosquito breeding—as opposed to the unfortunate labourer.

B-1968. Therefore well situated people have better resisting power. In order to tackle the problem of all these diseases, you have, first of all, to tackle the question of poverty?—If we can get industrialists to realise that one of the most important diseases is malaria and if you could wipe out malaria from this country both by control work and by improving the state and physique of the people you would have achieved something which would transform the country.

B-1969. But you will agree with me that mere propaganda without side by side increasing the resisting power of the people will not tackle the problem fully?—No, I say both should go hand in hand. Propaganda, control of disease and improved food should all advance for the benefit of the people, but you should bear in mind that one of the most difficult problems that you must tackle is malaria.

B-1970. How do you compare the nourishing quality of vegetable ghee with that of the country oil?—It is a chemical point which I prefer a chemist to reply to, but generally speaking, oil is valuable as opposed to vegetable fat.

B-1971. You cannot give us any opinion on the question whether oil is more nourishing than vegetable ghee?—Vegetable ghee would be useful, as I mentioned before, in cooking; it contains fat but not vitamins; oil does contain some vitamins.

B-1972. If oil is more nourishing than vegetable ghee, would you consider the question of discouraging the import of vegetable ghee which is at present very largely competing with the country-made oil?—That is a very big economic question. What appears to be ghee is sold, and it comes and revolves itself round and about the subject of Food and Adulteration Act.

B-1973. *Col. Russell*: Vegetable ghee is a valuable fat food?—Undoubtedly.

B-1974. The only difference is it lacks vitamins?—Yes.

B-1975. *Mr. Birla*: You refer to the rural uplift scheme of Mr. Brayne. Have you any first-hand knowledge about the work which has been carried on by Mr. Brayne?—I have not only very close knowledge but I claim that we have done more rural uplift work in the Delhi Province than Mr. Brayne in connection with public health amongst 304 villages.

B-1976. What I want to know is if, after the departure of Mr. Brayne, the work has been suffering or is it still continuing in the same way as it used to be when Mr. Brayne was in India?—The work is continuing but it is not continuing with as much zeal as it did while Mr. Brayne was present.

B-1977. You mentioned that there is difficulty in getting the right type of men and women for social welfare work. Can you explain why it is so?—Our educational standard with regard to improvement in public health work, especially amongst the doctor folk, is the same as that which obtains in the West. Education was carried on for curative medicine, and it is comparatively recently that public health work developed. Due to the economic factor, there have been more doctors who do curative work than public health work. That is the real state in India. Local doctors concentrate their attention on curative study of medicines because they can earn more money out of it than out of public health work. Consequently in the first place it is difficult to secure public health workers if you do not give them a living wage. Secondly a public health worker is born and not made. He has to start with a true desire to help his people, and there are exceedingly few workers in India to-day who are sufficiently educated to realise that their work in the public health field is for the benefit of their people. Usually the work is carried out for the benefit of oneself and not for the benefit of others.

B-1978. *The Chairman*: In all other countries this preventive work is a comparatively new public service. It is not surprising therefore that the supply in India at present is small, but it should increase by the help of public opinion and of the universities as quickly as may be possible?—Yes.

B-1979. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You say in your memorandum that the labourer may earn 9 annas per day, and that in pre-war days he used to earn 6 annas per day. Therefore there has been an increase of 50 per cent.?—Yes.

B-1980. You say that the cost of living has risen out of all proportion; that is to say, the cost of living has risen more than 50 per cent.?—Yes, I base that on the cost of a *chapati*.

B-1981. But you make a deliberate statement that the cost of living has risen out of all proportion?—Yes.

B-1982. You say that an average man eats five *chapatis* a day?—Yes, it also depends on the size of them.

B-1983. You said that the cost of *chapati* has gone up from three pies to nine pies?—Yes.

B-1984. At nine pies each, and taking five *chapatis*, that comes to four annas a day. Therefore he is spending four annas a day on *chapatis* if he eats five?—Yes.

B-1985. But your table shows that he only spends three annas a day?—The table which you now have before you is in connection with the Notified Area of Delhi. The statement with regard to the *chapati* basis was made from personal enquiries from the coolies in the camps in the New Delhi area.

B-1986. You say that the rise in the cost of living is about 70 per cent. as against a rise in wages of 50 per cent.?—Yes.

B-1987. You say in 1914 a *chapati* cost three pies, whereas to-day it costs nine pies, that is 200 per cent.—Yes, in other words, you doubt the statement with regard to the *chapati*?

B-1988. Very much so. Who gave you these figures?—They were collected from the people themselves in the camps. The figures with regard to food were collected from the local baniya shops both in New and Old Delhi.

B-1989. *The Chairman*: Do you mean to tell us that the cost of the items composing *chapati* is 200 per cent. above pre-war?—Yes.

B-1990. *Sir Alexander Murray*: That is not borne out by the figures?—You are questioning the cost of the *chapati*.

B-1991. Absolutely; I question the whole of your figures and I am taking your figures of *chapati* as typical of the rest of your figures.

B-1992. *The Chairman*: They were not prepared by a trained worker in this class of investigation?—The figures for the Notified Area were prepared by a gentleman who is now behind me, and the figures for New Delhi with regard to the diet, were prepared by a second gentleman sitting behind me.

B-1993. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Was their experience such as to enable them to do that?—They have intimate personal contact with these coolie camps. Both these gentlemen have been here since 1914-15.

B-1994. Who is the gentleman responsible for the statement that the cost of living has gone up by 70 per cent., when the *chapati* (which is the main article of a worker's diet) has gone up by 200 per cent. You say that a single man can live on four annas a day. Taking your figure at 9 annas there will still be a margin of 5 annas a day?—Yes.

B-1995. If he had only a wife, with no children, he would still be able to live on 9 annas a day?—Yes.

B-1996. If he wants to marry, the wedding ceremony would cost him from two hundred to four hundred rupees. Where would he get that money from?—He would borrow it against his property.

B-1997. You say he has to pay Rs. 80 per annum to the baniya here?—Roughly speaking, each year, he gets Rs. 80 out of the baniya from time to time—spread over the year.

B-1998. Take 1927. He gets in that year Rs. 80 from the baniya. In 1928 he gets another Rs. 80?—Meantime he has paid back something, but the usual thing is that it keeps mounting up.



B-1999. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: How much has he paid back?—I have not the figures here.

B-2000. Does he pay back the original capital?—He does not.

B-2001. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You say that he is indebted to the money lender to the extent of Rs. 80 per annum?—Yes.

B-2002. What does he repay him?

*The Chairman*: Does not the Commission think that we shall get some figures from skilled investigators who have been at this work?

*Sir Alexander Murray*: I hope so; but this statement is so interesting that I thought it was put before us by skilled investigators and I wanted to verify the figures as far as I possibly could.

*Mr. Cliff*: I understand this was compiled by a man who has been associated with the coolies for 14 years. It would be of advantage if we could clear up this matter. I take this figure of Rs. 80 as representing the man's total debt.

*Sir Alexander Murray*: But how did he pay Rs. 400 for his wedding?

*Mr. Cliff*: I am dealing first of all with the Rs. 80. It seems to me that the man is borrowing new money to pay back the old money. He always has an overhanging debt of Rs. 80. And sometimes he is paying more in interest than what the original debt amounted to.

B-2003. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You say the interest is only 37·5 per cent.?—But that mounts up.

B-2004. I am not taking your hypothetical figure. I am taking the actual figure which you give us in your statement, and you say that he is in debt annually to the extent of Rs. 80 and it includes a heavy interest of 37·5 per cent. per annum.

B-2005. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Does that figure 80 include the interest?—Yes.

B-2006. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You have taken these figures on trust and you cannot vouch for them? I personally have taken these figures from the coolies who were brought to the camp by my worker. I did not stay throughout the whole meeting. The coolies were put on one side and the baniyas were put on the other and the discussion took a considerable time.

B-2007. *The Chairman*: These figures were prepared yesterday?—No, about six days ago.

B-2008. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Now I am getting at what I want. You say that the baniyas and the coolies were both there when the examination took place?—Yes.

B-2009. Do you think that a coolie would say exactly what he owed and make a clean exposure of it?—There was a most prolonged argument.

B-2010. Who was the argument between?—Between the coolies and the actual baniya who was owed the money.

B-2011. Did you get the books produced?—No.

B-2012. *The Chairman*: Did the baniya say to one man, "You owe Rs. 100; come and write there Rs. 50"?—No. It is most difficult to get at exactly what is owed to a baniya.

B-2013. *Mr. Cliff*: The baniya and the coolies finally agreed after an altercation, that Rs. 80 was about the figure. Is that clear?—Yes.

B-2014. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Were you there?—I was there part of the time.

B-2015. You were not there when they agreed?—No.

B-2016. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Does it mean Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 borrowed, plus interest?

*Sir Alexander Murray*: He does not know, he was not there.

B-2017. *Dinshaw Chaman Lal*: Who is responsible for the taking charge of epidemics when they break out and what sort of epidemics are they?—Since

I, have been here we have had an outbreak of cholera. We get information from our inspectors, who go round the camps after the first or second case. You may get 30 cases in a night amongst a big population. The moment I get information I personally go to the camp.

B-2018. Do you see that these epidemics are controlled and that medicines are supplied for that purpose?—Yes.

B-2019. Can you give me the number of deaths during last year from cholera, small-pox and plague?—Speaking from memory there were 34 deaths in the camps from cholera. The number of small-pox cases has been exceedingly few in New Delhi. We have no plague.

B-2020. It has not been a very bad year apparently for epidemics of this class?—No.

B-2021. Would you therefore be in favour of a system of sickness insurance?—No, because you cannot take a single year or even a few years as a guarantee of what is going to happen in future.

B-2022. What I am driving at is this: since you have been in Delhi, have the epidemics been of such a nature as to make a scheme for sickness insurance impossible from a practical point of view?—No, not the short period. But it is impossible to base it on a short period.

B-2023. Since it is your duty to bring these epidemics under control would it not be better to have a systematic method whereby the workers could go to panel doctors, let us say?—I do not think that that system would succeed with our present state of disease.

B-2024. You deal with the matter when an epidemic breaks out. You have to spend money. You have to hand out medicines and send out doctors. Would it be difficult to do that systematically year by year?—Yes, because you get hundreds of deaths from disease when you least expect them.

B-2025. My point is that even now, when you get hundreds of deaths you have to treat them and you have to provide assistance?—We do. It is the cheapest and most effective method. If you left control work to panel doctors you would never get any control work done.

B-2026. Otherwise administratively you would have no difficulty?—No.

*Sir, Victor Sassoon:* What do you mean by "administratively"?

B-2027. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* That is to say, if you have a system of panel doctors?—I could not get them to work properly if they were not directly under me. I would not risk control work being done by panel doctors at this stage of our education.

B-2028. Would you prefer that the system which you have at present should be extended and made more permanent and practical?—Yes, that is what I have striven for all along.

B-2029. *Mr. Cliff:* Is that not only for preventive medicine but also for treatment?—I do not deal actually with the treatment. There is a separate branch which deals with the curative side of medicine.

B-2030. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* Mr. Clow asked you a question about certain workers whom you saw and who looked fairly healthy. Have you ever taken any statistics about the weight of any of these workers in order to find out whether their weight was up to the average or below the average?—I have not. I have been so busy with all sorts of other matters that the weighing of workers has not been done. An investigation on this point is most desirable.

B-2031. With regard to the question put to you about indebtedness, is it not a fact that the workers borrow money mostly on the security of the little piece of land which they possess in the villages or on their cattle or on the ornaments of their women?—I understand so.

B-2032. So that the debt goes mounting up to the stage when the baniya goes and pounces upon the man's land and cattle?—I think it gets sometimes even beyond that stage.

B-2033. *The Chairman*: Is there any deed executed?—I cannot tell you. Very often the baniya cannot read or write.

B-2034. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What happens when the debt gets beyond that stage?—The man is ruined. What does he do then?

B-2035. *Mr. K. Ahmed*: He pledges his children?—I do not know that.

B-2036. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Is there any form of legislation which prevents the baniya from taking the land away?—Not that I am aware of.

B-2037. *Diwan Chaman Lal*: You stated that during the War yourself lived three years in huts?—I lived in dug-outs which were under the ground and most unpleasant.

B-2038. Would you more or less compare the housing arrangements with those dug-outs?—The dug-outs were worse really, but it is not possible to say that it is absolutely impossible to live in them.

B-2039. *Mr. Cliff*: You say that you do not believe that an insurance scheme against sickness can successfully be introduced at present. Have you made any actuarial calculation?—No.

B-2040. You are primarily interested in the prevention of disease?—Yes.

B-2041. You say you have medical inspection of school children. Do you make any provision for medicine or anything of that kind?—We do. We have made provision in this sense—that the hospitals and dispensaries of Delhi have set aside a time when school-children can be brought there for treatment, apart from being taken to private practitioners for treatment. The treatment given at the dispensaries and hospitals, roughly speaking last year was between 30 to 40 per cent. of those actually requiring treatment. Considering that this work was only started 18 months ago, that is a very large percentage.

B-2042. Is the treatment easily accessible to the children?—Fairly so. These dispensaries are placed in various parts of the city.

B-2043. Are they given any nourishing food at all?—Some schools in the city have started a system of what is known as "Food for all" movement. The children go to the school with a small amount of pocket money, with which they can purchase good ghee, wheat and other materials for making *chapatis*, and sweets of various sorts. The children pay the cost price to the master who is running that particular branch.

B-2044. You said that prevention and good food should go concurrently. Do you think it is advisable that, while you are doing all you can in your branch, there should be a good medical service for the work people?—Do you mean an insurance service?

B-2045. First of all should there or should there not be a good medical service for the work people?—There should be a medical service. At present it is worked in conjunction with our public health work.

B-2046. Could the two branches work in conjunction?—They could most decidedly.

B-2047. Are you not compelled to admit the necessity of giving nourishment in cases of sickness?—You mean to individuals not going to hospitals?

B-2048. Even at hospitals, or to cases at home?—They do get in the hospitals what they require according to the nature of the disease.

B-2049. You say in your memorandum that it is not possible to give monetary benefit; does that exclude any other form of benefit?—I do not think an insurance scheme could be successful financially, taking into account the enormous number of epidemics, and the enormous wastage of life which is occurring over vast tracts of land. Taking a specific place such as Simla or Delhi or any similar small town you might be able to do something in that respect for a particular place, but it could not be generalized.

B-2050. Supposing you had a famine in India, is provision made for it?—Yes, a certain amount of *fakavi*, as it is known, is given to the villagers.

B-2051. Is that provision only made in cases which may be said to be dramatic cases?—You may say so. We have had a fairly considerable famine

round Delhi affecting 304 villages owing to lack of rain, and the amounts of *takavi* which we have been able to give have been really very small.

B-2052. Is it not incumbent upon all responsible parties here to increase the necessary provisions in order to improve the health of the work people?—I say 'yes' every time: it is incumbent on us, bearing in mind what money there is available for the purpose. We cannot give money if we have not got it.

B-2053. But it is necessary to make provision?—Undoubtedly.

(The witness withdrew.)

**NANNA, son of Elahi Baksh, called and examined.**  
**(Diwan Chaman Lall interpreted).**

B-2054. *Mr. Clifff*: What occupation are you following?—I am a mason.

B-2055. Were you not in fact laying bricks this morning when we saw you?—I was laying bricks this morning.

B-2056. What do you earn?—Rs. 1-10 a day.

B-2057. How long have you been working in Delhi on this work?—I came here from my village four months ago; I have been at work for two months and for two months I have been unemployed.

B-2058. *Mr. Clow*: Where did you work before?—I am working at Dehra Dun; I was employed for some time and then I was unemployed for some time, and from there I went to Hyderabad (Sind).

B-2059. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What pay did you get at each of these places?—I was looking about in Hyderabad for fifteen days in search of work, but did not find work. I used to get Rs. 2 per day at Dehra Dun.

B-2060. *Mr. Clow*: Why did you go to Hyderabad if there was no work for you there?—I heard there was work and therefore I went there.

B-2061. *Sir Alexander Murray*: How long do you work in a day?—From 6'clock in the morning till dark.

B-2062. When do you eat?—I have my food in the morning before I go to work and I come back and have my food again when I get back. I get no rest during the day.

B-2063. Do you not take any food with you to work?—In summer when the days are long I take some food with me, but not in winter.

B-2064. *The Chairman*: Is your family with you?—Yes, my family is with me.

B-2065. Do they work?—I have one son, two daughters and two sisters; they are minors and they do not work.

B-2066. *Mr. Clow*: Does your wife work?—No, my wife does not work; she is in purdah.

*Diwan Chaman Lall*: He is quite indignant that it should be suggested that his wife works.

B-2067. *Miss Power*: How many dependents have you?—One son, two daughters, two young sisters, one brother, myself and my wife. My brother is seven years old.

B-2068. *Mr. Clow*: Is the whole family dependent upon you?—Yes, they are all dependent upon me.

B-2069. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Have you any land?—No. I had a little land, but I fell ill one year and sold it to pay the expenses.

B-2070. Where was it?—In Bareilly in the United Provinces.

B-2071. Is your father living?—No.

B-2072. Where do you live?—I live at Paharganj and I pay Rs. 8 a month rent.

B-2073. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Do you owe any money?—I owe Rs. 150 in Bareilly; I owe some to my brother-in-law and some to the bania. I have to pay the bania Rs. 3 a year. A debt of Rs. 8 remains to be paid to the bania.

B-2074. How are you paying the bania?—I pay Rs. 3 every year on the Rs. 8; this is the last bit of the loan left.

B-2075. How are you paying your brother-in-law?—I do not pay any interest on the money I borrowed from my brother-in-law. I owe in all Rs. 150. Rs. 8 of that I owe to the bania in Bareilly; the rest I owe to my brother-in-law.

B-2076. How much did you originally owe the bania and how did you pay him off?— I borrowed Rs. 50 from the bania originally.

B-2077. What interest did you pay on the Rs. 50?—Six annas per rupee per year.

B-2078. *The Chairman*: That is 37½ per cent.

B-2079. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Then you have been gradually paying him off?—Yes.

B-2080. When was that Rs. 50 borrowed?—When I went to Hyderabad I borrowed this Rs. 50.

B-2081. When was that?—Over a year ago.

B-2082. *The Chairman*: Then when you have steady work you pay what you can and try to get into a better position?—When I have steady work I pay back the bania.

B-2083. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: How much did you pay for your wedding and where did you borrow that from?—I borrowed no money when I married; I had the money; my uncle and my father were both alive and they saw to it.

B-2084. *Mr. Clow*: How many days work did you do in the last month, October (1929)?—21 days.

B-2085. *Miss Power*: Are you paid weekly or monthly?—After a month.

B-2086. Would you prefer to be paid weekly?—It would be better for me to be paid weekly.

B-2087. When you first got employment here were you obliged to borrow before you got your first month's wages?—I borrowed the fare when I came here, and until I got my work I lived with some people in Paharganj who make cotton carpets and I borrowed money from them to carry on.

B-2088. Did they feed you?—Whatever they spent on my food they debited to me.

B-2089. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: They gave you credit?—Yes.

B-2090. Where do you get your food from now?—From the bania.

B-2091. Does the bania give a month's credit?—Yes, I had to pledge the children's things with the bania in order to get credit from him.

B-2092. Do you pay every month for the food when you get your wages?—Yes.

B-2093. If you paid him weekly would the bania make it cheaper for you?—If I were paid my wages every week I should not have to borrow but should buy things for cash.

B-2094. Would the things then be cheaper for you?—If I have to borrow it is naturally dearer.

B-2095. If you were paid by the week you would still have to get credit for a week, would not you?—The cash would be with me and then why should I go and borrow.

B-2096. The cash is not with you until you have worked a week?—I would ask the contractor to give me an advance on my wages.

B-2097. *The Chairman*: You think you would be less dependent on the bania if you were paid weekly?—That is so.

B-2098. If you were paid weekly, in your opinion you could pay cash and not be dependent on borrowing from the bania?—If I get paid week by week then there will be no necessity for me to depend on the bania.

B-2099. How much do you pay for your *atta*?—6½ seers or 6¾ seers to the rupee.

B-2100. That is what you are paying now?—Yes.

B-2101. If you had your money weekly and paid cash how many seers would you get to the rupee?—I get 6½ seers on credit and I get 6¾ seers for cash.

B-2102. *Sir Alexander Murray*: On what day after the end of the month do you get your pay?—Fifteen days after it is due.

B-2103. You say that if you were paid weekly, you would take the first week's money in advance from the contractor; why should you not take the first month's money also from the contractor?—I did not put in a full month's work; I only put in 21 days' work, and the contractor would not advance me a month's pay.

B-2104. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Can you borrow at all from your contractor even now?—The mistrie takes the advance from the contractor and I take from the mistrie two rupees or four rupees as the case may be.

B-2105. *Mr. Cliff*: If you have a son or sons do you send them to school?—They are too small to send to school.

B-2106. Are you going to send them to school?—When they grow up I will send them to school.

B-2107. *Mr. Birla*: Have you to pay something to the contractor?—No, I give nothing to the contractor.

B-2108. Do you get full meals every day for your family and yourself?—I do not get any relief from the money-lender in respect of the money that I owe, but I try to make two ends meet.

B-2109. *Mr. Cliff*: Do you get full meals every day?—Twice a day.

B-2110. How do you spend your money?—I pay off the bania and I have three or four rupees left which I use up for the coming week.

B-2111. *Mr. Birla*: What did you have to eat to-day?—I had my *dal* and my *roti* this morning.

B-2112. How much?—Three annas worth of *atta* for the whole family this morning; one rupee's worth of *atta* lasts three or four days.

B-2113. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: What amount were you getting at Dehra Dun?—Rs. 2.

B-2114. What are you getting here?—Rs. 1-10.

B-2115. Why did you accept Rs. 1-10 here when you were getting Rs. 2 at Dehra Dun?—I accepted Rs. 1-10 because the contractor told me that he was not being paid more than that by the Government and therefore he could not pay me more.

(The witness withdrew.)

**PARA and KALLIE, representative women workers.  
(Diwan Chaman Lall interpreted.)**

B-2116. *Mr. Clow*: What is your name?—My name is Para. My name is Kallie.

B-2117. What is your occupation?—(Para) I am a gardener. (Kallie) I am a syce.

B-2118. From which district do you come?—Jaipur.

B-2119. What wages do you get?—7 annas a day.

B-2120. Does your husband also work?—(Para) My husband is disabled and cannot therefore work. (Kallie) My husband is an old man and does not work. I have four children and get 7 annas a day; I find it difficult to maintain the family.

B-2121. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What is your age?

*Mrs. Chatterjee*: She cannot say. Generally they do not know.

B-2122. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What are the ages of your children?—One daughter of 13 and one of 11, a boy of 9 and another of 5.

B-2123. Do any of them go for work?—No.

B-2124. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Why not? Does not the girl of 13 go for work?—No, she cannot go to contract work at that age. Even when we do work we are sometimes thrown out.

B-2125. How much do you owe to the bania?—I owe Rs. 200 to the bania. All that debt has fallen on my shoulders because my husband is very old and my children are minors.

B-2126. What interest do you pay?—Two pice per rupee per month.

B-2127. How do you pay the interest?—If any balance is left after meeting the household expenses I pay, otherwise not. To enable me to pay to the bania I have cut down my food. (Para) I also owe Rs. 200 to the bania.

B-2128. What did you eat this morning?—One *sukki chapati* with one green chilli.

B-2129. Was it a thick one?—Yes.

B-2130. Do you take milk and ghee in your diet?—No.

B-2131. Do you take *dal*?—Yes, sometimes, not every day. How can I get *dal* every day when I am so poor?

B-2132. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Does anybody other than your family members live in your hut?—No.

B-2133. What rent do you pay?—12 annas a month. (Kallie) In my hut also no outsider lives.

B-2134. Who built the hut, was it you or the employer?—We ourselves built the hut.

B-2135. Do you know that you actually owe Rs. 200 to the bania?—No, we maintain no accounts; it depends upon the bania.

B-2136. How long have you been working in Delhi?—(Kallie) 3 years. (Para) 1½ years.

B-2137. Did you work on the same kind of work before you came to Delhi?—Yes.

B-2138. Where was it?—In Jaipur.

B-2139. What wages were you getting there?—We were getting grain wages.

B-2140. Did you make any representation to your employer that you should get more wages?—7 annas is the fixed rate and we accepted the fixed rate which was given. Who is going to give us more than 7 annas?

(The witnesses withdrew.)



**Mr. J. A. WOODHEAD, I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of India, Commerce Department.**

B-2141. *The Chairman:* You are the Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Commerce?—Yes, Secretary to the Commerce Department.

B-2142. You have submitted to us a memorandum dealing with the question of seamen under the various heads of our questionnaire. How long have you held your present office?—Since March 1929.

B-2143. What posts have you held previously?—I was Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, before that for 18 months. I was Financial Secretary, Bengal Government, before that.

B-2144. Can you tell us how it came about that the question of seamen, their recruitment, and their conditions comes under your Department and not under the Department of Industries and Labour?—I think because we deal with mercantile marine questions.

B-2145. Therefore it is thought more appropriate presumably?—I think so. The provisions of the law which apply to seamen are in the Indian Merchant Shipping Act.

B-2146. Is there any contact between your Department and that of Industries and Labour on these questions?—Not a very intimate contact. Each Department consults the other Department on questions affecting both Departments.

B-2147. In your memorandum dealing with recruitment you say that "the question of revising the system of recruitment of seamen at the principal ports of Calcutta and Bombay has been engaging the attention of the Government of India for some time past, and it has recently been decided that there should be two methods of recruitment of serangs and butlers . . ." When was that decided?—The question of an employment register for serangs has been under discussion for some time; a final decision was arrived at towards the end of last year.

B-2148. That means that your department has definitely brought about the changes which you describe in your memorandum to us?—Yes, we have introduced these changes.

B-2149. Was that following the recommendations of the Clow Committee Report?—That did not absolutely follow those recommendations. They follow only partially.

B-2150. In your memorandum dealing with welfare you say that "the establishment of an Indian Sailors' Home in Bombay has been under consideration for some time and a committee appointed by Government is now considering the whole question." Which Government is that? Is that the Central Government?—The committee was originally appointed by the Government of Bombay.

B-2151. What do you mean by "originally"?—The committee has been in existence for some time as the question of welfare work was formerly a subject dealt with largely by the local Government. We have taken this subject over since 1st April 1929 when the centralization of Mercantile Marine Administration took place. Before 1st April Mercantile Marine Administration was what we call an agency subject, that is, it was administered by the local Government on behalf of the Government of India.

B-2152. So that it is now a committee of the Central Government?—Yes, it was originally appointed by the local Government.

B-2153. And you have taken over the same committee?—Yes, the same committee is continuing its work.

B-2154. Has it approached a decision now?—We have not received any information with regard to that. We have not received their report as yet.

B-2155. *Mr. Cliff:* How long has the committee been sitting?—I am afraid I cannot say definitely. There was *interregnum* for some time, and action

was postponed, exactly for what reasons I do not remember. They started sitting again towards the end of last year. It is a subject which we did not deal with originally; it came to us in April of this year.

B-2156. *The Chairman:* Are you taking any steps to promote the working of this committee?—The committee is sitting; we hope to receive the report before very long. The local Government is still taking an interest in the matter.

It seems to be falling between two stools?—I do not think so. We certainly hope to receive the report before very long. The Chairman of the Port Commissioners, Mr. Neilson, is the Chairman of the Committee.

B-2157. With regard to periods of wage payment dealt with in your memorandum is there any system by which Indian seamen can make allotments to their families during the time they are at sea?—The Indian Merchant Shipping Act provides for the making of allotments, but I cannot say definitely whether allotments are in practice made.

B-2158. I think it is a common practice in England, and seamen are encouraged to make allotments to their families during the time they are away?—Yes. Our Act also allows for allotments, but I have not heard of allotments being made. We have not got full information on this subject, because the administration was only taken over on the 1st April (1929) from the local Governments. Therefore on these questions it might be advisable to get information from the ports from the shipping masters.

B-2159. We shall pursue that no doubt, but do not you think it a very desirable thing that making allotments to their families should be encouraged?—You would have to take care that no mistake was made with regard to the persons to whom the payments were made. If a seaman has a wife she would not usually appear in public.

B-2160. The man himself would say to whom the allotment was to be made. Have you considered that?—No, we have not, while I have been in the Commerce Department, dealt with this question of allotment.

B-2161. With regard to indebtedness of seamen you say that "indebtedness of seamen in Calcutta is extensive", that in one case 85 per cent. are in debt, and in another 75 per cent., the debts ranging from Rs. 20 to Rs. 1,000?—Yes.

B-2162. Has any attempt been made to rescue these people by means of co-operative credit?—Co-operative credit is a local Government subject. I could not say how far the local Government has made any attempt to do that.

B-2163. Would it be with seamen whom you have taken under your own wing?—Yes, I think so. It must be remembered that the majority of Indian seamen do not live at the ports. Their homes are in the districts, miles away from the ports.

B-2164. I mean *qua* seamen, not *qua* citizens?—But then they are distributed all over the countryside; they do not live in one particular port.

B-2165. *Mr. Ahmed:* Mr. Woodhead, the Clow Committee report recommended two alternatives for the recruitment of crews and lascars?—Yes.

*Mr. Clow:* This report is a strictly confidential document. I understand it is not published at large. If evidence is going to be led about this I suggest that that should be confidential.

*Mr. Joshi:* Your recommendations are not confidential; they were published in the Government of India Gazette.

B-2166. *Mr. Ahmed:* There the report recommended that recruitment should not be through brokers which was an abuse. Is not that so?—Yes, the Clow Committee recommended that brokers should not recruit.

B-2167. That was in May 1922. Since then is not the same method of recruitment through brokers still in existence?—Not quite.

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\* The report has since been received.

B-2168. What do you mean by 'not quite'?—The recruitment is still through brokers; this nuisance is still existing?—Brokers were never employed in Calcutta by the British India and the Peninsular and Oriental Companies. In Bombay the British India I think, at present do not recruit through brokers.

B-2169. Do you know that they have paid brokers?—In Bombay the Peninsular and Oriental did not employ ghat serangs. In Bombay the ghat serang was a broker's man.

B-2170. In Calcutta?—They employ ghat serangs who are their own employees, but do not employ the brokers.

B-2171. They get a certain percentage of commission from the recruitment?—No, the ghat serangs at Calcutta are paid servants of the British India.

B-2172. He gets a certain amount of commission for supplying crews?—No, for advances paid, not for recruitment.

B-2173. You count that as being on advances made by them?—I think that is the statement in the Clow Committee Report.

B-2174. Do you know that the ghat serangs at Calcutta also charge interest on the money which is advanced?—No, I do not know that. It has been alleged that the serang who is the head-man in the crew, realizes certain sums from the crew.

B-2175. Have you yourself made enquiries about this?—No. The Clow Committee Report stated that the serangs did not pay the men the actual pay they received from the company.

B-2176. About three or four years ago, when Sir Charles Innes was the head of your department, the Government of India informed the Indian Seamen's Union at Calcutta that they had appointed a Special Officer for recruitment; but though this officer has been appointed nothing has been done up to the present and the brokers are supplying crews?—I do not think that the Government of India informed the Union that nothing has been done.

B-2177. I do not say that the Government of India informed them that nothing had been done. The Government informed them that a special officer had been appointed for the purpose of recruitment and that no brokers or ghat serangs would take advantage of the crew seeking employment; that it would be done by a special officer who was there. Since then nothing has been done, though as a matter of fact a special officer has been appointed?—I do not know which letter you are referring to, and hence it is rather difficult to deal with the question. If the Government of India made any statement it was to the effect that they had appointed an officer from the Mercantile Marine, Captain Darvell, as Shipping Master. Prior to the appointment of Captain Darvell the Deputy Port Officer, who is a Royal Indian Marine Officer, was in charge of the shipping office. Captain Darvell was appointed definitely in the hope that he would remove the evils which existed.

B-2178. But he is not the sole recruiting officer. They are getting crews through brokers and ghat serangs? The British India does not get them through brokers.

B-2179. They are paid servants; they are employees of the company?—The majority of the shipping companies in Calcutta are now maintaining employment registers for their own serangs. The marine superintendents, the masters, or the chief engineers, select the serangs from the men entered on those registers of serangs. The serang then selects his crew and brings them to the marine superintendent, master or chief engineer, who approves of the crew. By this means we hope that the broker will not be employed in the initial selection of the crew.

B-2180. That was not your hope when the report was written on 5th May 1922?—The report was written before anything was done at all. There have been developments since the report was written.

B-2181. When the report was written why was not your department able to give effect to it and abolish the broker system altogether?—It was suggested that we should have a Government bureau for the selection of crew by a roster system; it is doubtful whether a rotation system would work.

B-2182. What are the reasons, and who suggested that?—Government recognized that there were evils in the broker system, and we are attempting to remove the broker as far as possible from the recruitment of the crews.

B-2183. When are you going to make a start?—A start has been made in Calcutta now. The companies, other than the British India, have now opened employment registers for their own serangs. The British India has had such a register for some time.

B-2184. Is it not a fact that the formation of a committee was suggested on which employers and employees should be represented, both sides selecting the men?—The Clow Committee made two alternative suggestions. One was for a joint supply, and the other was, if such a joint supply was not possible, a Government bureau. I take it that a condition precedent to the introduction of a joint supply is that the majority of seamen should be members of the union or unions. I do not think that is so at present. The proportion of seamen who are members of the unions is extraordinarily small.

B-2185. Are there any seamen's homes or recreation grounds in Calcutta for Indian seamen?—No. The seamen live in boarding houses.

B-2186. Do the keepers of these boarding houses extort money from the Indian seamen?—I could not say personally. I think there is a statement to this effect in the Clow Committee's Report.

B-2187. No housing accommodation is provided for Indian seamen by the employers or by the Government?—No.

B-2188. And no school is provided for them or their children?—There is no special school, but I presume they attend the ordinary primary schools.

B-2189. Neither the employers nor the Government has provided any school for Indian seamen or their children?—The Government of India does not provide educational institutions in the provinces. That is a provincial subject.

B-2190. Do you know that there have been some criminal cases in connection with extortion of money from Indian seamen by boarding house keepers?—I do not know.

B-2191. Have you any experience of the food which Indian seamen get on board the ship?—The scale is prescribed in the agreement, which they and the master of the ship sign.

B-2192. The cost of which is very small?—I cannot say what the cost actually is. The scale was prescribed some years ago. It prescribes the amount of each article of the diet.

B-2193. Do you know that the Indian seamen are not supplied with warm clothing when they go to the Mediterranean?—The Lascar agreement lays it down that they shall be supplied with warm clothing if they are taken beyond certain degrees of latitude. I believe warm clothing is always supplied when it is required to be supplied by the agreement.

B-2194. Is not the cost of that clothing subtracted from their wages?—No. The lascars are not so grossly ignorant in regard to these matters. He is, I believe, always supplied with warm clothing according to the agreement when he goes beyond certain latitudes. The agreement does not require him to be supplied with warm clothing in the Mediterranean.

B-2195. Will you tell me which rule that is?—You will find it in the seamen's agreement. When they are taken beyond certain latitudes, north and south, the agreement prescribed by the Government of India requires that they shall be provided with warm clothing. If they are taken further north still, the rule prohibits their being employed on deck.

B-2196. Do the steamship companies carry out that rule?—We have had no complaints so far.

B-2197. Have not you had memorials and resolutions from the Calcutta Union?—Not in my time.

B-2198. You were only appointed a few days ago?—Six months ago.

B-2199. Is it not a fact that since 1921 a great number of resolutions and memorials have been forwarded to you, and you have not paid any heed to them?—I cannot answer that off-hand. I can assure you that when the men go beyond certain degrees of latitude the agreement requires that they shall be provided with warm clothing.

B-2200. With regard to rations, the scale only provides for a very small amount of rations, does it not?—The scale is adequate so far as we know.

B-2201. Is not the amount of wages received by crews of other countries 10 to 25 times more than that received by Indian seamen?—I cannot tell you.

B-2202. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Have you any comparative wage statistics?—No.

B-2203. *Mr. Ahmed*: Is it a fact that Indian seamen are not supplied with cabins but have to sleep on deck?—No, certainly not. They are all supplied with quarters. Crew accommodation is supplied on board every steamer.

B-2204. That may be the rule, but is it always complied with?—I think the rule is complied with.

B-2205. They have no fixed hours of work?—I have given the hours of work in the memorandum.

B-2206. You must have travelled at least by the boats of the Inland Steam Navigation Company?—I did not know you were talking about inland waterways.

B-2207. They work day and night on those steamers, do they not?—Not so far as I know.

B-2208. How many hours do the crew work?—I cannot say.

B-2209. It takes two weeks for the steamer to go from Calcutta to Assam, and the steamer is working all day and all night, is it not?—The steamer is running all day and all night, but that does not mean to say that the crew is working all day and all night.

B-2210. How many hours do they work—sixteen?—I presume the engine room crew work by shifts, and the deck crew are certainly not all on duty at night.

B-2211. I put it to you that they work from 12 to 16 hours a day. Is that correct?—I cannot say.

B-2212. *The Chairman*: How far has your Department any control over inland steam navigation?—We exercise no control, except so far as legislation in connection with inland steam vessels is concerned.

B-2213. *Mr. Ahmed*: Are you aware that only a month ago at Geneva it was decided to fix the hours of work on inland navigation boats the same as the hours on the open sea?—The matter is under discussion at present in Geneva. I do not think any decision has been come to.

B-2214. An amendment was moved and accepted that inland steam navigation boats should be included.

B-2215. *Mr. Joshi*: What were your instructions to your delegates—to support the Hours Convention or not?—The instructions were the same as those given in connection with the Genoa Conference in 1920.

B-2216. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: In 1920, Mr. Cuthbert Lawes suggested a discrimination?—The draft Convention of 1920, which was not accepted by the Conference provided for a differentiation.

B-2217. *Mr. Joshi*: Were those the same instructions?—Those, I think are the same instructions to-day.

B-2218. *Mr. Clow*: As regards the Seamen's Recruitment Committee, what are the results of the alteration of system which has been introduced?—One

result will be, we hope, that the brokers will largely disappear as recruiting agents.

B-2219. Has there been any result, for instance, on the sums taken by the serang from the men?—That can only be found out by enquiry.

B-2220. You were Marine Secretary in Bengal, and you may have some knowledge of it?—No, I am afraid not, as the subject was dealt with by the Deputy Secretary.

B-2221. As regards the reduction of unemployment has there been any result of the change. Has it had the effect of reducing the large mass of unemployed seamen at Calcutta?—I do not see how it is going to reduce the mass of unemployed seamen. You can distribute the employment among the seamen, but the manner of recruitment will not affect the unemployment. That depends on the supply and demand.

B-2222. This system was designed to secure more regular work for the seamen, and to eliminate the large number of useless and unemployable seamen?—I do not see how any bureau is going to increase the total amount of employment.

B-2223. Obviously, by limiting the numbers on the roster, the others will disappear to their villages?—You suggest that men who are useless should be taken off the register and refused employment?

Yes. I do not know how many useless people there may be. It is difficult to say whether a man is useless or not.

B-2224. Let me put it in this way. Is the mass of unemployed seamen in Calcutta smaller than it was in 1922?—It must be, because the number of seamen employed is much greater now.

B-2224a. As regards wages, would you be prepared to agree that, taking into account the ration, the wage of a seaman is on the whole higher than can be obtained for the same degree of skill in other occupations in India?—Yes, the very fact that there is such a large number of men clamouring to be seamen proves that the employment is attractive. You can get any number in Calcutta. We have restricted the issue of continuous discharge certificates to recruits. Originally anybody could get such a certificate by going to the office and saying he wanted to go to sea. The number of men who applied was very large. The present position is that no recruit is supplied with a continuous discharge certificate unless he has obtained employment on board a steamer.

B-2225. Therefore your system has reduced unemployment?—It has in that way.

B-2226. As regards the Indian Ports Act of 1922, when we were in Karachi we saw some young children employed in coaling ships. Is that covered by the Act?—I think that is against the Act.

B-2227. How is the Act enforced?—The Act is enforced by the local Government.

B-2228. In practice what is done to ensure that no children under 12 are employed?—I am afraid, I could not say.

B-2229. You did it in Bengal yourself?—That was a matter rather for the labour department of the local Government. I think the Karachi case is an infringement of the law. There is no reason to presume that the word "goods" does not include bunker coal. The employment of children under 12 in loading bunker coal is, I think, prohibited by the Act.

B-2230. *The Chairman*: In the whole of India?—Yes, the provision is in the Indian Ports Act, which is an Act applicable to all ports in British India.

B-2231. *Mr. Chow*: Is there any provision for inspection by any independent authority in regard to the safety and health of the workers in docks?—I believe there is no inspection beyond that by the Port Commissioners: I however cannot speak with certainty.

B-2232. Do you not think it would be desirable to have some such independent authority?—Yes: we wrote some time ago to all the local Governments.

enquiring what regulations are in existence as regards the safety of persons employed in the loading and unloading of ships and working in docks generally and whether they considered that regulations on the lines of the regulations in England known as the Dock Regulations would be suitable in India. We also enquired whether they considered that legislation should be passed to bring such regulations into effect. The opinions we have received are somewhat divided. The regulations in force at present are contained in the bye-laws framed by the Port Commissioners. Bombay, Calcutta and Rangoon have certain bye-laws which cover a considerable portion of the ground that is covered by the Dock Regulations in England.

B-2233. Not Karachi?—No; if I remember rightly only Bombay, Calcutta and Rangoon.

B-2234. I take it that in Karachi and Madras there are no regulations?—I think that is so.

B-2235. In ports the Port Commissioners who are in a sense the employers are responsible for securing safety of the workers?—That is so. I am speaking from memory but I think the Madras Government and the Madras Port Commissioners were generally in favour of legislation. The Bengal Government also favoured legislation, so also the Calcutta Port Commissioners and the Bengal Chamber of Commerce. There is, however, a difference of opinion in Bengal as to whether the legislation should form part of the Factories Act. The Bengal Government favours legislation as part of the Factories Act. The Calcutta Port Commissioners seem to be opposed to that; they want a separate Act. The Indian Chamber of Commerce in Calcutta seems rather doubtful whether any special legislation is necessary. The Bombay Government and the Bombay Port Trust are opposed to legislation. The Burma Government are also not convinced that legislation is necessary or desirable; they think that the bye-laws framed by the Port Commissioners are sufficient.

B-2236. What is likely to be done in the matter?—We have only just received all the opinions and it has been suggested that we should wait for the report of the Commission.

B-2237. Are there any statistics available to show the number of accidents in docks, apart from the Workmen's Compensation Act?—We do not maintain statistics of this character. I think the Bombay Port Commissioners gave figures for 1927-28. The Calcutta Port Commissioners have not, I believe, given any statistics. Burma has given figures for three years; in 1926 in Rangoon there was one death, 11 permanently disabled and 84 temporarily; in 1927 there was no death, 5 permanently disabled and 121 temporarily; in 1928 there were 8 deaths.

B-2238. Did the reference which you made as to the possibility of legislation relate to hours of work?—No, it only referred to safety.

B-2239. There are no regulations at present for hours of work in docks?—No.

B-2240. As regards workmen's compensation you give us particulars in your memorandum. You say that all the shipping companies have consented to the insertion of the article in question. Does that relate both to Bombay and Calcutta?—I think so.

B-2241. Is that obligatory now or is it voluntary?—It is not obligatory. The difficulty is that the majority of the ships are registered in the United Kingdom.

B-2242. You have some means of making it virtually obligatory, exercising compulsion?—I do not think so; it is voluntary.

B-2243. Is not there any method by which Government can virtually make it compulsory on shipowners?—Not as far as I know.

B-2244. The system has been working satisfactorily?—Yes, all the shipping companies agreed to this. If a ship is registered in the United Kingdom and not in India—there are very few ships registered in India—the Indian law, as far as I understand, would not, except for this voluntary arrangement, apply.

B-2245. *Mr. Joshi*: Have the conditions of Indian lascars on ships been investigated by any committee?—The only committee we had was the Clow Committee.

B-2246. The Clow Committee did not investigate the conditions on ships?—No.

B-2247. So for many years no investigation has been made into the conditions of lascars on ships?—You mean as regards crew accommodation?

B-2248. As regards accommodation and other working conditions?—What do you mean by "other working conditions"?

B-2249. Hours of work?—There has been no committee of enquiry as regards hours of work.

B-2250. Did the Government ever consider whether the conditions should be investigated or not?—I do not think so.

B-2251. Has the Government ever considered whether the legislation as regards conditions for seamen laid down in the Indian Merchant Shipping Act is adequate or not?—The Indian legislation follows very closely the English legislation. But there is a difficulty as regards the legislative power of the Government of India; it is limited very considerably.

B-2252. I suppose it is a sort of imperial subject?—Yes; there is the further difficulty that Acts of the Indian Legislature are usually limited to British India and cannot be given an extra-territorial effect.

B-2253. There may be some ships registered in India?—Very few. They are chiefly the ships of the Sindhia Shipping Company and the Bombay Steam Navigation Company.

B-2254. You do not think those companies have investigated this matter?—I do not know.

B-2255. Has the Indian Seamen's Union any complaint against the P. & O. Company?—So far as I am aware we have heard no complaint.

B-2256. You have said that the wages of seamen are a little higher than in other industries. Is this explained by the fact that the wages of a seaman are not really for the period of service but for a much longer period, because he necessarily remains unemployed?—Not always; not on the coasting boats. On the coasting boats the seaman is employed fairly regularly.

B-2257. I have here with me a statement presented by the Secretary of the Bombay Seamen's Union which is a union of the P. & O. Company lines. It says that if they are employed for 12 months they remain unemployed for 18 months, in the P. & O.?—I think the P. & O. has introduced that system because labour and the labour associations wanted some kind of system by which men could get employment in rotation, and the P. & O. Company in order to relieve unemployment has arranged that men who have been out of employment shall be given preference when a steamer requires a crew.

B-2258. *The Chairman*: Does that mean that there are twice as many men?—It is difficult to say how many seamen there are. In India a sailor is often an agriculturist as well; he finishes his voyage and then goes home to his agricultural pursuits, and then he goes back again to sea. The number of men available for employment at Calcutta is probably almost twice as large as the actual number in employment.

B-2259. *Mr. Ahmed*: They go home because they have no provision for housing?—I entirely disagree.

B-2260. *Mr. Joshi*: May I ask whether you have made any census of the wages of seamen in India?—I have, in my memorandum, given the wages paid by the P. & O. Company.

B-2261. You have no figures of other companies?—The wages of other companies, I think, are slightly lower. I gave you the wages in 1915, and also in 1923; there is a considerable increase between 1915 and 1923.

B-2262. As regards the broker system you said that it is not abolished but is being abolished. When do you think it will be abolished?—No new licenses are being issued.



B-2263. *Mr. Clow*: It is proposed that recruitment should be carried out by Government officers advised by a committee. When will that system come into force?—At the present moment we think it will be extraordinarily difficult to recruit through a bureau, giving rotation.

B-2264. What is the difficulty in the rotation system?—One of the difficulties is that you are dealing with such an enormous number of men. They go away to their homes for months at a time; you do not know where they are. Another difficulty is that the serang, particularly in Bombay, brings the crew. I think the rotation system was tried in England and was abandoned.

B-2265. In England they have got a joint committee system?—Yes, they have what is called the joint supply, but it is not a supply by rotation; it is first come first served in England.

B-2266. *Mr. Joshi*: I want to put a few questions as regards the Conventions and Recommendations passed at the Geneva Conference and the action taken by Government as regards these Conventions. The memorandum submitted by the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of India mentions all these Conventions. First of all there is the draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.—No legislation has yet been undertaken, but the question of introducing a single Bill dealing with all the maritime Conventions, so far as they have been adopted by the Government of India, is under the consideration of the Government of India.

B-2266a. When is this legislation to be undertaken?—We hope it will not be long delayed now.

B-2267. *Mr. Cliff*: May I ask, in respect of that particular matter, whether you are waiting for the Commission?—No, we are not. As regards the Convention referred to by Mr. Joshi, the Indian legislature recommended that the Convention should be ratified subject to two reservations. It has not been ratified because a Convention cannot be ratified subject to reservations.

B-2268. *Mr. Joshi*: That was in 1920. There has been a delay. When you say "without delay", I want to know the approximate period. Will it be within one year?—Yes, I should think it will be within one year.

B-2269. Then there is the draft Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship. When will action be taken on that?—That will be in the same Bill.

B-2270. Then there is the draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of young persons. You accepted the principle of that, and ratified it, and yet no legislative action has been taken?—We have carried that into effect by executive action; it will be covered by the same Bill.

B-2271. Then there is the draft Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination. Will that be covered by the same Bill?—Yes.

B-2272. *Mr. Cliff*: Is there a draft of that Bill extant?—No, it has not reached that stage. First of all, we thought of legislating for these matters when we amended the Indian Merchant Shipping Act. That was a very heavy and difficult task, and it did not seem likely that it could be carried through at any early date. We therefore decided to take them in a separate Bill.

B-2273. *Mr. Joshi*: Can you tell me whether any action is going to be taken in that Bill as regards the draft Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement, Ninth Geneva Session?—We propose to consult the interests concerned as regards that Convention. It will probably be in the same Bill.

B-2274. Will the draft Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen be in the same Bill?—No; the Indian Merchant Shipping Act already provides for the repatriation of Indian seamen, and so far there is no difficulty. There is, however, a legislative difficulty in regard to foreign seamen employed on a ship registered in India but engaged in their own country. It is beyond the power of the Indian legislature to deal with this point. Ratification by His Majesty's Government will require an amendment of the English Merchant Shipping Act. We are waiting for that to be carried out. If the

English Act is amended so as to bring it into line with the Convention we shall probably be able to ratify.

B-2275. So your Department is not responsible for this portion of the memorandum submitted by the Government in the Industries and Labour Department?—I have not seen a copy of the memorandum.

B-2276. I find in that memorandum that they have mentioned what action you propose to take on certain Conventions, but they make no mention about the recommendations passed by the Geneva Conference. Can you give us information on that?—There is a recommendation as regards the limitation of hours of work in the fishing industry. With the concurrence of the Indian legislature we propose to take no action. As regards the limitation of hours of work in Inland Navigation we propose to take no action, also with the concurrence of the Indian legislature. With regard to the recommendations concerning the establishment of seamen's codes the position is the same. Then there is a recommendation as regards repatriation of masters and apprentices. Here again the difficulty is a legislative one. We decided to wait and follow the lead of His Majesty's Government at home. Then there is a recommendation concerning the general principles for inspection of the conditions of work of seamen. We propose to give effect to this; effect was not given earlier because it was considered impossible to do so until the mercantile marine administration had been centralized. It has been centralized from 1st April of this year and we now propose to give effect to the recommendation.

B-2277. In the Indian Merchant Shipping Act there is a racial discrimination made as regards the accommodation to be provided and the rations to be given to lascars and European seamen?—Not as far as I know.

I am referring to Sections 85 to 91 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act.

*The Chairman:* I think we are fairly convinced on that point. You would not compel the lascars to wear boots, would you?

*Mr. Joshi:* I am not talking about boots; I am talking about rations.

*The Witness.*—I would like to say that the lascar is a popular seaman to-day, which is proved by the increase in the number of lascars taken in ships during recent years. Probably one reason why he is taken is because he is cheaper.

B-2278. You admit that in Section 90 there is also discrimination about the accommodation provided?

*The Chairman:* It is common knowledge that there is differentiation between a European and an Indian.

B-2279. *Mr. Joshi:* 10 feet of space is provided for the European while 6 feet is provided for the Indian lascar?—There is a difference there undoubtedly.

B-2280. I want to know whether this difference can be minimized or not, if it cannot be removed at all?—That is a question for the Government of India.

B-2281. Did the Government of India ever consider this question?—Not to my knowledge.

B-2282. Will it consider it?—I cannot answer for the Government of India.

B-2283. What is your view with regard to setting up machinery to fix a minimum wage for Indian seamen?—We have not considered it.

B-2284. Who can speak on behalf of the Government of India and give us their view on this matter?—So far as I know the Government of India have not considered it. I think our general line with regard to seamen would be to wait and see what was done with regard to other classes of work-people before we touched seamen.

B-2285. *Mr. Cliff:* Would it be possible for you to give us approximately the number of seamen there are in India?—It is very difficult to give the number of seamen because the only figures we have relate to the number of seamen signed on and discharged. I can give you the number of men signed on and discharged.

B-2286. Is that divided as to coasting, deep sea and inland?—In coasting ships, that is home-trade ships, the law does not require the men to be signed on before a shipping master, and we do not compile figures for these ships. We could, however, obtain the figure by reference to the agreements. These agreements are delivered by the master to the shipping office. I cannot get you the number for inland steamers. The Government of India do not deal with the inland steam navigation; that is dealt with by the local Governments.

B-2287. I want to get an idea of the number unemployed?—That is very difficult. Captain Darvell made a guess in Calcutta, and I can give you that guess for what it is worth. The difficulty is that the seamen do not all live in Calcutta. There is a certain percentage living in Calcutta, but the large majority live inland and they may be away from the sea for years.

B-2288. You have mentioned in your memorandum that under the new procedure the number enrolled each year is about 5,000, whereas it used to be 10,000?—Yes. We definitely limited new enrolments to those who had obtained employment, and this number works out at about 5,000.

B-2289. What is the difficulty about a scheme of registration and rotation?—The difficulty lies in the large number who live in their villages and not in Calcutta.

B-2290. You can take the men present?—And is not the system of rotation against the principle of freedom of choice laid down in the draft Geneva Convention of 1920?

B-2291. If you were taking a rotation, could you not take the men present?—Yes. There would be a tremendous mob outside the office. I think the system of rotation is opposed to the principle of freedom of choice for the employee and employer.

B-2292. *The Chairman:* But I understand you are trying to reduce the number of floating seamen, if I may so describe them, in Calcutta, so that there shall not be the same disparity between demand and supply?—All we have done is to decrease the number of recruits who can get a continuous discharge certificate.

B-2293. So that you will not have so many unemployed would-be seamen hanging about Calcutta?—That is so.

B-2294. *Mr. Cliff:* I am trying to see whether they are really effecting a reduction in the number of available seamen?—We are issuing continuous discharge certificates to 5,000 recruits instead of to 10,000, so I suppose the number is being reduced gradually.

B-2295. Is that all you are doing?—As regards the number of seamen available that is all we have done.

B-2296. Then you cannot really say that you are taking effective measures to reduce the number?—A reduction from 10,000 to 5,000 a year is pretty good.

B-2297. It is only a reduction in the new entrants; it is not a reduction in the number of seamen, is it?—I suppose if the body of new men coming in is reduced, it will have the effect of reducing the total number.

B-2298. You are not suggesting that the wastage is equivalent to that, are you?—I do not know; I should think the wastage is pretty heavy. A large number of those who go to sea for the first time in the monsoon never go to sea again; they sign on, obtain a continuous discharge certificate, and are entered in our books, but they may never go to sea again.

B-2299. Has this had any perceptible effect on the numbers waiting for employment?—The actual number employed is certainly larger than it was a few years ago, because the number of steamers visiting India has increased.

B-2300. And the margin above the demand is less?—Yes, I should think it is.

B-2301. Will it go on diminishing?—It is very difficult for me to say, but I presume so.

B-2302. It appears to be impossible to get a clear picture of what is really happening?—Obviously if everybody who, having been to sea, and having

got a continuous discharge certificate, is entitled to call himself a seaman, although he may have been away in his village for years or have been to sea for only a few months, it is very difficult to reduce the numbers rapidly.

B-2303. Have you any authority to test the rations of ships?—Yes, there is a section in the Indian Merchant Shipping Act by which we have power to inspect; the shipping master inspects the rations.

B-2304. Are they frequently tested?—I could not say from personal knowledge, but I believe the instructions are that they should be tested before each voyage.

B-2305. If there were reports, would they come to your Department?—They would not before the 1st April.

B-2306. Have you had any reports this year?—I have not seen any. We had a report from England as regards *ghee*. Some of the *ghee* was tested and found to be vegetable *ghee*.

B-2307. Who is the Minister responsible?—The Honourable Member, Sir George Rainy. The opinions I express here are not the opinions of the Governments of India. I cannot bind the Government of India in any way. The opinions I give are my own opinions.

B-2308. You answered a question put by Mr. Clow as to bunkering coal. When we were at Karachi the Chairman of the Port Trust said there was no regulation or control on the waterside of the ship. Would you say that is correct?—I do not quite understand. I do not think there is any difference between the waterside and the landside of the ship.

B-2309. And so at the moment is there no regulation on the waterside of the ship if they do not make a by-law?—I believe the Section of the Act applies to the waterside of the ship; but beyond the local Government's officers on the spot there is nobody to see that the Section is complied with. The statutory provision is that children under 12 shall not be employed in the loading or unloading of goods from ships.

B-2310. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Is there any differentiation between the streamside and the dock side?—I do not think so.

B-2311. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: But as far as the Port authorities are concerned, they may say: We are only concerned with the dock side of the ship?—I should not have thought so.

B-2312. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In Calcutta, where they load in the stream, the dock authorities would not be responsible?—The Port Commissioners, who are the owners of the docks, have power to make by-laws regulating the loading and unloading of vessels within the Port, whether within the docks or in the stream. The prohibition against the employment of children under 12 years of age is not contained in these regulations, but in the Indian Ports Act, which applies to all ports. Of course, the Port Commissioners are not responsible for seeing that other employers of labour do not infringe the Act.

B-2313. *Mr. Cliff*: I understood you to say that the question of statutory regulation of hours was left for this Commission to make recommendations upon?—No. I said that we had enquired of the local Governments and through them of the Port Commissioners as regards "safety regulations" in docks. In England the loading and unloading of ships has been declared under the Factories Act to be a dangerous process, and regulations have been issued controlling the loading and unloading of ships both as regards work on shore and on the ships. We wrote to the local Governments enquiring what regulations existed in India, and whether they considered that regulations on the lines of the dock regulations in England should be introduced in India. The opinions we got were somewhat divided. The by-laws passed by the Port Commissioners at Calcutta, Bombay and Rangoon cover to some extent the same ground as the dock regulations at home, but not entirely. We only got the replies recently. The 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva in May last considered the question of the loading and unloading of ships from the point of view of the safety of the worker. Doubtless this Commission will examine the subject also. At present we are waiting the result of the Labour Conference at Geneva.

B-2314. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: A statement has been made by the Indian Seamen's Union that there may be about 185,059 men on the registers between 1900 and 1923?—I cannot say whether that figure is correct or not. The registers go back to 1887. The registers will give the figures for new men signed on between 1900 and 1923.

B-2315. That is quite right; they are figures from 1887 to 1923; it is, 1,86,069?—It may be so.

B-2316. They estimate that if you deduct from that number 86,000, that leaves you with 100,000 seamen on the register who must be alive and seeking employment?—Seamen who registered in 1880 may be dead by now.

B-2317. I am presuming that 86,000 are dead; that is what the Union says?—They have no basis for that calculation. I can give you the estimate made by Captain Darvell which, however, is very largely guess work. Speaking from memory I think the estimate was that there were about 140,000 seamen available at Calcutta. I think he said the number actually in employment would be about half that number.

B-2318. The Union say that out of that number no more than 21,490 can be employed?—What do you mean by "can be employed"? A seaman who has been away at sea for 18 months will often go home for six months.

B-2319. The number of seamen available for ships at any given time is no more than 21,490?—I could not say; I do not know where they have got their figures from.

B-2320. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: That is a figure that could be got?—It is a figure we could get by writing to all the shipping companies, including the owners of tramps.

B-2321. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: The statement has been made by the Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta, that there are somewhere about 80,000 men who have been or who are eligible for work on ships, who are unemployed at the present moment?—Yes, I should think that is about the figure, as near as you can get it.

B-2322. Since 1920 this Union has been agitating for employment bureau on the lines suggested by the Clow Committee?—They have been asking for them at times.

B-2323. What has been your objection to giving them?—We think it extraordinarily difficult to work a bureau on the rotation system.

B-2324. What difficulty do you apprehend in working it?—You get men going home; you have thousands who are not employed. Further there is the difficulty as regards the attachment of the men to a particular serang.

B-2325. But what is the difficulty?—The difficulty is that you have registers containing thousands of names; you have to go through hundreds of names before you get to a man who is there.

B-2326. Do not you know that that sort of system prevails in other countries?—No.

B-2327. What is the system in Great Britain?—It is not that; there is no rotation in Great Britain.

B-2328. There are mercantile marine offices in Great Britain?—Yes, but they have nothing to do with the recruitment of seamen.

B-2329. Is it not a fact that in these offices seamen can sign themselves on for engagement on board ships?—They are signed on after they have been recruited. Recruitment is not done by the mercantile marine officer. He signs on the crew, and always has done so. We do the same and have always done so.

B-2330. In 1918 in Great Britain they adopted a different system, namely, of joint control?—That system is not worked by the mercantile marine office. The system of joint supply is worked by the National Maritime Board formed of the representatives of the shipowners and the employees.

B-2331. And joint control by the shipowners and the men's unions?—Quite true, but the joint supply is not at the mercantile marine office which is a Government office.

B-2332. There was joint control introduced in 1918?—Not completely, because although the Shipping Federation joined with the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union, the Employers' Association of the Port of Liverpool did not join.

B-2333. Is it not a fact that the Mercantile Marine Office kept closely in touch with this method which was introduced?—What do you mean by "closely in touch"?

B-2334. Did they or did they not keep in touch with this office in regard to the recruitment of seamen?—The Mercantile Marine Offices did not take any active part in the actual recruitment of seamen; they I believe helped in disputes, as we do.

B-2335. My information is a little different from yours; I should like you to verify your information and I will verify mine?—I have mine from a note prepared by Mr. Gilchrist who studied the matter while in England.

B-2336. Is it not a fact that Japan has ratified the system, and other countries, such as Spain and Holland, have ratified the Geneva Convention?—I presume you refer to the Convention. Ratification of the Convention does not mean a bureau by rotation, because that would obviously be against the article of the Convention which prescribes freedom of choice.

B-2337. Would you be prepared to ratify the Geneva Convention as regards India?—I cannot say what the opinion of the Government of India would be; I would, however, point out that the Geneva Convention definitely laid down that there must be complete freedom of choice both for employer and employee, and I suggest if you have a system of rotation, you have not got that freedom of choice.

B-2338. Supposing a demand is made on behalf of the seamen here that there should be set up a bureau jointly controlled, with compulsory advisory committees?—A joint bureau and a compulsory advisory committee are entirely different; a joint bureau is a joint bureau organized by the employers and employees.

B-2339. Would you be agreeable to that system?—If the trade unions were representative of all the seamen, then I think there would be no objection; you have got it in England.

B-2340. For a number of years you have had a recommendation to that effect made by the unions?—Yes, but the unions are not as yet fully representative of the seamen.

*The Chairman:* Was it made by all the unions?

*Diwan Chaman Lall:* Yes—According to the figures we possess, the membership of the unions at Calcutta is as follows:—Indian Seamen's Union 8,000, the Indo-Asiatic Union 2,000 and of the Indian Quartermasters' Union 1,500; that is out of a total say of at least 100,000 seamen.

B-2341. *Mr. Cliff:* Is there any other body able to express the opinions of the seamen?—Those are the only bodies we know which are representative of seamen.

B-2342. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* Supposing you took those bodies and said: We shall deal with you, what difficulty do you apprehend in the working of this system?—I think the condition precedent for the establishment of a system of joint supply is that you should have a representative body of shipowners and a representative body or bodies of seamen. You have not got a representative body or bodies of seamen.

B-2343. It does not matter whether the membership of the unions is 8,000, 10,000 or 20,000; it makes no difference; you would not restrict your muster rolls or registers to members of the unions.

B-2344. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* Would it not be rather forcing the men into the unions?—That would be the natural result and it happened in England.

B-2345. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: The alternative system is that of a State bureau; why did you reject that?—We have not rejected it absolutely, but, as I say, the opinion is that the working of a State bureau with a system of rotation offers enormous difficulties, and I express the opinion that a system of rotation is opposed to the Geneva Convention.

B-2346. So you will have neither the Geneva Convention nor the system of State bureau; is that the idea?—No, I have not expressed that opinion.

B-2347. The Government of India will content itself with the appointment of shipping masters?—I have not expressed the opinion that if you had unions which represented the large majority of seamen it would be impossible to work what you call an employment exchange.

B-2348. *The Chairman*: May we leave it at this, that under present conditions you do not see your way?—We do not see our way under present conditions. I should like to make the point clear that joint supply in England is not a supply by rotation.

*Chairman*: We have that quite clear.

B-2349. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: You said there was no promise given by the Government in regard to the setting up of any bureau?—I do not think there was.

B-2350. There was a letter sent by the Deputy Secretary, Marine Department, Government of Bengal, in which he said: "I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter ... in which you ask to be informed when the recruiting bureau will be started and the name of the officer who is appointed as the head of the bureau. In reply I am directed to state that the Government of Bengal hope to appoint a special officer with a view to starting a new method of recruiting at an early date." That letter is dated the 20th August, 1924?—At that time it was not contemplated to start a bureau.

B-2351. How would you interpret this reply which was given?—We have introduced a new system as I have stated.

B-2352. Did you have any representations made to you in regard to reparations in respect of seamen who were killed during the war?—You mean the payment of war benefits?

B-2353. Yes?—I do not think we have received any representations lately.

B-2354. You do not know that there has been a great deal of correspondence between the Government of India, the India Office and the union on this subject?—There has been no fresh correspondence through the Commerce Department recently.

B-2355. Who could give us this information?—I do not know exactly what you are referring to.

B-2356. I am referring to the question of German reparations and war debts?—I was not clear as to German reparations and war debts. Pensions and gratuities have been given in respect of men who lost their lives or were injured in the war.

B-2357. There were 3,427 Indian seamen killed during the war?—Probably so; I do not know the exact number.

B-2358. The question was raised as to what was to be done in regard to the dependants of these seamen?—Yes.

B-2359. The Government of India were approached and in reply they said that the Government of India and His Majesty's Government were making full provision for the dependants of lascars who died in the war, that if money was obtained from Germany it would be used for that purpose; that it was very unlikely that the full amount would be obtained. The Union approached the India Office, but the position remains the same, namely, that no satisfactory reply has been received from the Government of India in regard to this matter?—What is the question at issue.

B-2360. The question at issue is what sums of money are you obtaining from the German Government and what sums of money are you going to pay

to the dependants of these seamen?—I have not seen any correspondence about that.

B-2361. Will you look into this matter and tell us the latest that the Government of India has to say in regard to this matter?—Yes, I will look and see if there is any correspondence.

B-2362. In regard to the question of racial discrimination, is it a fact that for the same work Indian and European seamen are paid different wages?—Wages are not on the same level.

B-2363. Is it true that a European fireman gets £9-10-0 a month, which is equivalent to Rs. 142-8-0, whereas an Indian fireman gets only Rs. 28 per mensem?—I do not know what the actual wages of British firemen are; you will get that from the standard rates of wages laid down by the National Maritime Board.

B-2364. *Sir. Victor Sassoon*: Does the efficiency differ?—I do not employ lascar seamen or British seamen, and I really could not say.

B-2365. What is the system of recruiting in Liverpool, which you said just now was different?—The system of recruiting at home under the National Maritime Board is this: only one union of seamen is recognized and represented on the Maritime Board; there are other unions, but these have not been recognized by the employers and are not represented on the Board. The union which is represented on the Board is the National Seamen's and Firemen's Union; that is Havelock Wilson's Union. The employers are represented by the Shipping Federation and the Employers' Association of the Port of Liverpool.

B-2366. You said that Liverpool was different?—That was at the time when the Maritime Board and the system of joint supply was first introduced. The Employers' Association of Liverpool did not at that time join with the Shipping Federation in introducing the joint supply with the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union.

B-2367. What did they do?—They kept aloof, but they joined subsequently in 1925.

B-2368. What was their method while they were keeping aloof?—I am not certain. Under the present system of joint supply there are at each main port officers called "Port Consultants"; that is one representing the shipowners and another representing the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union. As a matter of fact, a man who wishes to get employment often goes to the ship first of all and gets a letter from the officers of the ship to the Port Consultant.

B-2369. *Mr. Cliff*: He must go through the Union?—Yes, he must go through the Union.

B-2370. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: The Union, of course, covers a large majority of the seamen?—Yes. There is, however, another union called the Amalgamated Marine Workers' Union; that was organized by Shinwell and Lewis.

B-2371. *Mr. Cliff*: That is dead?—It is dead now, but it was alive a few years ago.

B-2372. The seaman must go to the Union in order to sign on; the officers of the ship will not sign them on unless they present their card from the Union office?—I think that is right; but I think I am correct in saying there is no rotation system.

*Mr. Cliff*: There is no rotation system.

B-2373. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Do the majority of the seamen belong to the Seamen's Union?—Yes.

B-2374. *Diwan Chaman Lal*: If you did recognize this joint control, would it not help this union to bring in those who are not members?—I think a system of joint supply is impossible till the union has grown and is representative of the large majority of seamen.

(The witness withdrew.)



**Mr. E. E. COOMBS, Controller of Printing and Stationery,  
Government of India, Delhi.**

B-2875. *The Chairman:* Mr. Coombs, we have in front of us a memorandum by Mr. Charles T. Letton. That was written while you were on leave?—Yes.

B-2876. Under your instructions?—No, under the instructions of the Department of Industries and Labour.

B-2877. But you have no doubt since your return from leave read the memorandum?—Yes.

B-2878. And you have come before us to-day in support of that memorandum?—Yes.

B-2879. Dealing with the experience of your Department with regard to Works Committees, the memorandum says "I was Manager of that Press," does that refer to you or not?—No, that is Mr. Letton.

B-2880. That appears to suggest that works committees have had a very varied career?—Rather.

B-2881. Depending greatly on the personality of the Manager of the particular press?—To a certain extent, yes, not totally; for instance at Aligarh Press the Works Committee has hardly ever functioned very well because I consider the employees there are a very poor lot of illiterate men and they really do not understand the benefits of the Works Committee although they have been explained to them.

B-2882. Do you not think that the more ignorant the man may be the more tact it needs on the part of the management?—Yes, it does need a lot of tact in that instance, but we have tried to get them to take a more real interest in it and they do not seem to do so in the Aligarh Press.

B-2883. How does the position stand in Delhi?—I should say it works very well; they meet regularly every month and I get the minutes sent to me regularly every month; they try to help the Manager and the Manager listens and decides nearly every question in committee with them.

B-2884. In that case you have found that it has been beneficial both to the management and to the workers?—Yes, certainly.

B-2885. How long has this Delhi Committee been in existence?—I do not know when the first committee was started; but they were all started more or less at the same time; they have been functioning ever since I have been here, and that is five years.

B-2886. We are told that the one in Calcutta became defunct in 1924-25 while the one in Simla flourished from the very start?—Yes. Mr. Letton was in Simla in 1924-25, and then he went to Calcutta. I was not here then, but I suppose that the Calcutta Committee was not working very well.

B-2887. The memorandum tells us that in Calcutta after Mr. Letton had taken charge he resuscitated the Committee and when he handed over charge in 1927 he found it also substantially advantageous to the management and to the worker?—Yes.

B-2888. So that evidently Mr. Letton had taken a live interest in its success?—He has always.

B-2889. Does not that seem to show that it requires certain qualities in the management as well as in the workmen?—Yes, it does, but if you read further on you see that the manager of this Simla Press had even drafted questions for them and they did not take any interest in it.

B-2890. That is to say the manager of the Simla Press, after Mr. Letton had left it?—Yes.

B-2891. That suggests to me that his successor did not take the same live interest or possibly had not the same personal qualities?—I think they all try to help them as much as possible. But every man is not quite as good as another in these matters.

B-2392. Of course it is recognized in England that it does require certain qualities on both sides to make a real success of organization of that kind and that they vary practically in proportion to the qualities which such men possess?—Yes, that is so.

B-2393. But very often the lack may be just as much on the part of the management as on the part of the workmen?—That may be the case.

B-2394. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: The memorandum states: "In order to provide for the training of Indians for supervising posts in the Government of India Presses five apprentices are trained in the Government of India Press, Calcutta. The period of apprenticeship is five years during which an apprentice is paid Rs. 50 per mensem as subsistence allowance." That is to say, it requires five years training in Calcutta before he is considered qualified for appointment. "Facilities are also provided for the higher training of apprentices in England at the rate of one each year".—If he is going to stay out in this country altogether and not be sent to England, we consider that five years is necessary for his training, but if he is going to be sent to England he goes by selection; he is generally selected after two years and then sent to England for three years, so that he has five years in all. Only selected men are sent to England.

B-2395. What are the prospects of the men who are not sent to England, that is to say the men who put in five years in India against those who put in two years in India and three years in England?—The prospects are that if they are capable they can become readers, foremen, section holders, etc.

B-2396. Are the prospects uniform?—No, the prospects are rather better for those men that are sent to England.

B-2397. On what pay would you start these people who are trained in England?—It depends on the vacancies that we have for them.

B-2398. What about those who return from England duly trained?—We have only had one so far; he returned this year.

B-2399. You say that the training of apprentices at the Calcutta Press is not altogether satisfactory. Why?—Because we have not got sufficient staff of the proper kind to train them.

B-2400. Do I understand you to maintain that even with regard to printing there are not in India adequate facilities for full training?—Certainly not; there are not adequate facilities.

B-2401. That is to say there is something special which is required for printing work which can only be learnt in England?—That is my opinion.

B-2402. Can you explain to us briefly what that distinction is?—Yes; to begin with, the printer at home starts work and works with men who know their trade, who have learnt their trade by five or seven years apprenticeship. In India these men start and learn their trade from men who have never learnt their trade properly as they do in England.

B-2403. How long is this process to continue in a trade which I should think is a very ordinary trade required in every country. Must it always depend upon foreign training?—Unless we start proper schools for training these people such as they have in England, I am afraid they will never make any headway.

B-2404. But you know that India has a very large number of printing presses spread over the whole country. Is it your view that those printing presses are not up-to-date?—I will not say that of all of them.

B-2405. In how many of these presses are there English qualified officers?—The Press of the Times of India in Bombay, for instance, is worked pretty well up-to-date, but if you take the number of Europeans in the Press of the Times of India and compare it with the Government of India Press, you will find they have a very much higher percentage than we have.

B-2406. Is the idea of sending the apprentices to England for training to gradually Indianize the services?—That is the idea.

B-2407. Your memorandum shows that under this scheme the first man started training in 1922, but up to 1932, that is ten years, only four men

will have been qualified?—But the scheme for sending them home to India did not start until I came here in 1926; I put it up to Government when I came over from Bombay.

B-2408. But Mr. Sen started apprenticeship in Calcutta in May 1922?—He then went to the Government Security Press, Nasik.

B-2409. He was then sent to England for training in 1926; that is to say, he had four years training instead of five years?—That is a peculiar case because Mr. Sen was originally one of the Government of India apprentices; and he was transferred to the Security Press after a time. When Government gave a scholarship to send a man home to England he was the selected man.

B-2410. If you take all the four cases, the first two drew Rs. 50 a month as a subsistence allowance while the other two were unpaid apprentices?—Because they asked in the beginning to be taken as unpaid apprentices.

B-2411. After getting all this training extending over five to seven years, on what pay will they be started and what prospects have they of rising in their profession?—Mr. Sen who has just come out has been appointed Officiating Overseer in the Government of India Press at Calcutta, on a starting pay of Rs. 250 a month.

B-2412. What are his prospects; how far can he rise in the department?—He can rise to be Controller of Printing and Stationery if he is good enough.

B-2413. In how many years?—That depends on vacancies.

B-2414. I am asking you this question because you say in your memorandum that of recent years the type of man taking up printing as a livelihood has deteriorated, due to the fact that the emoluments available offer insufficient inducement to the type of men you obtained 20 or 25 years ago?—But that is not speaking of apprentices; that is speaking of the ordinary workmen of the press.

B-2415. Then do you get the right class of recruits for apprenticeship?—Yes, because we select them.

B-2416. Is there a great demand for these posts?—I get large numbers of applications for them.

B-2417. As you have pointed out, the prospects after seven years are Rs. 250 to start with?—I get quite a large number when we advertise every year for them; that is because we pay them Rs. 50 a month to start with. They are selected men who are graduates.

B-2418. I take it that in your view it is not possible to provide the necessary training in India and that in order to Indianize the services British training is essential?—I consider so under present conditions.

B-2419. How long do you think that process will continue before some effect is produced in the services?—I am afraid that is a question I cannot answer.

B-2420. *Mr. Clow:* With regard to that statement to which Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola referred, have you a long experience of printing in India?—Yes, a fair amount.

B-2421. Do you agree with Mr. Letton's statement that the type of man taking up printing has deteriorated?—I do not know; judged by my personal experience at Bombay and here I should think it is about the same; I should think the same class of men is still taking up the work; we are not getting a better class of men.

B-2422. The pay which is given in your press for such workers as linotype and monotype compositors compares very favourably with the pay which an ordinary matriculate can get in any profession?—Yes, I should think it does. If they once become monotype or linotype operators they have not much prospect. I think that would keep away the matriculate and other educated people.

B-2423. There are a good number of unemployed matriculates?—They have to learn the trade first without getting very much, and they do not like that.

B-2424. I take it that your system of recruiting apprentices has some reference to the probable vacancies in the department?—Yes, except that as far as apprenticeships in the Calcutta Press are concerned we take in one every year. As far as sending them home to England is concerned, it would probably depend on the vacancies that are likely to occur. Government might quite possibly stop the scholarship if they found they had sufficient men under training. The Bombay Government have got a scheme, I think Madras also has, and I am not sure about Burma.

B-2425. As regards medical facilities, have you any statistics of sickness in your presses?—No, we have not got any actual statistics. As Mr. Letton has said in his memorandum, on an average 18 per cent. of the men are away because of sickness or other reasons. It is generally sickness because they cannot get away unless they get a medical certificate. But I cannot give you any statistics as to the sickness.

B-2426. Have the recent additional medical facilities which have been provided had any noticeable effect upon absenteeism?—I cannot answer that because I have not had the figures. I should not think so; I think it is just about the same.

B-2427. Have you ever experimented by altering the intervals of rest, substituting a large number of short rests?—I have not done anything like that; they have always had the same intervals, as far as I know.

B-2428. Do you think it would be worthwhile to make such experiments?—Do you mean instead of half an hour?

B-2429. Yes, if it is possible under the Factories Act?—It would be very inconvenient for the presses, to stop more frequently and then go on again. Every time a man stops he generally stops for more than half an hour, and if you stop him for ten minutes he will probably make it 15 minutes.

B-2430. *The Chairman*: But most of your men are on piece-work?—Only the compositors, the binders and the machine minders in Calcutta, and the compositors here in Delhi; the other men are on monthly wages.

B-2431. Were not we told that the linotype men were on piece-work?—The linotype men are on monthly wages, but they have to give a certain out-turn for their pay; they are not actually paid so much per piece.

B-2432. *Mr. Clow*: Is the service pensionable?—In all cases except temporary men, and some of the temporary men are now given pensions after 25 years' service. We have now abolished most of the temporary places.

B-2433. Do you find that there are many vacancies occurring or do men stay with you throughout their service?—Once they get in they never want to leave. They do not want to leave the service of the Government of India because they are paid so much more than in other presses; the pay and conditions are very much better than they can get in the ordinary printing press.

B-2434. Then do you get a better type of men than there is in the private presses?—I cannot say that they are a better type of men. I should not think they were.

B-2435. You ought to get a better type of man?—Yes, but then we have not done any recruiting for a very long time. The reason why we do not get a better type of man is that when they start they have to start on a very low pay; it is only when they have learnt their trade for a number of years that they are able to earn better money.

B-2436. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What is the starting pay?—There are various starting pays.

B-2437. You say the reason you do not get a better class of men is that they have to start on a very low pay?—A compositor would come in as quite a young man and would only get Rs. 15 or 20 a month; it will probably be 7 years before he can earn Rs. 40 or 50.

B-2438. *The Chairman*: He is a learner?—Yes; they do not learn their trade in the way they do in England as an apprentice starting on 6s. a day and going up to £1.

B-2439. *Mr. Cliff*: Why do they not learn their trade?—They pick it up in the best way they can; there is no system of apprenticeship for them.

B-2440. Then why does not the Department go into that problem and set up a proper system of apprenticeship?—It could be done, of course.

B-2441. But the Press has been going on now for a very long time, if you go on like this, a man is never going to learn by working alongside a trained man, is he?—Not unless they are trained first.

B-2442. Is there any reason why the men have not been trained in a proper way?—Yes, because we have not the trained staff to teach the men.

B-2443. But are you not going to make a beginning?—I am perfectly willing to make a beginning if the Government will give me the money and I can secure the men.

B-2444. *Mr. Clow*: If, as you say, you are paying substantially higher than other presses, surely you ought to be able to attract men who have been trained in other presses?—But you see we have not done any recruiting lately.

B-2445. *Mr. Cliff*: I gather you do not recruit journeymen; you only recruit apprentices or learners?—We have not been recruiting for some years at all.

B-2446. I have two documents in my hand and to the best of my knowledge they are printed in the Government Press. Do you say the standard of efficiency in printing amongst certain of your people is not sufficiently high for them to train others?—No, I do not think it is, not to train them in the way they would be in England.

B-2447. Never mind about England for a moment; can you commence to train these men with the men you have already got in the Press?—They will only teach them their own methods; that is all. If the Manager has time to give them personal instruction he would do so, but he has not time.

B-2448. *Mr. Clow*: Normal conditions are restored now; I take it you do not contemplate any substantial reductions in your staff?—No, I do not think so.

B-2449. So that from now onwards you should be able to recruit a better type of man?—Yes, if they are available to be recruited. I do not say they are in Delhi. I should think we have in the Government Presses the best available class of men.

B-2450. There are many presses in Delhi?—Yes, but I do not suppose the men are as efficient as our men are.

B-2451. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: I take it your real difficulty is that you have not recruited since 1922?—We have not.

B-2452. If you were recruiting, I take it you could get one or two trained men from outside who would very quickly get into your ways, and then you could use them as a start to train the journeymen, if not the apprentices. Your trouble is that you have got nobody who can train men into your own ways; your present men have bad habits and they will not get out of those habits; is that it?—Training is rather a difficult problem. The men would have to be put into a section and learn their work in that section. There might be a dozen sections and the man at the head of one section might be quite capable of training while the man at the head of another section might not be capable.

B-2453. What you really want is a series of section trainers to start training the young men when you start recruiting?—Yes.

B-2454. You would thus get a nucleus?—Yes; I should like to get a very much better class of men to train, if it were possible.

B-2455. Would it be difficult to start one section of apprentices, and get ahead in that particular section, and when you are next recruiting get a better class of apprentices at the start?—I think that might be done.

B-2456. Do you think it would involve serious cost?—No, I do not think it would. We should start it in the composing department and teach a number of men in that department.

B-2457. I am assuming that in your composing department you have one man whom you could use as a teacher?—I should have to make enquiries about that before I could give a definite answer. Teaching is quite a different thing from doing the ordinary work.

B-2458. You hope that somewhere in the whole organization there is one man who is suitable to be a section head for teaching?—Yes, I think we could find one in each press who could probably give them a fair training.

B-2459. Then that would be the man to choose to train your better class apprentices?—Yes. He would have to devote an enormous amount of his time to that work.

B-2460. I suggest he would be almost a specialist in that work?—I agree. In other words, I should have to ask Government to sanction a special post for the purpose. If Government can give me the men and the staff, we can do the rest.

B-2461. Could you find such a man to put into this position in your existing staff?—He would not be a man trained in the way an Englishman is trained; that is the only trouble.

B-2462. What you really want is one of these apprentices who go to England?—Yes. Your suggestion is that these apprentices trained at home should be used in the first place not in an executive capacity but in a tutorial capacity. They could use their latest knowledge from home to train these other people.

B-2463. And you would be able to get a better class of apprentice to put under them?—If it would attract the right kind of man. I do not think the educated man likes manual labour very much in that way, and it does not attract him.

B-2464. But surely that type of man would rise quicker than your present men?—He should rise quicker, but we do not get applications from that type of man at all.

B-2465. But is not the point that if you had the system, you might then get applications when they could see a future?—Yes, but are you prepared to pay these people for learning?

B-2466. You would pay them for learning?—A very small amount.

B-2467. If I remember aright, on the railways they pay them Rs. 20 a month while they are learning in their railway school, and they are getting a good class of men?—If Government would sanction that.

B-2468. I think they pay them Rs. 22 and arrange to mess them if they want it?—That is a scheme one would have to work out; I would have to get Government sanction for it.

B-2469. I take it if the increase in cost was infinitesimal Government would be more likely to be sympathetic than otherwise?—It depends what you call infinitesimal.

B-2470. Rs. 22?—But you would have to pay the overseer as well.

B-2471. At the present time you are paying these newcomers Rs. 18 or 20, are you not?—No, they get what they earn as compositors. They may only earn Rs. 15 or 20 a month or what they actually pick up by piece-work. There is no system of training them at present. Nearly all the new hands are pieceworkers as far as the compositors are concerned. In the bindery they are salaried hands in Delhi; they are on piece work in Calcutta.

B-2472. What would you give an untrained man coming into the binding department in Delhi?—They start here on Rs. 18.

B-2473. So that if the railway system were put into force you would only be giving them about Rs. 4 a month more?—Yes, and if we had really good men it would be worth it.

B-2474. *Sir Alexander Murray*: What apprenticeship does a printer or a linotype man do in the printing trade at home?—Five or seven years. I served seven years.

B-2475. Do all apprentices still serve seven years?—I think it is five now.

B-2476. What is their pay?—I started on 6 shillings a week.

B-2477. What do they start on now?—I cannot tell you.

B-2478. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: What did you get at the end of your apprenticeship?—£1 a week after seven years.

B-2479. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Is it the experience at home that boys can break away in the fourth year of their apprenticeship and seek a job as workmen elsewhere?—No, I do not think so.

B-2480. Have you had any experience of apprenticeship in this country?—Only those I have got in the Calcutta Press.

B-2481. Do you find them going away and seeking jobs elsewhere?—No.

B-2482. You have not come across cases such as I have in some of the Government workshops where a boy serves an apprenticeship on a salary for two or three years of his apprenticeship and becomes a comparatively skilled worker and then leaves before the end of his apprenticeship?—I have not come across cases like that.

B-2483. How do you meet that difficulty here? There are a great many printing establishments outside your establishment. How would you be sure that the boy would stay on and serve his full time?—I really cannot tell you whether we have any particular rule on that subject—whether we take a certain amount of their pay and keep it back for that; I cannot answer straightaway.

B-2484. You say that over-time work at Delhi is excessive?—During the cold weather season.

B-2485. Are the men paid piece-work during that time chiefly?—The compositors are paid piece-work or time wages.

B-2486. Do you find that longer hours have an effect on their health?—It must have an effect on their health when they are working such long hours without any recreation. I cannot say individually that I know of particular cases where it does affect their health, but it is obvious that where a man works for three months at high pressure it must affect his health to a certain extent.

B-2487. Mr. Letton in his memorandum stated: "I am afraid the only conclusion to be arrived at is that the health of the employees is indeed in a bad state if their general health can be judged by the number of medical certificates received." What do you mean by that?—Mr. Letton evidently means that a man gets a medical certificate on every possible occasion in order to get leave; it does not follow that he is really ill. Lots of people have colds and stop at work while other people who have colds stay at home.

B-2488. Do you mean to say that if a certificate is brought to you signed by a properly qualified medical practitioner you accept it?—We have to accept it.

B-2489. Even if a medical certificate is brought to you no matter from whom, or whatever your personal opinion may be?—We have got to accept it.

B-2490. You have no medical officer attached?—There is a sub-assistant surgeon attached to the Calcutta Press who gives medical certificates there.

B-2491. A Calcutta man can come with a certificate from any medical officer?—Supposing he is ill at home, unless we send the medical officer down to find out whether he is really ill we have to accept a private medical practitioner's certificate.

B-2492. Naturally he would go home and get a certificate from his private practitioner and send it on to you?—Yes.

B-2493. Do you find that instances of sickness and medical certificates are equally bad in Calcutta as in Delhi and Simla?—I have always found that a tremendous number of medical certificates are being submitted; if a man wants leave he invariably sends in a medical certificate.

B-2494. *The Chairman*: He does not receive pay for his absence?—Yes, if it is casual leave. If he is a piece-work compositor he gets 18 days in the year up to 10 years service and 23 days over 10 years up to 20 years service, 31 days above 25 years service.

B-2495. *Sir Alexander Murray*: How long does the time-worker get?—He gets casual leave—a month's privilege leave every year, and leave on half-pay for sickness beyond that, and all Government holidays.

B-2496. Are these leaves to which a man is entitled taken full advantage of?—Yes, in 75 per cent. of the cases.

B-2497. *The Chairman*: Has not the system been long in operation?—Yes.

B-2498. *Sir Alexander Murray*: Does it mean that if a man can get a certificate from anybody he can take his maximum leave?—There are only a few who do not do so.

B-2499. You say "In the Delhi Press it is noted that the physique of the workers appointed locally appears to be somewhat better than that of the Bengalee employees who were transferred from Calcutta." Do you mean to tell us that the type of men that we saw working in your press are better than the average Bengalee?—That is Mr. Letton's opinion. I cannot say.

B-2500. They probably are. Dealing with trade unions you say that the Press Employees Association "has not received recognition by the Government of India as it does not conform to the requirements under which such organizations are to be recognized". What is that?—That I am afraid I must refer you to the Government of India. (Mr. Clow): Speaking from memory, the Government instituted that, as a general rule, unions of servants shall be confined to Government servants and should not embrace other employees.

B-2501. Is there any objection to your workers having a union?—None whatever, as far as I know.

B-2502. *The Chairman*: This point is dealt with by the Industries and Labour Department in their memorandum.

B-2503. *Mr. Cliff*: In Mr. Letton's memorandum it is stated: "In the the Calcutta Press, they could not be much worse. Here a large number of the workers perform their allotted task daily with the aid of artificial light as the workrooms in places are dark and badly ventilated. They are overcrowded." Do you concur in that opinion?—I think it is a very unsuitable building for a press.

B-2504. Can you tell me which is the body that one can speak to about it?—Industries and Labour Department.

B-2505. Again, it is said in the memorandum "The possibility of a reduction in the working hours of the Presses is a question which has periodically arisen during the last 20 years." Do you deal with that or does the Industries and Labour Department deal with it?—The Industries and Labour Department have fixed the number of hours, but they cannot control the number of hours of over-time altogether; that depends upon the work that is sent in to the press.

B-2506. It is said that this emergency has arisen during the last 20 years. Would it be up to you as Manager of this Press to put up a solution or is it the Department of Industries?—I should have to put it up if anybody did have to put it up. I have already asked for more staff for the Delhi Press. If that is sanctioned the over-time will be reduced to a certain extent.

B-2507. Does it mean more machines or more shifts?—Neither; it means more staff.

B-2508. Can you cope with the work with the machines that you have at present?—With over-time we do it somehow or other.



B-2509. If you were going to have the same machines would you not have shifts if you were going to reduce over-time?—It is only at certain times of the year that this over-time occurs, when the budget is on and the Legislative Assembly is in session.

B-2510. It seems to take about five months?—Yes; it is from the middle of November to the end of March.

B-2511. Have you made an application for more staff?—We have got a floating grant by which we can employ, and do employ, more staff during that time. But we never know what work is coming in; we cannot say whether we are going to get 5 pages or 500 pages.

B-2512. *Miss Power*: What is the average number of hours of work done during that pressure?—I should think it is 10 to 12.

B-2518. *Mr. Joshi*: How do you get over the Factories Act during that period?—We get exemption.

B-2514. Who gives you the exemption?—The Chief Commissioner of Delhi.

B-2515. *Mr. Cliff*: Does the Chief Commissioner of Delhi go on giving you exemptions without seeing that you are really facing this problem and endeavouring to find a solution?—The exemption has been given every year so far; in fact, we have a general exemption.

B-2516. What is your solution of this problem?—Less work.

B-2517. With the work that is confronting you, what is your solution?—I do not know that I could suggest any particular solution at the moment. It would want careful thinking out.

B-2518. It is being under consideration for 20 years?—The over-time, not the work.

B-2519. Over-time, according to Mr. Letton's memorandum, has been under consideration for 20 years. Am I reading the document wrongly?—The question has cropped up periodically for 20 years.

B-2520. This matter has been in front of you as a department for a very considerable number of years, and I am anxious to know what is the solution you have put up, or which you can put up, to do away with it. Can you farm out some of your regular work?—That would not make any difference to this particular over-time work.

B-2521. In 1922 there was a considerable reduction in the number of staff. Recruitments which have taken place have been taken from that staff. That indicates that there are still a considerable number of unemployed printers in Delhi. Is it not possible to have a reserve staff out of that unemployed list for these five months in the year?

*The Chairman*: I take it your point is that there ought to be a sufficient number of men and machines to do this special five months work without unreasonable over-time and to regard the work as average for the whole year.

B-2522. *Mr. Cliff*: I think so. If you want additional staff do you have to make application to some other department?—Always.

B-2523. Is that the Industries Department?—Yes.

B-2524. With regard to the fixing of wages, you say that these rates are sanctioned by the Government of India. Is that the Department of Industries and Labour?—Yes, and the Finance Department.

B-2525. Does that same department determine the cost of living figures?—No, it does not.

B-2526. Is it your department that fixes these cost of living figures?—No, I do not think that any department fixes the cost of living figures.

B-2527. How do you fix the wages without knowing the cost of living?—This question I could not possibly answer.

B-2528. What I do not understand is this. Here is a department outside yourself. They fix the wages. Do they not fix the wages on your recommendation?—They listen to me sometimes, but not always. Generally they cut them down.

*Mr. Cliff:* I will not press it any further as the department responsible is not here.

B-2529. *Mrs. Chatterjee:* You mentioned that applications for leave on account of sickness are not general. Is it not a fact that the workers generally work in an unhealthy area?—I am afraid I cannot say whether it is a very unhealthy area or not. The Health officer will be able to say that.

B-2530. Are you not aware of the fact that a number of employees when attacked by malaria go on attending work till they are absolutely compelled to stop?—They do it of their own will. They can always get leave if they are ill. We do not compel any man to work if he is ill.

B-2531. *Col. Russell:* Most of the members of the Commission were impressed by the fact that the general body of the workers in the Press were of very poor physique compared with other workers outside. Can you give us an idea why it is so?—I cannot tell. I have not seen any other workers to compare them with.

B-2532. You do not admit that they were of a lower physique than others?—I do not think they are any worse than other press-men in the city.

B-2533. *Mr. Joshi:* With regard to the recognition of the union can you tell us which condition the union does not fulfil?—I cannot tell you.

B-2534. You told us that you did not get the type of men you used to get?—It was Mr. Letton who said that. I said that I did not think there was much difference between them.

B-2535. With regard to works committees have you ever thought that such committees could be made compulsory by legislation?—It has never entered by mind.

B-2536. The memorandum says that the committee considered certain questions which were beyond their purview. Can you mention some of these questions which were considered to be beyond the purview of the committee?—They probably questioned the rulings of Government which have been settled and then they wanted to discuss them in committee. Really they should not discuss them. They should put them up through their manager to the Controller who would go up to the Government about them.

B-2537. With regard to quarters for inferior servants, are they all single room tenements?—I think they are all one room tenements. However they are moving out of these as soon as new buildings are put up.

B-2538. With reference to the remarks contained in the memorandum on industrial disease, why is not a thorough medical examination made in order to find out whether there is industrial disease or not?—They are not examined to find out whether they have industrial disease in them.

B-2539. Is not printing one of the trades which is liable to lead poisoning?—Yes.

B-2540. Therefore from time to time should you not see by medical examination whether there is industrial disease or not?—That will mean an examination of the men about every six months. There has been nothing arranged for such an examination.

B-2541. *Miss Power:* Is there any system of ascertaining whether employees who are absent for longer than ten days are entitled to workmen's compensation if they are suffering from compensatable diseases? Does the Government take no responsibility for seeing whether an employee gets compensation when he is entitled to it?—If he is away on medical leave he gets pay.

B-2542. *Mr. Joshi:* With regard to temporary men, they get ten days' leave?—Yes.

B-2542a. Do these temporary men serve only for a few months or for a long period?—It used to be like that. We have lately made a great number of temporary men permanent. So it only applies to a very much fewer number.

B-2548. The table given in the memorandum shows a much larger number?—I have now got that matter under consideration. I have asked for reports as to the number of permanent and temporary posts, and I am going up to Government to make as many as possible permanent.

B-2544. Do you interpret regular employment by an attendance of 90 per cent. hours of work?—That was when the old rule was in force, but the rules have been altered. They now get 16 days leave in a year.

B-2545. Without those conditions?—Yes, without those conditions.

(The witness withdrew.)

**DELHI**  
**ELEVENTH MEETING**  
**Tuesday, 5th November, 1929.**

**PRESENT:**

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.

Sir IBRAHIM RAHIMTOOLA, Kt.,  
K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. G. D. BIRLA, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL (*Medical Assessor*).

Mrs. J. C. CHATTERJEE (*Lady Assessor*).

Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (*Joint Secretaries*.)

Mr. A. DIBDIN.

**Mr. J. A. SHILLIDY, I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour, and Mr. A. M. ROUSE, C.I.E., Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, New Delhi, called and examined.**

B-2546. *The Chairman:* Mr. Shillidy, will you tell the Commission how long you have held your present post?—About a fortnight.

B-2547. Your previous office?—Home Department of the Government of India.

B-2548. I understand that your immediate predecessor in your present office was our Secretary Mr. Lall?—No; Mr. Lall was the Deputy Secretary.

B-2549. And before that our colleague Mr. Clow?—Yes.

B-2550. So we have the benefit of a good deal of knowledge on the subject of your Department at our table?—A good deal more than I have.

B-2551. May I first thank you and your Department for the memorandum that you have given to us on the subject of our inquiry. I propose myself to confine my examination, in the first instance, to two points. The first is some remarks that are made with regard to the question of recruitment. In your memorandum it is stated: "Owing to the illiteracy of the workers and the variety of languages spoken by them, employers in India find it almost impossible to maintain any direct touch with their workpeople. This accounts for the presence of intermediaries, who are largely responsible for the abuses which have sprung up in connection with recruitment." Further on it is stated: "It would appear therefore that education and organization are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who like harpies are ever ready to prey on them." Arising from those two statements I want to ask you whether you have any knowledge of cases where an endeavour has been made to overcome those difficulties by the appointment within the works of labour officers who form a direct contact between the illiterate workers and the heads of the firm?—The only instance I can think of on the spot is the garden sardars at the Assam tea gardens.

B-2552. The garden sardars in the tea gardens are not the kind that I am referring to. I mean a labour officer whose duty it is to be in touch with the humblest workers in a large industry and at the other side to have contact with the directing heads of the firm?—I am told—but I should like to verify it further—that in some of the Burma oil mills they have their own labour officer in that way.

B-2553. Do you not think that what you say in your memorandum emphasizes the need for some such labour officer to deal with the two points that you have raised, namely, the contact between the employer and his workers and also to bring some organisation into the system of recruitment of labour?—That would be a matter, I think, for each industry and each business to decide. I do not know how we could lay down any general precise rule that this must be so.

B-2554. No, I was not suggesting either legislation or administrative action. It would be a question of course, as you say, for each industry, but it seems to me to follow from what you have said that there is a need at present unfilled by the majority of industries?—I think it would be rather difficult to make a general reply without reference to the detailed conditions of each industry and each business.

B-2555. If there was such a labour officer within an industry then welfare work in its broad sense would be based from the beginning on the co-operation of the workers themselves, not imposed from the top, but there would be an opportunity at any rate of letting them feel that all kinds of welfare work, including provident funds, were partly their own work?—It would depend a good deal on the relations established between a particular labour officer and the workmen in general.

B-2556. Of course it would; it would call for a man of high quality to fill such a post. My second question is with regard to the proposals that have been made from time to time, which are set out in your memorandum, for such social services as sickness insurance and unemployment benefit. You have given us in the memorandum a very complete picture of how these proposals have been examined by the Government of India and by the Provincial Governments up-to-date. There is one thing I find lacking in the memorandum, perhaps because it does not exist, but I wish to ask you whether any actuarial estimate has been made on these subjects of the cost to the worker, to the employer and to the State?—You mean of a sickness insurance scheme?

B-2557. Yes.—Not so far as I am aware.

B-2558. Is there any machinery in the Government for making such an estimate?—The Director of Commercial Intelligence might be able to help us and probably would be brought in.

B-2559. So far as you are aware no work has been done on those lines?—No definite detailed work has been done on that line.

B-2560. The only references that I find in your memorandum are two: One to the case of Japan where the labour circumstances are very different from those in India, and the other is to a small estimate made by Professor Jevons in Burma and probably covering only a very small number, I think 80,000 workers?—I think the reason why no actuarial statistics have been carefully gone into is that we have decided not to proceed at the present moment with the legislation and that we are awaiting the recommendations of this Commission.

B-2561. But do you not think that any recommendations wherever they come from must be based on an actuarial estimate?—Yes, they must when they come or when they are to be put into force, but there is a certain amount of doubt as to whether it is practicable in the conditions of the country to introduce this scheme.

B-2562. In considering the question of practicability surely an actuarial estimate lies at the basis of the whole thing?—It does, but it was quite evident that the cost would be large; I do not think that would be denied

and that sickness insurance, at all events, was a bill which the local Governments would have to face and the local Governments simply stated that they were not in a position to face it.

B-2563. You are aware no doubt that the English scheme was based on the cumulative experience of the friendly societies and the trade unions, and to some extent on the experience in Germany with a somewhat similar population?—Yes, I have no doubt that if we took it up, and of course that will depend upon the recommendations of this Commission, all that inquiry will be made, but so far we have not got to that stage. I think it is evident that it will cost a good deal, and as the burden will fall on the local Governments, and they have stated that they are not in a position owing to their finances to contemplate such a scheme at the present moment, further detailed actuarial calculations hardly seem necessary at this stage.

B-2564. I should have thought they were the basis of proper consideration of the problem?—I think for a full consideration of the problem, certainly.

B-2565. But there is nothing existing even in the form of a provisional actuarial estimate?—No, there have been certain rough estimates; somebody said that so many workers will require so much on a certain average; nothing beyond that.

B-2566. Based on the sickness rate, for instance?—No.

B-2567. No estimate of the incomings and outgoings of the fund?—No; I am not aware of that.

B-2568. Then you could not say in the least, I take it, if there is to be a proper insurance fund, whether it would mean two annas a month, four annas a month or eight annas a month contribution from the workers and employers?—No; I am not prepared to say that.

B-2569. Nor as to the period which would have to elapse before benefits accrued in order to put the fund on a sound basis?—No, we have not gone into details of that kind.

B-2570. *Sir Alexander Murray*: May I follow up these questions of the Chairman regarding sickness insurance and other things for the benefit of the workers? Can you tell us actually what the relations are between the Central Government and the Provincial Governments in that respect at the present moment? Let me explain. In your memorandum, taking the question of sickness benefits as an instance, you explain how you wrote to the provinces and how you got replies stating which local Governments were of the opinion that any system of sickness insurance would be practicable or impracticable under present conditions, and you go on further and say that the main difficulty with the local Governments was the question of finance. Let us take these points. What is the position? Supposing you were to introduce a system of sickness insurance, what would be the procedure; who would pass the legislation and who would be responsible for its administration and for finding the money?—Under the Devolution Rules, industrial matters included under provident funds, industrial insurance, general health, accident and housing, are provincial reserved subjects.

B-2571. Does that mean that for sickness insurance it is not the Minister but the Member who would be responsible?—Yes.

B-2572. We have a very interesting book in front of us called "*The State and Industry*", by A. G. Clow. On page 24 of that book it is stated: "The development of industries became a transferred subject in all provinces, and with the introduction of the Reforms at the end of 1920, the main responsibility for the development of industries by official agency passed to the newly appointed ministers." Now, is it the Ministers or the Members in the reserved departments that are responsible?—The development of industries is with a Minister, but industrial matters included under the head, welfare of labour, including provident funds, industrial insurance, general health, accident and housing is a reserved subject.

B-2578. You pass a law to bring into effect sickness insurance—that could be done in Bengal or Bombay as the case may be with the previous sanction of the Government of India?—It is subject to legislation by the Indian Legislature, *vide* Item 26 in Part II of Schedule I to the Devolution Rules. All reserved subjects are under the superintendence, direction and control of the Government of India.

B-2574. But take maternity benefit; it has been passed into law by the Government of Bombay. Would sickness benefit be equally passed by the Government of Bombay?—It can be passed.

B-2575. Assuming that the Bombay Government decides to pass a sickness benefit scheme, where would the money come from?—From the provincial revenues. The general constitutional rule is that all expenditure on provincial subjects must be from the provincial revenues and expenditure on central subjects from central revenues.

B-2576. Therefore, if a scheme for sickness benefit is to be brought into effect by the Bombay Government, the finding of the money shall be the responsibility of the Provincial Government?—Yes.

B-2577. And the Central Government will practically have no control over it?—It is generally recognized that following on the division of powers, central revenues must not be spent on provincial subjects and provincial revenues should not be spent on central subjects.

B-2578. The welfare of labour generally is a provincial subject?—Yes.

B-2579. The Central Government retains control of customs and income-tax and other central forms of revenue?—Yes.

B-2580. Would it be by means of taxation, or, how would that provincial Government find the money necessary for introducing such a scheme?—It will be by taxation.

B-2581. Fresh taxation presumably?—If they could not provide it from their present revenues, fresh taxation of course.

B-2582. Take housing as well as sickness benefit. The Holland Commission in 1918, that is ten years ago, recommended that something ought to be done to give facilities to employers of labour and to workmen generally to acquire land for houses especially in towns and other crowded areas. I know that you circularised the local Governments and other public bodies regarding the advisability of giving effect to the recommendation. Can you tell me whether anything has been actually done?—I cannot say about all the local Governments. In Bombay, of course, you know of the Bombay development scheme.

B-2583. Yes, that is one; is there anything else?—I cannot tell at the present moment. I may point out that the present constitution came into force after the Holland Committee made that recommendation.

B-2584. And this is also a subject in the hands of the Member of a Provincial Government?—It is a provincial reserved subject.

B-2585. In Bombay we saw that an arrangement was made with the Government whereby these charges were borne, but apart from Bombay I cannot see any reference to legislation having been introduced by any Provincial Government authorising the compulsory acquisition of land for the benefit of either the employers or the workers for housing purposes?—I am afraid I cannot say straightaway what the Provincial Governments have done in the matter. If you are very anxious to know I can make inquiries. Mr. Clow can say whether anything has been done.

In my home town in Bengal, near the mill areas, we have found it necessary frequently to acquire land for workmen's houses and we have found it impossible to acquire land in the immediate vicinity of the mills. Even where the surroundings are very insanitary, it is almost impossible under the existing legislation to do anything for the improvement of these areas.

B-2586. The Chairman: The point is that the present law only applies to public purpose?

*Sir Alexander Murray:* That is so. The Holland Commission recommended that there should be an amendment of the law to the effect that where Government was satisfied that the acquisition of land would be for public good or for housing accommodation, the land could be acquired.

*The Chairman:* Yes; but nothing has been done?—*The witness:* Nothing.

*Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola:* I know there is a judicial decision that if Government declares any land to be required for public purposes, the land can be acquired for it, and there can be no question as regards the decision of the Government.

B-2587. *Mr. Ahmed:* You have stated in your memorandum that the work-people are very badly treated and are the prey of the money lender. Has Government taken any steps to remedy this evil?—That is rather a broad question; I should be glad to know in what particular direction your question is put?

B-2588. With regard to indebtedness?—We have a Usury Act, if that is what you are referring to.

B-2589. Has your Government taken any steps with a view to a limitation of the rate of interest?—I am not aware of any definite limiting of the rate of interest as such.

B-2590. Do you think that the condition of the people could be greatly relieved by the introduction of a weekly system of payment of wages instead of monthly or fortnightly?—I think all these provisions of an arbitrary or a hard and fast kind can be evaded. The chief provision in which some persons were lately interested was the definite limitation of interest. But it was found that they were attempting too much; that so far as the benefit to the debtors was concerned it was a very simple matter to evade the provisions of the law. We prefer to deal with it in the way we have under the Usury Act, which empowers a court to re-open proceedings and to examine the history of the case.

B-2591. Do you think co-operative societies would be helpful in this direction?—Co-operation is a very large question which hardly comes within my particular purview at the moment. Co-operative societies are also a provincial subject and they are primarily the concern and interest of the local Governments.

B-2592. *The Chairman:* We of course know about the village co-operative movement, but how far have co-operative societies been established in industrial areas?—If you make your enquiries in Bombay I think you will find that co-operative societies in industrial matters have been very largely taken in hand and there are a large number of them.

B-2593. *Mr. Abel,* the Inspector of Factories, told us he was in favour of increasing the number of inspectors. Are you of the same opinion?—The inspection of factories is a reserved subject.

B-2594. Would your answer be the same?—Not necessarily.

B-2595. Will you agree with what *Mr. Abel* has said?—I am not prepared to agree to anything until I have seen the full statement of the case. I do not think we can necessarily take the opinion of one officer as conclusive.

B-2596. *Sir Alexander Murray:* But factory inspection still remains a central subject in the hands of the Government of India?—No, factory inspection is a provincial reserved subject.

B-2597. *Mr. Cliff:* Has your department any power to intervene in a dispute between employers and workpeople?—We would intervene in our own Department.

B-2598. Would you intervene in industry generally?—There again it is primarily the concern of the local Government.

B-2599. When you say you would intervene in your own department, do you mean that you would intervene as an employer?—No, I do not think so.



B-2600. Would you intervene in a dispute between railway workers and the Railway Board?—Yes, we would intervene.

B-2601. Under what power?—The ordinary administrative power.

B-2602. Can you spell that out for me so that I may know how far you can wield power?—I am not quite sure in what way you mean.

B-2603. Take the Bombay trouble; there has been the Fawcett enquiry; was that committee of enquiry set up under the provincial Government?—Yes.

B-2604. Assuming there is a dispute between railway workers and the Railway Board; are you distinct and separate from the Railway Board?—Yes, I should say so in that matter.

B-2605. Could you intervene in a dispute?—We could set up a similar board of enquiry.

B-2606. After a strike has occurred?—Or if a strike is anticipated.

B-2607. Will you tell me of any case where a dispute has been apprehended and has not yet reached the stage of a strike when your Department has in fact intervened?—No; I cannot say that straight off.

B-2608. Do you think it is likely that there is a case on record?—

B-2609. *Mr. Clow*: I think Mr. Shillidy has misunderstood the question; no Department can intervene between a Department and its own employees; only the Government of India can do that?—I am referring to the Government of India. Did you refer to a Department?

B-2610. *Mr. Cliff*: I am referring to the Department which you represent?—No.

B-2611. Will you tell me the exact scope of your Department in relation to labour; is it only as far as labour legislation is concerned?—Yes. It is under our supervision, direction and control, and that is all. I think it is understood that our position really with regard to all labour questions is that it is primarily the concern of the local Government, but is, like all reserved subjects, under the superintendence, direction and control of the Government of India.

B-2612. That is with regard to legislation and enforcement of legislation?—No, the actual administration of the subject is provincial.

B-2613. Under the normal operation of industry, is there any intervention by your Department where a dispute is apprehended; have you power in order to enable you to try and effect a settlement?—No, not as a Department.

B-2614. Have you at any time endeavoured to establish a satisfactory cost of living index in your Department?—Not in our Department.

B-2615. Can you tell me about the Government of India?—The Director of Commercial Intelligence may have one, but he is not under our Department, and I am not quite sure to what extent he has carried out his enquiries.

B-2616. May we know whether it is under consideration to obtain a proper cost of living index figure by your Department?—It is not under consideration.

B-2617. Would it be within your scope?—I do not think so as the constitution stands.

B-2618. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: That is within the scope of the Government of India?—As the constitution stands, yes.

B-2619. *Mr. Clow*: I do not think that is correct, because we made an attempt in 1922?—I am well aware of that. But the Act had only just come in and when that particular Department was abolished one of the main reasons for not opposing it at all was the fact that all questions with regard to labour are provincial subjects.

B-2620. *Mr. Cliff*: All subjects with regard to the welfare of labour are provincial subjects?—Yes.

B-2621. Is this the position that the compilation of a cost of living index is regarded as welfare and is therefore a provincial subject?—I should regard it as such.

B-2622. *The Chairman:* From your memorandum it is clear that you do take steps with regard to legislation?—Yes.

B-2623. *Mr. Cliff:* I want to get, if I can, a clear distinction with regard to welfare?—The welfare of labour is a provincial reserved subject; it is therefore primarily a concern of the local Government, subject to the superintendence, direction and control of the Government of India.

B-2624. When you come to interpret welfare, your present interpretation is that the compilation of a cost of living index figure is welfare?—Yes.

B-2625. Apply that if you will for a moment to the Railway Board and the railway system in India. Would the establishment of a wage fixing machinery under that system be interpreted by you as being a matter of welfare?—Yes.

B-2626. And would it be impossible for you to take steps to recommend legislation for the purpose?—Where a subject is Central, the Government of India take the position of the local Government.

B-2627. *The Chairman:* And Railways?—As a rule, yes.

B-2628. *Mr. Cliff:* So that as far as railways are concerned, you would be able to move if it were considered desirable?—Yes.

B-2629. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* As a Department or as the Government of India?—Always as the Government of India.

B-2630. *Mr. Cliff:* I am a little confused as to the distinction between the Department and the Government of India?—All work done and all orders issued by the Department are issued in the name of the Governor General in Council.

B-2631. You are the Department?—We are the Department issuing orders but they are the orders of the Governor General in Council.

B-2632. *Mr. Cliff:* Yesterday we had before us an officer from the printing works, and he said that wages were fixed with the sanction of the Government of India?—Yes.

B-2633. When we pressed that a little further we found that subject to consideration by the Finance Department you settle the wages?—No.

B-2634. Will you make that clear?—We deal with that question, but the orders issued are the orders of the Governor General in Council. The Department as a Department does not issue an order.

B-2635. Do you practically settle these wage rates?—We consider them and the whole examination is carried out in our Department, subject to the approval of the Finance Department.

B-2636. *The Chairman:* The actual executive act is in the name of the Governor General in Council?—Yes.

B-2637. *Mr. Cliff:* We were told yesterday that the wages were fixed first in relation to the cost of living and that your Department had very largely settled these rates. Can you tell us on what basis you proceed to settle the wages in your Department?—I cannot say now; I imagine that is fairly old history, is it not?

B-2638. I think some of these have been settled as lately as 1927?—We certainly examine them in connection with the cost of living and on the figures and facts as they are reported to us.

B-2639. As I understand from the Printing Department, you exercise the responsibility of rejecting their recommendations or modifying them?—Yes.

B-2640. I was trying to ascertain on what basis you do that?—We should consider on the facts and figures as they were presented to us, whether the recommendations of the Controller of Printing were supported by the facts and figures that he put up.

B-2641. Is there no settled basis on which you determine these things?—I am not quite sure that I know what you mean by a settled basis.

B-2642. First of all the Printing Department tells me you do it in relation to the cost of living?—That is one of the factors.

B-2643. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Is it in relation to the cost of living or in relation to the rise of the cost of living?—Well I take it that it is mainly cost of living.

B-2644. *Mr. Cliff*: I take it you have no satisfactory index of cost of living?—We may not have a satisfactory cost of living index, but we have figures which must be put up to us on these occasions showing how prices have risen, and these will be taken into consideration.

B-2645. Do you determine the rates for any scale that there may be in any particular grade?—Yes, I suppose so.

B-2646. I am wondering about the competency of the Department really to determine these wages?—I cannot say anything about the competency of the Department.

B-2647. If labour commissioners were desirable, they would have to be appointed by the provincial Governments?—Yes. Will you tell me what were the precise powers of the commissioners of labour that you had in mind?

B-2648. *Mr. Lall* says to me that there is nothing to prevent the Central Government passing legislation?—Yes.

B-2649. Would legislation to appoint a labour commissioner be desirable?—I want to know exactly what the powers would be and what powers you propose to give; it is a question whether it could be done by executive powers.

B-2650. There is a Commissioner appointed for the depressed classes?—Yes.

B-2651. Who acts really to serve depressed classes as I understand it?—That is only in Madras; there was no legislation there.

B-2652. There was no need for legislation?—I said there was no legislation.

B-2653. *The Chairman*: It was an administrative act?—Yes.

B-2654. *Mr. Cliff*: If commissioners were desirable to assist labour and to be an aid to labour, would you require Central legislation or could that be done administratively?—It would depend on the powers which you propose to give to them.

B-2655. How far could the powers go?—I am afraid I cannot say that.

B-2656. *Diwan Chawan Lall*: With regard to sickness insurance you said that no actuarial estimates have been made. In your memorandum there is some sort of an estimate which is not an actuarial estimate. The gentleman who writes those words contemplates that the Government of India working on a basis on which Japan works, would require about 90 lakhs if they had accepted the amendment moved by *Mr. Joshi*. Would there be much difficulty if a scheme like this were to be brought into force, costing, roughly, say a crore of rupees?—The first thing I should want to know is whether it would cost a crore of rupees.

B-2657. Supposing it did?—That I imagine is a matter for the local Government to decide, whether their revenues can stand it; I cannot give an answer to that.

B-2658. Supposing you were to centralize it, the Government of India I take it is quite capable of passing legislation with regard to sickness insurance?—Yes.

B-2659. And centralizing the whole subject?—We are not capable of doing that unless the Devolution Rules are changed.

B-2660. What is there in the Devolution Rules which would prevent the Government of India undertaking legislation with regard to sickness insurance applicable to the whole of India?—There is nothing to prevent them

undertaking legislation, but on the other hand when the cost of any such scheme would fall on local Government and local Governments in reply say that they are not in a position to meet the cost, it would be absurd to pass legislation which the local Government cannot give effect to.

B-2661. Is there anything to prevent the Government of India from making a contribution up to a crore of rupees towards this scheme?—The general rule is that central revenues shall not be spent on provincial subjects and provincial revenues shall not be spent on central subjects.

B-2662. Does that apply to the Road Board which has recently been set up. Is it not a fact that so far as the Road Board is concerned, central revenues are being spent for provincial purposes?—That point at the present moment is under process of discussion and some of the provincial Governments have objected.

B-2663. That is an objection in regard to administration. The point is, is it not a fact that the Government of India are not prevented by any Devolution Rule from spending the money which they receive from the excise on petrol for road development purposes in the provinces?—

*The Chairman:* We have been told Mr. Shillidy, that there has been a proposal with regard to roads, to divide expenditure between Central and Provincial Governments.—I have not the papers here, but I think in that particular matter some change was made.

B-2664. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* You may take it from me. I was a member of the Road Committee and also a member of the new committee. The position is as I am putting it. Central revenues are being applied and are intended to be applied to the provinces. Is there anything in the Devolution Rules preventing a contribution of a crore of rupees to be made to the provinces for the purpose?—I do not accept the analogy between the two. I am not fully acquainted with the Road Board cases at the present moment. I have an impression that some change was made in that regard. The general rule and the one which we have always followed is, with the division of provincial and central revenues, and with the division of provincial and central subjects, central revenues cannot be applied to provincial subjects, and provincial revenues to central subjects.

B-2665. *The Chairman:* Is not the position this? The Central Government could give a subsidy if they pleased in aid of certain provincial subjects.—No, it goes beyond that. It has been held that they ought not, in the spirit of the constitution, spend central revenues on provincial subjects.

B-2666. *Mr. Clow:* They cannot, on Transferred Subjects.—I am giving the general rule.

B-2667. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* I want to be perfectly clear about the position put to you by the chairman, and it is a very pertinent question. Is there anything to prevent the Government of India from making a contribution to the provincial Governments in the way of a subsidy?—I should say, yes.

B-2668. *The Chairman:* But by practice rather than by law?—The general rule is that it is contrary to the spirit of the constitution, in view of the division of central and provincial subjects, to allot funds from one to the other.

*The Chairman:* I think it is for us to consider whether the present system is right or not.

B-2669. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* In your memorandum, dealing with unemployment you say that "unemployment, as it is understood in the West, does not exist". What enquiries have been instituted in order to find out whether unemployment as understood in the West does or does not exist?—We did make enquiries about the establishment of unemployment agencies, and the general reports were as we have put it down here.

B-2670. The general reports were from the local Governments, I understand?—Yes.

B-2671. Have you any information as to whether the local Governments themselves instituted any enquiries?—They made enquiries and reported to us.

B-2672. What sort of enquiries?—They appointed enquiry committees, I understand, in the provinces.

B-2673. Have you read the Unemployment Committee Report of the Punjab?—I am afraid, not.

B-2674. Is it similar to the reports which other provinces have furnished?—I cannot say.

B-2675. Apart from this you have no information as to the existence or non-existence of unemployment in India?—No.

B-2676. In their despatch to the Secretary of State regarding unemployment, the Government of India say: "We have under consideration the desirability of creating regular public employment agencies in such cases." Do I take it that they did not proceed with this matter, because there happened to have been a series of reports in 1921 that unemployment did not exist, because there was an excess of supply over demand of industrial labour?—It was because we made these enquiries and received these replies that we did not go on.

B-2677. But you say further on in the same despatch: "We are undertaking an examination of the possibility of collecting further information regarding unemployment." Would it not have been the proper method, particularly after a resolution had been passed by the Legislative Assembly, to have set up a committee of enquiry to find out whether there did or did not exist unemployment in India?—That I think, is a matter of opinion.

B-2678. What further examination, apart from the reports you received from the local Governments, did you undertake, having made this promise in this statement of yours?—We have made further enquiries from the local Governments.

B-2679. Apart from further referring the matter to the local Governments, what further examination have you undertaken since 1921 in order to find out whether the situation has changed since then or not?

*The Chairman:* As far as the Central Government is concerned, enquiries consisted of writing round.

B-2680. *Diwan Chaman Lal:* In almost every page of your memorandum there is a statement about the migratory character of Indian labour. What enquiries have you instituted in order to find out whether the statement is or is not correct?—I do not think it was necessary to institute any enquiries.

B-2681. Is it a matter of pure intuition on the part of the Government of India?—No, not in the least. It is a matter of very close observation.

B-2682. What observation?—We find it in individual places and we find it generally.

B-2683. Is it a question of individual observation or of definite enquiries instituted by you?—In Delhi, in 1914-15, April, there were 22,000 labourers employed. In October, they sank to 6,000. They went to their fields. The other day we were told by a contractor that he had recruited 1,000 people at one time and 800 at another and taken them to the Punjab. They are constantly fluctuating and migrating.

B-2684. Have you seen the statement of the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, Mr. Abel, to the effect that 80 per cent. of skilled labourers in Delhi are permanent?—I have not seen it.

B-2685. Apart from these individual observations, observations which go back to 1914.....—No, we have charts which show the seasonal fluctuations.

B-2686. *Mr. Cliff:* Does that apply to Bombay?—Yes, it applies to Bombay too.

B-2687. I would like to see these charts—I have not the figures for Bombay, but speaking as a District Officer in Bombay it came to my

information that people are constantly coming from the districts to the mills in the off-seasons and returning for the harvest to their fields.

B-2688. *The Chairman*: Is that not common knowledge?—Diwan Chaman Lall will not admit it is. The question is as to the proportion; its existence is common knowledge. I understood that Diwan Chaman Lall denied the correctness of the statement that it was migratory.

B-2689. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: What I am driving at is this. Does the Government of India take this statement more or less on trust as it has taken the statement about absenteeism: "The only recent figures of absence from work are those given in the Bombay Labour Gazette for the textile mills in Bombay Presidency....." Do you not know that the Bombay Government memorandum says that these figures are incorrect? Yet you take them as being correct?—They may be incorrect in odd calculations, but these figures are worked out for very many years. Possibly the method of calculation in giving the average may have been wrong.

B-2690. The Bombay Government memorandum says: "As is pointed out in the section dealing with insurance, the monthly absenteeism statistics may not be strictly accurate owing to possible variations in the falling off of returns, because all mills do not follow a uniform practice with regard to marking absentees."—That was a matter of difference of opinion as to the correct method at which to arrive at statistical averages.

B-2691. *Col. Russell*: In your memorandum, dealing with industrial diseases you say that "little information is available about the prevalence of industrial diseases in India". Is there any source at present from which you could get reliable statistics of the incidence of disease and ill-health among workers?—I do not know of any.

B-2692. In the same connection you say that "the Government of India did not consider it necessary to establish a special medical service for the purpose, but they pointed out to Local Government the desirability of strengthening the medical services of the country in areas where many unhealthy industries are situated". Did the Local Governments take any action in this respect?—I could not say; I am not aware of any.

B-2693. Apart from the question of industrial diseases, there are such questions as the effect of fatigue and long hours and the result of introducing rest periods with regard to the efficiency of the worker. You have no department or individual who would investigate such questions?—We have none.

B-2694. Do you not think that it would be a good plan to institute some agency by which such information could be collected?—I am sorry I must go back again to the question of provincial and central subjects.

B-2695. Apart from it being provincial or central, do you yourself who have been associated with labour questions for some considerable time, think it would be a good idea to have some agency for the collection of these important matters?

*The Chairman*: Do you mean a central agency?

B-2696. *Col. Russell*: Either central or provincial?—I do not think I am free here to express what I personally think.

B-2697. In Great Britain, during the last fifteen years they have had a board called the Industrial Health Research Board for the investigation of such matters. Do you think that an institution similar to that board in India would be useful or not?—We shall be very glad if the Commission in the course of enquiries will go into this matter and let us have their recommendation on it, when, I can assure them, it will be dealt with carefully.

B-2698. You yourself are not prepared to express an opinion?—No, I am not free to express an opinion.

B-2699. *Miss Power*: With regard to the abolition of the Central Labour Bureau referred to in your memorandum, do you not think that there is great necessity for an All India Bureau for industrial research as well as for the collection of industrial statistics?—I am sorry I have to be obstinate.

I have to get back to the division. Development of industries including industrial research and technical education is a provincial transferred subject.

B-2700. Would that necessarily preclude a research section?—I am afraid it would.

B-2701. If it does so, without such machinery, what exists to enable the different provinces to learn by each other's experience in the industrial field; that is to say, to pool experience such as is done for the different Departments of Industry in America by the Federal Department of Labour?—I am not aware of any. There is none at present.

B-2702. Is not that a great lack, if the constitution is such that no machinery can be instituted?—That, I think, might be a defect in the constitution. But the Labour Commission might give us the benefit of their investigations and recommendations in this regard.

B-2703. *The Chairman*: On this point of the Labour Bureau which had a brief existence of three years, is there in existence any report of its activities during that period? It would be interesting to the Commission if we might have a statement of its initiation, its relation, its work during that period and its abolition.—The abolition was on the recommendation of the Inchope Committee. If you would like, I can let you have a note on the matter.

B-2704. *Miss Power*: In your memorandum you say that between 1921 and 1928 the number of registered factories has increased by 85 per cent. Apparently there has been nothing like a corresponding increase in the inspection staffs of the different provinces; and I am anxious to know whether the Central Government in pressing for increased inspection gives any guidance to the local Governments as to the standard of industrial inspection which it considers necessary?—Yes, it does under its powers of superintendence, direction and control.

B-2705. Exactly what sort of guidance does it give?—It considers whether in any particular province there is a lack of inspectors and suggests to the local Government that the number should be increased where they find it necessary.

B-2706. It simply says, "increase them", but does not actually set a standard of industrial inspection?—I am not aware of any hard and fast standard of the kind having been laid down.

B-2707. In your memorandum you say that "the number of women employed in factories in 1927 was 35 per cent. higher than in 1921". Later on you say: "In 1921 the Government of India drew the attention of local Governments to the desirability of appointing medical women as lady inspectors, but, so far, only one such appointment has been made." Has the Central Government taken any further steps since 1921, to bring this matter to the attention of local Governments in view of this big increase in the number of women employed?—I am not aware of any.

B-2708. Does the Central Government admit the distinction between medical and industrial inspection and the necessity for appointing women inspectors other than medical for the purely industrial side of inspection?—I should think there would be a natural distinction. I am not aware if it has insisted on any such distinction. I shall look up that particular point.

B-2709. In your memorandum dealing with carpet factories you say: "An enquiry has been addressed to the Government of the United Provinces regarding the conditions under which children are employed in the carpet factories situated within the province and the reply of the local Government is awaited...." Has any reply been received?—We have received replies, not official replies. We made enquiries and found that the Governments of the Punjab and the U. P. were of the opinion that it was not necessary to bring these carpet factories under the Factories Act.

B-2710. Were the conditions similar to those in Amritsar?—I cannot say, but I understand that children were employed in the United Provinces and in Amritsar.

B-2711. That brings me to the question of unregulated factories and work-shops. Is the Central Government making any enquiries as to the numbers employed in those of the larger places where no power is installed, with a view to considering the necessity of bringing them under the Factories Act?—I am not aware that any enquiries are being made.

B-2712. With regard to minimum wages what sort of investigation is meant by a "thorough enquiry"? Does that imply a circular letter to the local Governments, or does it imply a central investigation, or does it apply to the investigations of the Royal Commission?—I think you have hit it correctly there. If an investigation was started, I think we should write to local Governments. We would then see the amount of information we have got. If the information was not sufficient and if we considered it necessary to arrive at a more satisfactory solution, I have no doubt we would appoint a committee; but I cannot commit myself till I know what amount of information we shall get from local Governments on the subject.

B-2713. When requests are made by the Central Government for investigation by the Provinces, what steps are taken to see that Provincial Governments look all round the question and do not merely apply to employers and employers' associations; in fact that they include the workers' point of view?—When a local Government reports, it also sends up with its report the letters it has received from various associations, and we can see for ourselves from the letters that we have received both from employers' associations and labourers' associations, whether the conclusions of the local Government are such as to appeal to us.

B-2714. Suppose there are no associations of labourers?—I am afraid we cannot distrust the local Governments.

B-2715. Suppose there is no arrangement made by a local Government to try to get the point of view of the workers?—I can only speak for one local Government, the Government of Bombay, and I know that the Bombay Government invariably goes out of its way to try and find out the views of labourers.

B-2716. That is one province?—I cannot speak of other provinces. We cannot of course issue definite instructions distrusting local Governments to the extent of supposing that when we ask them to make full enquiries, they are only going to make one-sided enquiries. I think it is reasonable to believe that local Governments will exercise their responsibility wisely and impartially.

B-2717. *Mr. Joshi:* In your memorandum there is a reference made to an *interim* injunction issued against the branch of a registered trade union at Sholapur in spite of the passing of the Trade Unions Act. Has the Government of India taken any steps in this matter?—I am not quite sure to what *Mr. Joshi* refers. We could not take any action with regard to an *interim* injunction which was issued by a civil court. I think it is an unregistered trade union.

B-2718. My point is that they have defeated the object of the legislation by asking for an injunction saying that the union is not a registered union?—I think that is a legal question.

B-2719. Has the Government of India considered whether the law is defective in that respect?—No. That is assuming that the law is defective.

B-2720. Has the Government of India not considered the matter even after seeing that such a prosecution has taken place in spite of the law?—We could not any way consider the point until the prosecution, or the *interim* injunction or whatever it is, had been disposed of by the court.

B-2721. *The Chairman:* And that is not the case at present?—Not that I am aware of.

B-2722. *Mr. Joshi:* The object of the employers is not to get a conviction because their object is served by the *interim* injunction which may last for ten years.

*The Chairman:* Surely an *interim* injunction cannot last for ten years.



*Mr. Joshi:* The employers are not anxious to go on with the case because their purpose is served. However, I will leave the point at that.

B-2728. We were told at Lahore that the Government issued a circular to the Registrar of Trade Unions in Lahore stating that the unions of Government servants should not be registered. Is that a fact?—I am not aware that we issued any instructions.

B-2724. The statement was made by the Director of Industries, Punjab, who is the Registrar of Trade Unions there?—The whole question of the association of Government servants and the conditions under which they can form associations are at the present moment under the consideration of Government.

B-2725. My question was whether such a circular was issued?—No, not by the Government of India.

B-2726. *Diwan Chaman Lall:* Was it not issued by the Home Department?—When instructions were being issued on the subject I was in the Home Department, and I know that no such circular was issued.

B-2727. I can assure you that it has been issued?—The Home Department has issued no such instructions.

B-2728. *The Chairman:* Then the Registrar at Lahore was misinformed?—He may have been.

B-2729. *Mr. Joshi:* May I ask you, as your opinion, whether such instructions will not be against the very law itself because the decisions of the Registrar are subject to appeal to the High Court?—That is a matter of the interpretation of the law.

B-2730. You have given in your memorandum the activities which are permitted by the Act, but forbidden by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules. Take item (iii)—the maintenance of a member of a legislative body. Will you explain the reason why this should not be done by a union of Government servants?—I think it is on the whole desirable that Government servants should not as a rule be implicated in politics.

B-2731. When Government servants are given votes, they are certainly given the power to elect any one they like and even to pay for him?—No, not to pay for him.

B-2732. You think they should not elect a man and pay for him?—No.

B-2733. In spite of the fact that the law gives them the vote?—The maintenance of a member of a legislative body is a thing that is forbidden by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules.

B-2734. *The Chairman:* Following the question just raised, of the rules applicable to Government servants restraining them from taking part in certain political activities, which to some extent follows the English system, I notice a remark in your memorandum which I do not understand: "Pending the consideration of this difficult question. Government have relaxed the provision contained in the existing Rules for the recognition of associations consisting of its employees which requires them to register under the Act." Can you elucidate that sentence?—There are two sets of rules: one is the Government Servants' Conduct Rules, and the other is the Recognition Rules. In the Recognition Rules it is stated "In the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered." Legislation was passed, and when this question came up, of the conditions on which Government servants should be allowed to form associations, it required very considerable examination and, in order not to put these people in a wrong position, it was decided to relax this rule which said that in the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered.

B-2735. That is to say that associations of Government servants have a right to claim registration; at least the Government agrees to their registration, but they are still subject to the rules relating to the Government Servants' Conduct?—Under the rules, the individual servant should abide by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules.

B-2736. *Mr. Joshi:* Do you apply the same rules of Recognition to the industrial employees of the Government as well as to the other employees of the Government who receive pensions and are entitled to leave?—An inquiry at the present moment is going on as to the distinction that may be drawn between permanent salaried employees and what are called artisans, associations of Government employees.

B-2737. Is there any central department which looks after the welfare of the employees of the Government of India?—Do you refer to the centrally administered areas?

B-2738. I want to know which department is responsible for labour welfare in the central territories managed by the Government of India themselves?—The local administration is, in the first instance, responsible.

B-2739. And the Government of India is not?—Not in the first instance; but they are under our control.

B-2740. You do not look after the welfare of labour?—We do watch it.

B-2741. The administrations which are responsible for labour welfare in the territories managed by the Government of India directly have no legislatures to help them?—No.

B-2742. Is there any central department which looks after the welfare of the employees of the Government of India themselves?—I am not quite sure in what way you want it to be done. There are various departments and the department concerned will do that.

B-2743. But the Government of India as a whole does not concern itself about the welfare of the workers employed by themselves?—I am not quite sure what you mean by "the Government of India as a whole".

B-2744. *The Chairman:* Except in so far as your department exercises supervision and control?—The general question of welfare naturally comes to our Department and we consider the general lines and principles under which it is to be administered.

B-2745. *Mr. Joshi:* For instance, there are employees in Government railways, Ordnances and other Government factories. I want to know whether the Government of India have certain policies of labour welfare for their own employees, corresponding to the appointment of a labour member on the Railway Board?—No.

B-2746. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* There are territories which are directly administered by the Government of India. Do not the Chief Commissioners in charge of the administrations administer them in the same way as the head of a provincial government does?—Quite so.

B-2747. *Sir Alexander Murray:* Can they pass legislation?—No; they are subject to all-India legislation.

B-2748. *Mr. Joshi:* As regards the labour bureau which was abolished, I want to ask you whether such a bureau or such a machinery is not necessary for considering labour legislation?—I have already said that we should be very glad to have recommendations of the Labour Commission on this point.

B-2749. As regards the migratory character of the labour, has the Government of India considered whether it cannot be changed so long as the housing conditions are as they exist in Bombay and so long as there is no provision for old age?—I do not think the Government of India have to take up any special policy to change the migratory character of the labour.

B-2750. *The Chairman:* You have in your memorandum referred to the desirability of improving the position of migratory labour?—Yes, but not necessarily doing away with the character of it.

B-2751. *Mr. Joshi:* As regards Assam, you have under consideration a Bill dealing with recruitment. Does that Bill provide for repatriation of workers? If it does not, has the Government of India considered that repatriation should also form part of the Bill?—The Bill relates to recruit-

ment only and not, to the conditions of employment in the fields and tea gardens.

B-2752. *The Chairman*: Repatriation therefore is not considered part of recruitment?—Not of the worker who is already employed, but of the worker who goes for employment in the tea gardens.

B-2753. *Mr. Clow*: Does it contain provision for repatriation of recruits who go there?—This is the relevant section of the Bill: "Subject to any orders which the local Government (that is the Assam Government) may make in this behalf, the District Magistrate (or any other magistrate empowered by the local Government in this behalf) may, if he thinks fit, detain and send back to his native district or to the place of his recruitment, in spite of the fact whether this Act applies or not, any person found within the jurisdiction of the said magistrate, together with his dependants (if any), on the ground that that person was recruited for manual labour on the estate by any coercion, undue influence, fraud or misrepresentation, or of any irregularity in connection with his recruitment, or on the ground that that person is unfit for work on the estate."

B-2754. *The Chairman*: The actual repatriation after a period of service is a matter of good-will on the part of the employer?—The question will then come whether it is on the ground of irregularity or on the ground that that person is unfit for work on the estate.

B-2755. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: After the man works for some time, unless it is for any of the causes just now mentioned by you, the employer is not bound to repatriate him?—As I said, this Bill deals with recruitment. But if the District Magistrate finds that a man is unfit for work on the estate he may order for his repatriation.

B-2756. *The Chairman*: The Bill has no reference to the repatriation of a man after a period of satisfactory service?—No; this is a recruiting Bill. There is another section in the Bill to which I might draw the attention of the Commission; it is Clause 10 of the Bill; the Bill appears as Appendix I in the memorandum that we have submitted.

B-2757. Is that the existing law or the draft Bill?—It is the draft Bill.

B-2758. *Mr. Joshi*: Is there going to be separate legislation providing for inspection of plantations and regulating the sanitary and health conditions on plantations?—It is not under contemplation.

B-2759. How is that to be done in that case?—The Assam Government will have to do that.

B-2760. Is the Assam Government going to do that?—Not that I am aware of.

*Sir Alexander Murray*: They have an Act already.

*Mr. Joshi*: That Act applies to workers recruited under a certain Act; that Act is not applied to workers who are recruited under this Act.

*The Chairman*: That is one of the points we will look into.

*Sir Alexander Murray*: Clause 16 of the Bill empowers the local Government to frame rules to carry out various things, and I think inspection of tea gardens is included in that.

B-2761. *Mr. Birla*: As regards the question of housing, the difficulty so far as the employer is concerned has been twofold: one is about the land to which you have already replied to *Sir Alexander Murray* and the other is the question of money. Would you approve of a scheme under which the Government may advance loans to the employers to the extent of 50 per cent. at a reasonable rate of interest for building houses for their workers?—I do not think this question has been discussed by the Government of India; at least I have not seen any discussions and am not aware of any conclusions they arrived at; I am not aware that this subject has been discussed, but I would point out, harping back again, that this is a provincial subject and therefore the money should come from provincial governments.

B-2762. I am not concerned at present where the money should come from—whether from the provincial Government or from the Central Government. What I am trying to find out is whether such a scheme would be a feasible one?—That I think you could only tell after enquiry from local Governments. I do not think you can make it applicable to all places in India.

B-2763. For instance, if such a scheme was approved of by the Government of India, do you think the Government of India would be prepared to recommend the same to the provincial Governments?—I am sorry, I cannot answer that question.

B-2764. To what extent do you think the Trade Disputes Act has been useful? It has already been on the Statute Book for seven months?—I think it is rather early to express an opinion on a very important Act like that after only seven months' working.

B-2765. After this Act was passed how many strikes in all had we in different industrial centres?—We can let you have the figures if you like, but I cannot quote them straight off; I have not got that information.

B-2766. In how many cases was the Act utilized?—Only in the Bombay strike, as far as I know.

B-2767. *The Chairman:* It set up an enquiry?—Yes.

B-2768. Is there any case other than the Bombay strike?—I am not aware of any.

B-2769. *Mr. Birla:* You know there have been strikes at other centres; at one centre a strike has been in existence for the last five or six months; so far as I know an enquiry was demanded not only by the workers, but also by the Provincial Council and by the Legislative Assembly. Why in the face of such public pressure was not an enquiry set up? I am referring to the tin plate workers strike.—I cannot deal with any particular instances now straight off, but it is a matter for the local Government to decide whether the matter should be referred to a court of enquiry or not.

B-2770. *Mr. Joshi:* You have the power of supervision, direction and control?—The Act says the local Government may do so.

B-2771. *Mr. Birla:* That does not solve the difficulty as far as a layman is concerned; the strike is there; an enquiry has been demanded by the Provincial Council; by the workers and by the Legislative Assembly; and in spite of all that an enquiry has not been brought into existence?—Without looking at the papers and committing myself too far as to the actual facts, I should say it is a matter for the local Government to decide.

B-2772. *The Chairman:* Presumably the local Government in spite of what the Legislative Assembly said, decided in the negative?—I do not know; I presume so.

B-2773. *Mr. Birla:* Can you suggest any solution of such a difficulty if it should arise in the future? It is very easy for the Government of India to say it is a matter which concerns the local Government; but that does not help the situation. Is the law defective?—I do not think the law is at all defective. It gives the power to the local Government; it is for the local Government to decide; it may disagree with the representations of the Legislative Assembly.

B-2774. Is it in the power of the Central Government to make recommendations to the local Government in such circumstances?—It would be within our power to make recommendations.

B-2775. And do you mean to say that in spite of your recommendations the Provincial Government has refused to set up an enquiry?—I did not say we made recommendations.

B-2776. *The Chairman:* But evidently you are very chary about treading on the toes of local Governments, as happens in other countries?—We must be.

B-2777. Where you have given responsibility you destroy that responsibility if you are always interfering?—Exactly.

B-2778. *Mr. Birla*: I am trying to find a solution for future difficulties of that nature, and I am afraid Mr. Shillidy has not been able to suggest any solution for such a difficulty?—I could only suggest a solution which has received the approval of the Government of India.

B-2779. I think your Department is the only Department which can suggest a solution for such a difficulty?—I could only suggest solutions which have received the approval of the Government of India.

B-2780. *Mr. Clow*: I take it that when the Central Legislature has definitely entrusted certain responsibilities to the provincial Government, it would not be correct for the Government of India to issue directions?—It would not.

B-2781. Unless the Act contains the words "subject to the control of the Governor General in Council", as it does occasionally?—Yes.

B-2782. So that on this occasion it would not be a correct procedure for the Government of India to say "This responsibility which has been given you should be exercised in a particular fashion"?—It would not be correct.

B-2783. I understand both the local Governments and Central Legislature are competent to legislate on labour subjects?—Yes.

B-2784. In the case of the local Legislature sanction is required; is that the sanction of the Governor General or Governor General in Council.

*Mr. Cliff*: In the memorandum it says "Governor General".

*The Chairman*: Section 80A of the Act definitely says "Governor General". In the early part of your memorandum you say "with the previous sanction of the Governor General". That is right, is it not?—Yes.

B-2785. Then later on there are several references to the "Governor General in Council"?—Those are different things.

B-2786. Therefore there are two categories?—Yes, there is a distinct difference between the "Governor General" and the "Governor General in Council".

B-2787. *Mr. Clow*: With the exception of the Industrial Disputes Bill in Bombay, do you know of any occasion on which sanction was withheld to the introduction of a labour measure?—No.

B-2788. As regards a cost of living index number I think you suggested (1) that it was not competent for the Government of India to do it, and (2) that they abandoned the proposals because of the views of the Inchaape Committee?—I am afraid I do not know what happened; I can look it up and give you the details.

B-2789. Is Statistics a Central subject?—Yes.

B-2790. You publish or did publish statistics for some time as to prices?—Yes.

B-2791. And a wholesale index figure?—You must know; I do not.

B-2792. It would be perfectly competent for the Government of India to publish figures showing the cost of living of the working classes and to incur expenditure on that account?—I think it then at once becomes a question of what is the purpose of these statistics.

B-2793. *The Chairman*: Apparently there is some question as to whether it comes within your sphere?—Personally I have no doubt about it at all.

B-2794. *Mr. Clow*: The whole of Statistics is a Central subject?—Yes.

B-2795. And statistics published by the Central Government may be on a large number of provincial subjects?—They are sometimes, I think.

B-2796. For example, statistics as to factories?—We call these "returns" under the Act.

B-2797. I take it that the Labour Bureau during the period of its existence was mainly concerned with legislation?—Yes.

B-2798. And though it was abolished in name, efforts were made to carry on most of its work?—Yes, in the ordinary Department.

B-2799. You do publish statistics as to strikes?—Yes, quarterly.

B-2800. Do you regard that as falling outside the province of the Government of India?—No.

B-2801. But it is a provincial subject?—I do not think so; under our Factories Act we must do it.

B-2802. You publish statistics as to strikes in concerns which are not factories?—We may do so.

B-2803. I was putting it to you that the publication of certain central intelligence in this matter is not regarded as a function lying outside the functions of the Government of India.

*The Chairman:* General information of industrial importance covering all British India?—I am not willing to bind myself to any general statement.

B-2804. *Mr. Clow:* I am only asking because earlier you made some general statements?—I still maintain my previous statements.

B-2805. As regards superintendence, direction and control, I take it the general attitude is that whatever may be your view as to what a local Government is doing, you do not interfere unless the matter is one of substantial importance?—Yes.

B-2806. You have issued instructions from time to time relating to the inspection of factories?—Yes.

B-2807. In fact I think you suggested to one province that they must appoint a wholtime inspector?—Yes.

B-2808. You have also issued instructions regarding the granting of exemptions?—Yes; we have reviewed exemptions proposed to be given by local Governments from time to time.

B-2809. And issued general instructions?—I have not been long enough in the Department to have seen those, but I have seen cases where we have actually written to local Governments about the exemptions which they proposed to give under the Factories Act. In these cases the Act definitely specifies that exemptions are to be granted subject to the control of the Government of India.

B-2810. The Department of which you are the head is a Department subordinate to the Governor General in Council?—Yes.

B-2811. The Railway Board is in the same position?—Yes.

B-2812. If therefore it was desired to interfere between the Railway Board and the employees in a particular dispute, that could not be done by your Department, but could only be done by an authority superior to the Railway Board?—The Department as a Department does not issue orders; it issues orders as orders of the Governor General in Council. If therefore it desires to issue orders affecting any Department the matter must be referred to that Department and the views of that Department must be obtained. If an agreement cannot be obtained, the matter must go to the Governor General in Council who will issue orders which in fact control all Departments.

B-2813. The responsibility for the welfare of railway employees is a matter for the Governor General in Council and not for your Department?—Yes.

B-2814. *Mr. Cliff:* But if the Department initiated a movement to try to effect a settlement on the Railways, it would go to the Governor General in Council.

*Mr. Clow:* I think it would be outside their province to do so under the distribution of work made by the Governor General?—We certainly should not interfere in the matter of a railway strike under the Railway Board.

*The Chairman:* I take it the point is this that the Railway Board is parallel to the Department of Industries and Labour.

B-2815. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Is it under Commerce?—No, it is not actually under Commerce.

B-2816. *The Chairman*: Its relations are direct with the Governor General in Council?—The Railway Board is directly under the Member for Commerce; who is of course a Member of the Governor General's Council; the papers go direct from the Railway Board to the Member; there is no other Department intervening in those discussions, except so far, of course, as they might affect other Departments. If they affect any other Department the views of that Department must be obtained. But there is no other Department intervening between the Railway Board and the Member.

B-2817. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: In the first part of your memorandum you say that more than 70 per cent. of the adult male population derive their livelihood from the land. For many years I have heard that percentage stated. Has the Government of India any statistics showing the total population dependent upon agriculture; I mean in numbers?—Those figures have been obtained from our census statistics.

B-2818. Is there no information now available with you showing what has been the increase in population? If the population increased or decreased it would alter the percentage engaged in agriculture. I do not think this memorandum contains anything more than what was the position at the last census in 1921. My point is this: I propose to deal with unemployment; it is therefore essential that the extent of dependence upon agriculture by the population should be known, not in percentages, but in numbers, so that we may be able to judge what population the land can support by agriculture?—These figures can no doubt be got from the census statistics; I have no figures other than those.

B-2819. You will admit that if population increases by a few millions every decade, the percentage would be altered?—I think it decreased last time.

B-2820. The general impression is that the population of India is steadily increasing. If that was so, it would mean that the land would throw out of work the additional population and they would drift to other occupations?—I presume so.

B-2821. Therefore if other occupations are not available, there would be increased unemployment?—It would depend on the extent to which there has been intensive cultivation and how much more population the land would hold for the purposes of agriculture.

B-2822. *The Chairman*: Is not that dealt with in the Report of the Linlithgow Commission?—It may be.

B-2823. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: If occupation is required for more people in this land, it becomes very important to consider how to provide it in order to enable it to live. I now draw your attention to the statement in your memorandum: "The latter half of the 19th century, however, saw the rapid decline of the indigenous handicraft industry. It is not necessary here to examine the causes which produced this result, but the point which it is important to bear in mind is that this decay had set in before modern industrialism had been established to any appreciable extent, with the result that the population of the country was to an increasing extent thrown back on the land." Do you think one of the causes of the decay of these handicrafts was the development of the railway system and the import of cheaper goods carried to the local markets in competition with the hand-made goods produced there?—I am sorry, but I cannot answer that question straight away.

*The Chairman*: That is a large historical question.

B-2824. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: It is of material importance to the Labour Commission because what we wish to investigate is not only the conditions of labour but the question of unemployment and the causes which have led to that unemployment. It was because of these factors that industrialism by machinery became necessary. It did not occur till the latter half of the 19th century as you say; but subsequently as the old handicraft

occupations of the people gradually disappeared from these causes, people had to seek employment in other directions and to start manufacture by machinery in competition with goods which were being supplied to India from abroad at cheaper rates. Lower down you say: "Over 20,000,000 workers in industry, including cottage industries, mines and transport; railway mileage in excess of that in every country except the United States." I take it that your estimate of 20 million workers includes different industries, such as mines and transport. Have you separate figures as to manufacturing industries, mines and transport?—I understand these figures are derived from the Census Report.

B-2825. The Census Report is of 1921, but we are now in 1929. These are industrial statistics. Am I to take it that the Government of India have not kept themselves up to date in regard to these statistics of employment, but have depended simply on the census?—We have certain figures.

B-2826. In your memorandum you say: "The vast majority of the industrial labourers belong to the poorer classes of peasants who have been driven by adverse circumstances from the fields in their native villages to seek employment in a factory." Do you think increase of population has anything to do with these statistics?—Very probably it has some bearing. I do not know that it is due to population; I have not gone into the question of agricultural economics.

B-2827. Then I take it that you mean that these people are driven out from these villages to industrial occupation through want?—Yes.

B-2828. Through inadequacy of the means of livelihood?—Yes.

Then you say "The true explanation of the scarcity of labour is to be found chiefly in the unattractive conditions of employment and also partly in the conservatism of the labourer who is always reluctant to wrench himself away from his fixtures". What do you mean by "unattractive conditions of employment"?—Housing is I think one of the factors.

B-2829. That brings me to your reply to Mr. Joshi. You know as a matter of fact that the Bombay Government decided to supply this want and decided to build 50,000 one-room tenements to meet sanitary requirements for the housing of industrial labour in Bombay city. You further know that the Government of Bombay had to stop short after constructing 16,000 one-room tenements. You further know that a large portion, more than 50 per cent. of the 16,000 rooms remain unoccupied. Then how can it be said that housing is one of the causes of the unattractive conditions of labour? Here the Government of Bombay has, at public expense, provided sanitary accommodation for these people. They only built about 30 per cent. of the estimated requirements, but still more than 50 per cent. of that accommodation is not utilized by labour. Can you give me any explanation of that? Surely very attractive conditions of housing are present?—Attractive from our point of view but not necessarily from the labourer's point of view.

B-2830. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Supposing this Commission decided to recommend that certain all-India statistics should be prepared, would not the Governor General in Council through you issue a direction to the provinces to get certain statistics to enable it to prepare all-India statistics?—I cannot say straight away, but I think it would be something on those lines.

B-2831. Apparently you cannot force a province to collect statistics in the form you desire? Have you any control over the provinces on this question: if you are trying to get all-India statistics naturally all those statistics would have to be in the same form. The direction therefore to each province would be to get out these statistics in a certain definite form?—I do not think there would be any difficulty about that. Statistics is a Central subject.

B-2832. Then the Central Government is in a position to instruct the provinces to get statistical results for them so that they can make up all-



India statistics?—Subject to a closer examination by the experts of the constitutional position I should say "yes".

B-2833. I am now talking of statistics *qua* statistics. Will the Government of India be in a position to say: We want statistics as to cost of living in your province so as to make out an all-India average cost of living figure. Would that be considered as welfare and would the position be that you would not be allowed to ask for them?—I prefer not to say straight away. I think I should like to examine that question before I give my opinion.

B-2834. It seems that this is a matter which it is necessary for the Commission to know; I feel it would be very helpful if we are going to make recommendations to know the powers of the Government of India, because naturally we should only get all-India figures by having the provincial figures collated?—If the Commission would like to have a note on that subject I would have the question examined and put before you; I can get legal opinion on the point as to what the exact constitutional position would be in that respect. I am not willing to commit myself at the moment because these constitutional questions are sometimes very difficult.

B-2835. *The Chairman*: Perhaps you will see that we have a note on that?—We did consider at one stage the question of a Central Statistical Bureau. I do not want to commit myself to any statement, but we did find a considerable amount of opposition from local Governments on the point. For example, one local Government wrote and said: "As for the centralisation of statistics this Government are not in a position to agree to hand over to the Central Government the control of compilations for the publication of which they have to find the funds and for which they are answerable to the Council."

B-2836. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: There might be costs?—Yes. I am not prepared to say straight away how these particular costs would be met, whether from the Local Government or the Central Government.

B-2837. Will you therefore consider whether, if the Central Government decides to defray these costs, that would be in accordance with the Devolution Rules on the point?—Yes. Another Local Government said: "If the Committee's proposals"—that was the Indian Economic Enquiry Committee—"involves the exercise by the Central Bureau of any measure of control over the collection and compilation of provincial statistics, then the Local Government must take strong exception to it. The functions of the Central Bureau should, in the opinion of the Local Government, be advisory only, and the provincial Administrative Department should be free to accept or reject the advice tendered." It is not a simple question; it is a very thorny one.

B-2838. *The Chairman*: That puts very clearly the difficulties you find yourself in?—Yes, it is a very difficult question, and that is why I am diffident in expressing any opinion at all.

B-2839. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: If you are correct in your last opinion it would not be possible for you to bring the census figures up to date?—I do not know that that follows.

B-2840. Could not the local Government take the view that it need not follow your advice and supply you with census figures under the headings of agricultural workers?—Surely "Census" is a Central Government subject.

B-2841. You might get powers as to statistics?—I cannot say; it is a very difficult question. I am merely quoting these two Governments to show how difficult the question is and how impossible it is for me to give anything in the way of a definite final opinion at the present moment.

B-2842. In the note which you are going to supply it would be most useful to the Commission if you would consider the point of view of the Commission considering the advisability of getting statistics for All-India?—You want information on two points: whether we can get statistics for All-India and the method of getting them, and the question of cost.

B-2843. Yes, how we could recommend getting these statistics which could either in the first instance be All-India or eventually collected and collated

so as to become All-India. Would it be necessary to have legislation or an alteration of Devolution Rules or what?—You want to know whether under the constitution as it stands the Central Government could give orders, in detail if necessary, for the collection of statistics in a particular form, and in addition to that, how the burden of the cost of preparing these statistics would have to be borne?

*Sir Victor Sassoon:* That is right.

B-2844. *The Chairman:* In your memorandum, you say that in 1922 there were "over 20,000,000 workers in industries, including cottage industries, mines and transport". Could you bring that up-to-date and also sub-divide that under the various heads—textile, jute, coal mines, and so on—so that we might know the number of workers in various industries?—I will make a note of that and do my best.

Q. Pushing a little further the point with regard to migratory labour, I take it from what you have said, that your department views the migratory system as it exists as not an evil?—No, I did not say that. It has not been decided that it is not an evil. I understood Mr. Joshi to ask me whether we were going to take steps to do away with the migratory system. I replied that it has not been decided that the migratory character of Indian labour was a necessary evil.

B-2845. No doubt we shall report our views on that; but assuming that it is not an evil, and a thing which has grown out of Indian life and custom, a good thing in itself, there still remains the problem of how far it can be improved. You suggest in your memorandum that "Education and organization are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries....." What had you in mind when you used the word "organization"?—I could not say; I was not the author of the memorandum.

B-2846. There are two possibilities: one is trade union organization which obviously might be considered to be in an elementary stage and capable of improvement; and the other, what I may describe as stabilization of migratory labour, by which the migratory worker could be encouraged by employers to go again and again to the same work, so that they might accumulate certain amount of skill and thereby be of more value to their employers?—It may be so. But I have not examined that point, and I am not aware that Government have come to any definite and final decision that it would be good thing to introduce stabilization.

B-2847. *Sir Alexander Murray:* Mr. Clow mentioned the Trade Disputes Bill which the Government of Bombay had drafted. They were told to wait by the Government of India, who then proceeded to put through an All-India Trade Disputes Bill.—Yes.

B-2848. What were the special circumstances that caused the Government of India to do that in this case? If they could do that with the Trade Disputes Bill, why cannot they do that with all factory legislation?—They can do it with all factory legislation. They do not always consider it necessary or desirable. Local Governments also can legislate for themselves.

B-2849. Quite true, but you told us that "Trade Disputes" was a transferred subject?—No.

B-2850. A provincial subject?—Yes.

B-2851. Here the Trade Disputes Bill was drafted in Bombay and the Government of India said: "Wait, and we will make an All-India Bill." What is there to prevent them dealing with All-India labour questions in the same way as they dealt with the Trade Disputes Bill?—Anything which comes under this heading is subject to legislation by the Indian Legislature: "factories, settlement of labour disputes, electricity, boilers, welfare of labour including provident fund, industrial insurance, general health, accidents and housing".

B-2852. When you tell us that that is a provincial matter, as a matter of fact, the Government of India can initiate legislation dealing with welfare?—Yes, we can legislate.

B-2853. That gives me an entirely different impression from what I had two hours ago. I was under the impression that all these things were provincial subjects not capable of being dealt with on your initiative by the Central Government?—We can legislate. There are two separate things; one is administration and the other is legislation.

B-2854. Is there anything to prevent your putting through any Act dealing with welfare work and various other things of that description throughout the whole of India?—But we must carry Local Governments with us so far as we can.

B-2855. You say you can put through legislation for the whole of India, but money may be necessary to administer it?—Yes.

B-2856. That is where the local Governments come in?—Yes.

B-2857. Have you no means of devoting a certain amount to encourage local Governments to come in with you?—That is how it has always been expounded to me on authority: that we cannot spend money from central revenues on provincial subjects.

B-2858. Although you can legislate for the spending of money by the Provincial Governments?—Yes.

B-2859. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Can you legislate so as to cause the provincial Governments to spend their money?—Yes. For instance, we might provide in the Factories Act for certain staff of factory inspectors, or something of the kind.

B-2860. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You told us that factory inspection under the Factories Act was not a central subject in any way. But in your memorandum you say: "When the revision of the Indian Factories Act was under consideration, the Government of India impressed on local Governments the necessity of strengthening the whole-time inspecting staff in the provinces..." Presumably you have the power to make that recommendation?—We have the power of superintendence, direction and control.

B-2861. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: It is difficult to know where it ends?—I quite agree it is a very wide term. You will find in the Standing Orders of the Legislative Assembly and the Provincial Councils that any provincial subject is primarily the concern of the local Government.

B-2862. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In your memorandum you say: "A complaint which is often repeated in the factory reports is the inadequacy of the fines inflicted by magistrates for deliberate violations of the factory law". Is it not within your province to send a circular to anybody suggesting that adequate fines must be imposed?—I think it would be most improper.

B-2863. There is a difference between instructing a factory inspector and instructing a magistrate?—Yes, we cannot possibly instruct a magistrate as to what he should do in the exercise of his magisterial duties.

B-2864. One is instructing an executive officer and the other a judicial officer; there is a clear difference between the two?—Yes.

B-2865. *Mr. Cliff*: Are those functions sometimes combined in one person?—Yes. But I do not know of a factory inspector who is a magistrate.

B-2866. You could not tell a magistrate as you can an executive officer, to do something?—I am quite certain, if we did anything of the kind the High Courts would take exception to that.

B-2867. You cannot tell the executive side to do something which would react on the judicial side?—No, certainly not.

B-2868. Why is it then that you have retained "Mines" with the Central Government and not transferred it to provincial Governments?—I am afraid I cannot go back to the original division of subjects.

B-2869. But "Mines" is a big industry like the "Factories". In the one case the Central Government transfers them to the local Governments;

in the other case it retains them with themselves.—I do not remember exactly what reasons were given for this division. If you are very anxious to know why "Mines" were placed in the one and "Factories" in the other, I will look it up. I can only get it from the definite reports and decisions. I do not remember exactly why this distinction was made.

B-2870. *Sir Alexander Murray*: There is a movement among the people to transfer everything to Provincial Governments. If you do that, how would you deal with International Conventions in a case of that description?—If the Provinces were entirely autonomous with regard to Industries, I do not know where they would rank. It is a very difficult constitutional question, on which I should not wish to give an opinion. I imagine constitutional lawyers would argue many an hour upon that particular point.

B-2871. I notice that in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report when the Reforms were introduced, they were very strongly of the opinion that if the resources of the country were to be developed, Government must take action. They proceeded to say that the Government must shoulder its responsibility for the industrial development of the country. Is that the Government of India or the Provincial Governments?—I could not say without looking at the sections.

B-2872. *Mr. Ahmed*: If registered unions correspond with your department do you generally send them a reply?—I think we do.

B-2873. Do you reply to their resolutions and recommendations when they are sent to you?—Yes, we do.

B-2874. Generally speaking, if unions put their house in order and satisfy the rules of recognition, you have no objection to recognizing them?—I presume we recognize ordinary trade unions if they are registered.

B-2875. I am referring to industrial workers' unions generally?—Do you mean ordinary private labour?—Yes. We generally recognize them.

B-2876. *Mr. Rouse*, the contractors recruit labour and thereby make a profit. Instead of that if you recruit them direct and pay them direct the contractor will not make a profit. Is that not advisable from the point of view of labour?—It may be advisable from the point of view of labour, but I am not sure.

B-2877. Are you in favour of such a system?—No, I am not in favour of employing labour direct.

B-2878. Will not the labourers get more wages if they are recruited direct instead of through contractors who make a profit?—That is a matter of opinion.

B-2879. Is it not an admitted fact that the contractor makes a profit out of his recruitment?—He makes a profit out of his contract.

B-2880. Therefore if you paid the labourers direct instead of through contractors, they would get more?—(Mr. Shillidy) The contractor takes up a piece of work and he has to employ labour.

B-2881. And out of that he makes a profit?—Out of the price he charges for the work, not out of the labour.

B-2882. What protection do you secure to the labourer to see that he is not swindled by the contractor?—(Mr. Rouse) I have no legal or official standing to give any such protection. But whenever I hear a complaint that a contractor is not paying his labour properly, I make it a point to enquire into the matter. If it happens that the contractor's bill has not been paid and that he has not sufficient money to pay his men, I direct my Executive Engineer to put the contractor in funds and see that he pays his men. Beyond doing this unofficially I have no legal or official powers.

B-2883. Do you see that the contractor supplies pure drinking water to the men under him?—The supply of pure drinking water is under the control of the Health Officer. The labourers get the same pure water supply that we drink here.

B-2884. But you are only confining yourself to the city of Delhi?—I am working in Delhi; I carry on also a certain amount of Central Government works in Dehra Dun and in the United Provinces.

B-2885. So that you are answering questions from the point of view of these three places?—Yes.

B-2886. Not on behalf of the Central Government or Public Works Department?—No.

B-2887. Is there any provision made in the contracts for the supply of pure drinking water to the workmen?—No, there is none.

B-2888. Are you in favour of inserting a provision to that effect?—(Mr. Shillidy) I could not express an opinion as to whether such a condition should be inserted or not. It is a provincial transferred and not a provincial reserved subject.

B-2889. *The Chairman:* If the P. W. D. is carrying out a piece of work in the United Provinces, have you no right to stipulate with the contractor as to the conditions of labour?—I do not say we have no right. I say we cannot express an opinion here as to whether such should or should not be done in the provinces, because in this matter they are not under our control. (Mr. Rouse) The work I do in the United Provinces is work done for the Central Government. It is under my control and I am referring to that and not to works done by provincial Governments in their control.

B-2890. I am speaking only of works done by your department whether here in Delhi or in another province. You told us that at present there was no clause in your contract dealing with supply of pure drinking water to the workers?—Yes.

B-2891. Mr. Ahmed is asking you whether you would be in favour of the insertion of such a clause?—I think the contract might be made more specific.

B-2892. Your opinion would be the same with regard to housing and conservancy arrangements?—Yes, but that is my personal opinion. In this connection I should like you to refer to paragraph 277 of the P. W. D. Code which lays down sanitary rules on extensive works. As regards the works I do in the United Provinces, they are mostly small works, possibly up to three or four lakhs of rupees. They are all in towns where you have the necessary accommodation. You get your labourers who live in the towns. It is only in such big works like the building of the new capital at Delhi, and the building of the Forest Research Institute and the Railway Transportation School at Dehra Dun, where you have to employ a very large mass of labour, at a site which is far away from the towns, and where the accommodation already existing is not sufficient for all, that you have to establish camps for the temporary accommodation of labour. But the works in the United Provinces to which I have just referred are not big enough to necessitate the establishment of temporary camps.

B-2893. Would you approve of a provision being made saying that where more than 200 workers are to be employed for a longer period than six months, necessitating importation of labour for which there is not adequate housing accommodation within a reasonable distance, suitable arrangements must be made to provide temporary accommodation for the workers?—Yes, I would.

B-2894. *Mr. Ahmed:* You would not allow child labour below 12 years of age on your works? In England, I think it is not allowed below 14?—I would get that information for you.

B-2895. I say this, because yesterday we went out to inspect and we found two boys one 10 years of age and the other 11 years. One boy was emaciated, weak and appeared to have had nothing to eat. He had no clothing and was perfectly naked, a skeleton, getting 2 annas per day. There was another boy 10 years old, getting 1 anna 6 pies per day. One comes to this place coming from the Western Hostel on the way to the station. They are building the new printing press. It is only about 500 yards from here, I may tell you.

*The Chairman:* Is that building being done by your department?—Yes. The work is being done by our department through a contractor.

B-2896. *Mr. Ahmed:* The boy 10 years old is getting 1 anna 6 pies per day and the boy 11 years old is getting 2 annas a day.—I shall make an enquiry into that; such cases have never been brought to my notice.

B-2897. *The Chairman:* I suppose you have a rule as to the age at which labour can be employed.—In factories. This is not a factory. There is no legislation that I know of with regard to labour on this sort of building.

B-2898. Then the only question that arises is as to whether you could make conditions with your contractor or not as to the conditions of labour?—We could put it in the contract.

B-2899. *Mr. Cliff:* Have you any effective control over the hours of labour worked at the site of the new printing press?—No.

B-2900. Do you know anything about the hours of labour at all?—I know as a matter of practice that you will not find much work going on in the cold weather before 8 o'clock in the morning, and the works begin to shut down about 5 o'clock.

B-2901. We were told that there was no interval for meals in winter, and there is an interval in summer?—In practice there are many intervals. I dare say it is true that officially there is no interval in the winter, but in the summer there certainly is. You will not see anyone at work then for probably about two hours in the middle of the day.

B-2902. Is there any suitable housing accommodation available for the labour working on that site?—That labour nearly all lives in the camps which you saw, which are less than a mile from there.

B-2903. Some of the people do not live in those camps?—There are some who live in the city.

B-2904. Is this frequent leaving of work, and many intervals, caused by the fact that labour is so cheap that the proprietor allows it?—I should say it is simply because you cannot control it entirely. They are controlled more by their output than by the hours of work.

B-2905. You remember there was a man approached us who was entitled to workmen's compensation but the contractor had gone bankrupt. Did you ascertain, with regard to that question, as to whether a man having workmen's compensation was entitled to have first claim on the assets?—I have been making such enquiries as I could, but I have not yet got a definite answer. I am asking the Government Pleader whether he can give me an opinion.

*The Chairman:* The Act provides that here in India the first claim on the assets, if there are any, is the workman's compensation.

B-2906. *Mr. Cliff:* Has the Department ever taken a wage census in any industries?—(Mr. Shillidy) No.

B-2907. Do you exercise any control over ticket-of-leave labour or convict labour in prisons?—No.

B-2908. Do you take any account of their conditions at all?—We have not so far.

B-2909. You refer to absenteeism. Would you give me your definition of absenteeism?—I am afraid I am not prepared to give a definition at the moment.

B-2910. *The Chairman:* Perhaps you can answer the question to this extent. Does "absenteeism" as used in your memorandum, and as used generally in India, cover absence from sickness; and does it also cover return to the village?—It covers all kinds of absence.

B-2911. *Mr. Cliff:* Does it cover absence through lock-outs or strikes?—No, I do not think it covers that.

*Sir Victor Sassoon:* It does not as far as the textile mills in Bombay are concerned.

B-2912. *Mr. Cliff*: Does it cover those people who go back to their villages for 2 or 3 months?—No.

B-2913. *The Chairman*: I thought you told me it did?—No, it does not cover those people. It refers to the absence of people who are working in the factory at the time.

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: In the case of textile mills, when a workman goes home he provides someone to take his place, and then he does not get marked as absent.

*Mr. Cliff*: So that if a worker provides a substitute when he goes home for a month or a week from the mills he is not regarded as absent?

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: No.

B-2914. *Mr. Cliff*: But absenteeism does include sickness?—So far as I know.

B-2915. If the Central Government desired to initiate social legislation, and that cost money, could the Central Government make financial provision from its own revenue in order to meet that cost?—Not if it is a provincial subject.

B-2916. That is to say, a provincial reserved subject?—A provincial subject.

B-2917. Of any character?—In regard to a provincial subject, if it is social legislation, the Central Government cannot make financial provision, but it can impose legislation?

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: Only if it is reserved.

*The Witness*: Yes, if it is reserved.

B-2918. *Mr. Cliff*: Therefore the Central Government can initiate legislation and impose on the provincial Governments, according to the Constitution, certain financial liabilities?—It can, but it does not do so without consulting local Governments.

B-2919. In regard to work which is undertaken by the Central Government, in which they engage contractors, does your Department ever make any provision in the contract for the protection of the labour employed on those contracts?—(Mr. Rouse) No.

B-2920. That can be taken for all over India as far as Central Government is concerned?—Yes.

B-2921. The Trade Disputes Act says that if any trade dispute exists or is apprehended between an employer and any of his workmen, the local Government, or where the employer is the head of a Department under the control of the Governor-General in Council, or is a Railway Company, the Governor-General in Council may by order in writing do certain things, and have a Court of Enquiry or a Board of Conciliation. Assume a dispute in one of the Departments which goes direct to the Governor-General (and you are in a Department, as I understand, which goes direct to the Governor-General), who initiates the movement for effecting the steps which are provided under this particular clause?—(Mr. Shillidy): I do not think it would necessarily mean that it would always be one and the same person. It may be an application from one of the parties, or we might do it on our own initiative possibly if we saw a dispute was proceeding and we thought it necessary to bring it to a head.

B-2922. If both parties apply then it says there "shall be". You said this morning in the case of disputes on the railways, your Department would not move. It seems to me under this clause that you can move, and I am wondering where the drive comes from in order to get any attention paid to a dispute that has either actually occurred or is apprehended?—I do not know how you can read from this that it would be our Department who would deal with it.

B-2923. I am wondering whose business it is. The reason I ask you is that you are the Department of Industries and Labour. It would be the Ministry of Labour in England who would commence to move. I am wondering whether your Department would really initiate any steps?—They could.

B-2924. But would you?—If we received an application we could, yes.

B-2925. *The Chairman*: That is to say, the Minister at the head of your Department would be the person who would advise the Governor-General in Council. That is the position?—Yes.

B-2926. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Is not the position this that in the case of Railways the Railway Board or the Member in charge takes the place of the employer?—Yes.

B-2927. So if he agrees and the other agrees it goes through automatically. But supposing he does not agree and the men ask for it, would it be the Department of Industries and Labour who would take the position of the Government?—We would issue the orders of the Governor-General in Council.

B-2928. In that way you would initiate it?—Yes.

B-2929. *Mr. Cliff*: The Fawcett Committee say that unclaimed wages should be paid. Is legislation necessary to secure that payment?—I am sorry I cannot give an answer on that. It would be a matter of an ordinary civil contract between labour and its employer.

B-2930. I understand at the moment that there are certain rules in operation in these factories whereby the worker forfeits his right to the unclaimed wages; but the Fawcett Committee recommended that they should be paid in any event. Am I right in saying that with that rule there, legislation would be necessary?—I do not know of any legislation whereby we have the power to make the employer and the worker enter into a contract.

B-2931. That is the rule in the factory. Would it require legislation to upset that rule? Will that rule stand in the civil court?—It seems to me it would. It depends on the nature of the contract and the agreement between the two parties.

B-2932. The Fawcett Committee Report dealt with that. I am wondering whether your Department considered that question and whether legislation was contemplated?—So far we have not.

B-2933. *Divan Chaman Lall*: Mr. Shillidy, in your memorandum you have made certain statements on the strength of the report of three Committees, the Indian Industrial Commission, the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22, and the Indian Coal Committee, 1925, in which certain allegations are made against the worker regarding drink and increase in wages leading to greater idleness and so on. Can you tell me whether a single labour organization gave evidence before the Indian Industrial Commission?—I am afraid I cannot answer that question.

B-2934. Can you tell me whether it is not a fact that the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee themselves stated that they did not examine a single worker in Assam, believing in the testimony of their own eyes rather than the testimony of any witnesses, who could come before them to give evidence?—If they have stated so, I am prepared to accept it.

B-2935. Can you tell me whether it is true that the Indian Coal Committee never examined a single workmen's representative?—I do not know; I can only say by referring to the proceedings of that Committee.

B-2936. In your memorandum you say that the question of a compulsory scheme of maternity benefits is premature. Why do you say it is premature?—Such enquiries as have been made seem to show that a compulsory scheme which meant contributions from the workers would meet with very considerable opposition from the workers themselves.

B-2937. What do you mean by "compulsory"?—Compulsory and contributory.

B-2938. What is the opinion of the Government of India in regard to a scheme like the one which is introduced in Bombay?—It came up for the Governor General's approval and there was no objection raised at all.

B-2939. Could you tell me why it was that the Government of India opposed Mr. Joshi's Maternity Bill?—I will have to look up the speeches.



B-2940. Then I will leave that question. Could you tell me something about the correspondence that has passed between the Indian States and Lord Birkenhead when he was Secretary of State for India in regard to bringing the Indian States on to line with British India in the matter of factory legislation?—I am afraid I cannot give you any information on that.

B-2941. If it is not confidential, could you make the correspondence available to us?—I could not possibly undertake to produce it.

B-2942. Could you tell me who could produce it?—I will make enquiries as to whether I can produce it or not.

B-2943. Then one question about the Trade Disputes Act. Are you aware when questions were put to you by Mr. Birla as to how you would get over the difficulty that has arisen at Golmuri, of a suggestion that was made while the Trade Disputes Bill was being discussed, that the right should be given to either party to demand a court of enquiry or a board of conciliation?—It may have been so.

B-2944. Are you aware that it was the Government who opposed that suggestion and insisted upon both parties coming with a joint demand?—I was not in the Department at that time and I cannot say.

B-2945. Would this have materially solved the difficulty that has arisen at Golmuri—an amendment of the Trade Disputes Act on those lines?—I cannot say. I should have to get the facts of the Golmuri case before I could express an opinion on that.

*The Chairman:* You are aware of the discussions which have been going on in England on this particular point—that it would really detract from the collective bargaining between parties if it were possible for one or other party to be always saying "Well, I will have recourse either to conciliation or arbitration".

B-2946. *Colonel Russell:* I raised the question this morning of the collection of statistics by some organisations, such as the Industrial Health Research Board, and I would like you to refer to the Devolution Rule under Schedule I on page 209 of the Government of India Act. No. 33 says that the Central Government retains control over central agencies, institutions for research, etc., or for the promotion of special studies. It seems to me that under that section the Central Government has complete power to institute boards such as the Industrial and Health Research Board?—I understand you were referring almost entirely to industrial research. If I may refer you to Part 2 of Provincial Subjects, you will find "Development of industries, including industrial research and technical education".

B-2947. But that is subject to Devolution Rule 33?—No. 33 is not a Devolution Rule. No. 33 is No. 33 in the list of Central subjects and No. 25 is No. 25 in the list of Provincial subjects.

B-2948. But under 26 it says: "Subject to legislation by the Indian Legislature"?—26, yes; but not No. 25.

B-2949. Under this section the Central Government has no power to form such a body as the Industrial Health Research Board although it says distinctly here "for the promotion of special studies"?—It would be a very difficult matter to know whether any single proposal of that kind would fall under No. 33, or under No. 25 of the Provincial subjects. You would have to explain what precise duties were going to be allotted to your Industrial Research Board.

B-2950. Similar duties to those carried out by the Industrial Research Board in England?—I am afraid I do not know what those are.

B-2951. *Mr. Clow:* Diwan Chaman Lal suggested that it might solve the difficulty present to his mind if any employee or group of employees could have a court of enquiry or a conciliation board on application. Do you not think that would give rise to an impossible position if Government were compelled to appoint a court for every group of employees who alleged a dispute with their employers?

*Diwan Chaman Lall*: It does not say "group"; it says "majority".

*The Witness*: I think we should have a great many courts of enquiry going on.

B-2952. *Mr. Clow*: As regards consultation with local Governments, has not your Department on many occasions expressly asked local Governments to consult the associations both of employees and employers?—That is always the rule. They always do ask local Governments to consult both sides.

B-2953. In practice, do you think the local Governments do what they can to consult both sides?—Judging by the letters and reports that we get there is always a strong attempt made. We get a large volume of labour opinion, and I know that in the local Government of Bombay there was a large list drawn up of unions and associations which had to be consulted on all matters relating to labour. I cannot say what the practice is in different Governments. I think if one looks at the replies which are received from Governments on any questions which have been referred to them, one will find that there are a great many replies coming from labour associations.

B-2954. What is the ordinary procedure in labour legislation? After a start has been made by a suggestion in the Assembly or on the initiative of the Department, what happens then?—We examine it, and consider whether we can put before a local Government certain general principles, on which we ask for their criticisms. When we get their replies we go on to a further detailed consideration in order to see whether we can draw up a Bill or not at that stage. It is possible that we may be in a position to draw up a Bill at that stage and introduce it. On the other hand it is quite possible that we may bring in certain details which are mentioned by one Government and which have apparently not come to the consideration of other Governments. This may mean administrative measures, or it may mean matters of finance. If we are going to adopt those, and they mean any expenditure, or any difficulties in administration, it is quite obvious that we must get the opinions of local Governments generally on those points before we proceed to the definite drafting of a detail Bill. In some of these respects local Governments have at times been rather critical of our action in proceeding with legislation, or in proceeding with the drafting of Bills or proposals which subject them to financial expenditure or to difficulties in administration, when they have not been consulted before hand. Once we have got to the stage of introducing a Bill into the House, it is not possible definitely to say whether we shall always move for circulation or go on. It will depend on what has happened up to that date as to whether we move for circulation. It very often happens that the House itself prefers that the Bill should be circulated, and we may have to yield to that. It is not possible to say definitely whether Government will, as a general rule, move to proceed to the first, second and third readings, or to a reference to a Select Committee, or will agree to a motion for circulation. It will depend on what the developments up to that stage have been and whether we consider the Bill, as drafted, is sufficiently well known to local Governments and that we have been fully apprised of their opinions to permit us to go on without further consultation.

B-2955. It is possible for the Government of India to legislate in respect of all provincial subjects—for the Province of Delhi, for example?—Yes.

B-2956. *Sir Ibrahim Bahimtoola*: Several questions have been put in regard to the Trade Disputes Bill. That is a piece of central legislation relative to Provincial subjects. Is it the position of the Government of India that once the Trade Disputes Act is passed it will be administered by Provincial Governments and that they will have nothing to do with it thereafter?—Where the Legislative Assembly has definitely put a duty upon the local Government, and upon the local Government alone, that duty can be performed only by the local Government.

B-2957. My question is the operation of that central legislation, the Trade Disputes Act being in charge of local Governments. Is it your posi-

tion that once that piece of legislation has passed through the central Legislature the Government of India has nothing further to do with it?—No.

B-2958. Then what is your position? Would you interest yourself further in it?—We might.

B-2959. Would you consider that you have a right to interfere, or interest yourself, in the manner in which that Act was being worked?—Yes.

B-2960. Take the case of the Bombay strike. You know that the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee of Enquiry. That Committee made a report and, apart from the relations between the work-people and the employers, certain aspects have been brought to the notice of the Government of Bombay as the result of that enquiry. The report was submitted several months ago. The public are not aware of any action having been taken by the Government of Bombay in connection with that Report. Would it be one of the duties and functions of central Government to ask the Provincial Government why they have taken no action with regard to it?—We could do it, but I do not know that you could call it one of our functions.

B-2961. You have the power to do so? Interpellations in the Legislative Assembly would be relevant on the subject?—I am not quite sure about that, because the rule runs "Matters which are primarily the concern of the Local Government."

B-2962. But this is an Act passed by the central Government and the central Legislature?—Labour disputes are primarily the concern of the local Government."

B-2963. That is to say, then, that there is no authority which could influence the Government of India to interest themselves?—I do not definitely say no, for the simple reason that if a question of this kind is put it has to be decided whether it does relate to a matter which is primarily the concern of the Governor General in Council.

B-2964. *The Chairman*: The President would have to decide that point in the Assembly?—Yes.

B-2965. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: Apart from that, can you suggest any way by which any representative member of the public can bring the matter officially to the notice of the Government of India?—I do not like to give an opinion definitely one way or the other. It would depend on each particular question. I do not think I can commit myself to a general statement. Some of the questions might well be within the limits, and other questions might well be ruled out.

B-2966. In your memorandum about recruitment at the mill-gate it is stated "The employer does not recruit himself the men required for his establishment, but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor, and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money-lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear therefore that education and organization are the only means by which the Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who, like harpies, are ever ready to prey on them". That is a very fine sentiment, but I should like to ask whether it is not the actual financial condition and needs of the people wanting employment which lends itself to this state of things. I will put it in another way. You say that this man is acting as a contractor and is also acting as money-lender. Could it be, as we have been told in other places, that this man gets labour by advancing money to the labourers, and thus gets complete control over the earnings of those labourers?—That sometimes happens, I understand.

B-2967. Only sometimes? We are told it is frequently the case. If that is so, how could education and organization cure that evil, arising as it does out of the immediate want of the man seeking employment?—I think, quite easily. It would be the normal way.

B-2968. Will you explain what you mean by education? Perhaps it will take a long time. What form of "organization" did you contemplate when you used that word?—Organization of unions.

B-2969. Do you mean a union of men who have not been in any employment till then?—Any union.

B-2970. Unions of people who have had no employment whatsoever?—No, I did not mean that at all.

B-2971. To my mind this is a very serious problem which this Commission has to investigate. Large number of people do not find sufficient means of livelihood through agriculture in their villages. They are anxious to engage themselves to do hard work elsewhere. They cannot do it because of these middlemen. Their want is so great that they cannot wait. They go and borrow money from these middlemen. Thereafter they are completely at their mercy.—I think unions or friendly societies could solve this problem.

B-2972. *The Chairman*: I suggested to you a labour officer engaging labour for a firm and responsible only to the head of the firm?—I have heard that that is working in one or two places.

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: Are we now dealing with labour employed in towns? I thought we were dealing with labour in up-country parts.

*Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: I am dealing with people driven by want to industrial towns.

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: Are you talking of them before they arrive and get employed in industrial towns?

*Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: They arrive and seek employment. But before they get employment they fall into the clutches of these middlemen. I do not refer to people who go out to the village to recruit.

*The Chairman*: That is undoubtedly one of the most important points? I think the sentence is perfectly clear.

B-2973. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: What has been done with this important question of unemployment after the following resolution was passed by the Legislative Assembly:

“ This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a Committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general, and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means; and that the said Committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible.”

Why did not the Government accept the resolution and give effect to it?—It was because Government thought that no useful purpose would be served by appointing a committee. Moreover what was required was an All-India Committee; and if we took any such action we should be trenching on the domain of the provinces.

B-2974. Have the Government of India given any consideration to this problem?—Yes, they have.

B-2975. Have they examined the various suggestions contained in the resolution in order to find an effective remedy for this evil? Have they come to any definite or tentative conclusions in regard to each one of these suggestions?—I have said already that if we appointed an All-India Committee we should be trenching on provincial subjects.

B-2976. But has the Labour Department of the Government of India which admits the existence of the evil, examined the suggestions contained in the resolution; has it come to any definite or tentative conclusion on each one of those suggestions?—We have referred the matter to local Governments, who themselves have appointed committees.

B-2977. Only in one case?—No.

B-2978. Do I take it that the net result is that nothing is done?—It is best to ask local Governments. We sent the matter down to the local Governments as the matter lay within their province. Four Provincial Governments have appointed Committees, and if the Commission wants to know what has been done, it would be best to ask local Governments themselves.

B-2979. And the Government of India does not know whether anything has been done?—We know that some of the recommendations have been followed by local Governments. But as this is a matter more or less concerning the conduct of local Governments, I think it would be better to get an account of their proceedings from the local Governments themselves.

B-2979. *The Chairman:* Mr. Rouse, Has your department any reasons against direct employment of labour without the intermediary contractor? Has it ever been considered?—There is nothing against it in the codes. We can employ labour direct, but it is a matter of practice to give the work on contract. It is a very difficult matter and would require a large amount of experienced staff to employ labour direct. We tried direct labour in building the Western Hostel in Delhi, the reason being that we thought that the contractor's rates were extremely high. It was my predecessor who tried that. And from the point of view of expense the results were disastrous.

B-2980. Was this the reason: that apart from the contractors, there was a scarcity of men with experience in handling this kind of labour?—The contractors have men under them who are accustomed to do this work, but the Government have not.

B-2981. Is the Western Hostel the only experiment which has been made?—That is the only large one. Besides that we do occasionally employ direct labour on small works. We have a considerable amount of permanent labour engaged on maintenance.

B-2982. Is that direct?—Yes, that is direct.

(The witnesses withdrew.)

### Dr. RUTH YOUNG of the Countess of Dufferin's Fund.

B-2983. *The Chairman:* Dr. Young, you speak in connection with the Countess of Dufferin's Fund?—Yes.

B-2984. Exactly which office do you hold?—I am personal assistant to the Secretary.

B-2985. Will you in the first instance give us a little history of the Fund and its purpose?—The Fund was founded by the Countess of Dufferin when Lord Dufferin was Viceroy. She wanted to see more medical aid given to women in India by medical women. At that time there were very few medical women in India. She raised a fund for that purpose, the income from which is still used in our office. After a few years there was a good deal of dissatisfaction in connection with the working of the Fund, because medical women thought that their status was not sufficiently good and high. After that some medical women wanted a service to be founded and run by the Central Government. But that was not conceded and the Government now gives a grant of Rs. 3½ lakhs to be administered by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund Council, instead of running it themselves. In addition, in our office there are two other funds which were founded by successive Viceroys' wives; one, the Lady Chelmsford League, founded by Lady Chelmsford to look after child welfare work, and the other founded by Lady Curzon for promoting the work of training indigenous midwives—*dais*—in India. The Office where I am working administers all these funds.

B-2986. *The Chairman:* Are all these All-India funds?—Yes, they are.

B-2987. Administered from what centre?—From Delhi and Simla.

B-2988. *Col. Russell:* In her memorandum, dealing with infant mortality, Dr. Scott says that "the figures for infant mortality in industrial areas compare unfavourably with those in other towns and in rural areas." Thereby implying that the death rate is higher among industrial workers than among the general population? Is it not a fact that infant mortality is very high throughout the whole of India? Have you any information to support the implication of Dr. Scott?—We can only go on the figures published in the annual reports.

B-2989. In the annual reports there is no differentiation made between infant mortality amongst industrial workers and among the general population?—I admit that. But the inference is that as infant mortality in industrial towns is very high, the cause is industry. However I am afraid I cannot make a definite statement about it. And that is the very reason we give for an enquiry into the question of infant mortality.

B-2990. Dr. Scott rather makes an implication that there is higher death rate amongst children of industrial workers than among the general population?—Yes.

B-3000. Have you any figures to support that view?—Only the figures that we get for urban areas as compared with the figures for rural areas.

B-3001. Dr. Scott says: "Investigation on this point is urgently required." What kind of investigation do you desire?—I would like to see investigation in selected places, both rural and urban, undertaken by medical women with people like nurses and health visitors working under them for a definite period of time. That would at any rate give us some facts to go on.

B-3002. You consider that such an investigation is "a *sine qua non* for the formation of proper child welfare schemes." Surely, it is already universally admitted that proper child welfare schemes are essential. Do you mean to suggest that until such an investigation is carried out, child welfare schemes should not be properly developed?—I do not suggest that. If I did, I would not be working where I am, I am at present working at the development of child welfare schemes. What is meant there is that until we know what are the real causes of infant mortality, we cannot tackle them in the proper way.

B-3003. With regard to unregistered births referred to in your memorandum do you think that sanitary inspectors would be able to investigate and register them?—Yes, I think they would, to a certain extent; but I think women workers would be able to do it more effectively in North India.

B-3004. How could health visitors check the causes of death?—I have guarded myself by saying, "to a certain extent"; because I quite admit that they would not be able to pronounce what the actual cause of death was. At any rate they would get a better idea than either the parent or the sweeprass of the House who at present reports the death.

B-3005. In her memorandum Dr. Scott says that there are no women medical officers employed in the Public Health Department. Do you think that such women are available in India?—I do not think they are available in large numbers at present. I think, if the demand is made for their services, they would become available.

B-3006. Where would they come from?—I think they would come from both Great Britain and from India.

B-3007. Should they be wholly Indian?—Not necessarily.

B-3008. Do you not think that Indian women will be more kindly received among the women workers than English ladies?—It depends on the previous experience and the gifts of the European woman. The fact that we are working shows that that is possible.

B-3009. In what directions would you use their services in public health?—Their services could be used for developing child welfare work, controlling maternity services and if possible for helping women industrial workers.

B-3010. In her memorandum she says: "These suggestions, which could well form the basis of schemes at the present day, have hardly been acted upon and no first class medical women have been asked for, for this work." What does Dr. Scott mean by "first class medical women"?—I think she means, women belonging to the cadre of the Women's Medical Service.

B-3011. Are there any second class medical women?—No, we have only one cadre, no second cadre.

B-3012. I presume Dr. Scott suggests that some second class medical women are working in this field?—Medical women are working in some industrial areas in Bombay and Nagpur.

B-3013. But they are not first class?—They may have excellent qualifications, but they do not belong to the Women's Medical Service.

B-3014. Dr. Scott suggests that crèches should be increased. Have you any experience in working crèches?—I am sorry, that is not the intention. I disapprove of crèches.

B-3015. The Commission has been more than once told that these crèches have proved unsatisfactory?—I wholly agree with that view. The intention of the paragraph in the memorandum is simply to show that some provision is made, not that we approve of the provision.

B-3016. The Chairman: In what respect do you consider a crèche undesirable?—It is undesirable, because it means getting labour cheap on the part of the employers.

B-3017. Would you prefer the exclusion of married women?—The married women with children.

B-3018. Assuming the continuance of married women with children in these works, do you think that the crèche is worse than taking the child into the actual factory?—Perhaps not. But I can assure you that I do not think that leaving children under a tree in the fresh air is any worse than taking them into a crèche.

B-3019. Sir Victor Sassoon: But you do not get fresh air under trees in Bombay?—No, I was thinking of a place like this.

B-3020. *Col. Russell*: But the babies should be looked after by some women who have got certain qualifications for looking after children?—I do not think many of them are very well run.

B-3021. I quite agree. But that is no reason why they should not be well run?—I do not believe in the principle of crèches. These women ought to be looking after their own children.

B-3022. It is stated in the memorandum that difficulty has been experienced in securing suitable medical women. Would not the same difficulty arise in the case of health visitors as in the case of medical women?—It arose in the case of health visitors, certainly.

B-3023. Can you tell us why?—The reason is this: there are very few women available to take up professional work of any kind. Of those that do take up and reach the matriculation stage, the majority prefer to enter the medical profession or the teaching profession; because they consider that these are more honourable occupations and also more profitable financially.

B-3024. Would you not anticipate the same difficulty with regard to recruitment of medical women?—No.

B-3025. I have been told that in the Punjab there has been difficulty both in recruiting medical women and recruiting public health visitors.—I think the number of medical women is increasing faster than the number of health visitors.

B-3026. In her memorandum Dr. Scott speaks of "a complete scheme of medical women with health visitors and midwives working under their control....." and so on. Does she suggest that these medical women should form a separate unit independent of the Public Health Department or should they be working under the man at the head of the Medical cadre?—They would form part of the present Public Health Department. I do not think you can have two heads in the province.

B-3027. Can you explain what Dr. Scott means when she says in her memorandum that "the earning power of all professional women in India is greater than that of men, so that their work is relatively expensive"?—Because it is a fact. If you enquire into the salaries, you will find that the salary of a B.A., B.T. woman teacher is higher than that of a B.A., B.T. man teacher.

B-3028. What about medical women?—In the case of sub-assistant surgeons, on the whole their earnings are more than those of men.

B-3029. Even according to your argument you would find more difficulty in recruiting women sub-assistant surgeons for extension of public health work than recruiting men sub-assistant surgeons.—Yes.

B-3030. That is because they would be able to make a larger income out of private practice?—Yes, they are able to make more.

B-3031. *The Chairman*: In their case the demand exceeds the supply.—Yes, it is so in the case of medical women.

B-3032. *Col. Russell*: With regard to the sex ratio in industrial areas, the number of women per 1,000 males in Calcutta and Suburbs is 500, Bombay 524 and in Delhi 672. Do you agree with the importance attached to this question in the Government of India's memorandum?—Yes, I would.

B-3033. Have you any actual experience of the evils alleged to be associated with disparity in the numbers of the sexes in industrial areas?—I have no personal experience because I have not worked in Calcutta or Bombay.

B-3034. Dr. Scott says that if the sex ratio were made more level no one can doubt that both these factors would help to stabilize labour. Have you got anything more to say in support of that statement?—I think it is a statement supported by common-sense.

B-3035. Is there a larger amount of venereal disease amongst female industrial workers than among the general female population?—I cannot quote any figures to support that.

B-3036. What is your impression?—My impression is that it is greater



B-3037. There are no actual figures to support it?—No.

B-3038. Because these figures which are mentioned so often would be a direct proof of irregular family life?—Yes.

B-3039. But you still maintain that these evils do exist?—It is a general notion that the amount of venereal disease in places like Calcutta and Bombay is larger than in rural areas.

B-3040. And you would support the statement that that increase of venereal disease was due to the disparity in sex ratio?—Yes, I would.

B-3041. What importance do you attach to maternity benefit schemes? Are such schemes so important as to be dealt with by the Central Government or by the provinces and/or by the employers? Which would you prefer?—As a general principle one would prefer it to be done by legislation, but I think it would be administratively very difficult for the Central Government to undertake legislation on this question.

B-3042. You prefer it to be done by the provinces?—I think that would be more feasible.

B-3043. This question has been raised before the Commission already. Do you think if maternity benefit schemes were introduced they would lead to the discharge by employers of women workers and their replacement by boys for instance?—I think that is a thing that could only be proved by working the schemes; I think it is a possible result.

B-3044. Do you think that would be a natural attitude taken up by the employers?—Yes, I do.

B-3045. Would it be of advantage to appoint women factory inspectors? By that I mean both medical and lay inspectors, especially as you say that women take very little advantage of the provisions made by mill and factory authorities for medical health?—Yes, it would.

B-3046. If you were increasing the staff of factory inspectors, would you appoint female inspectors?—Yes.

B-3047. Can you tell us anything of the conditions of women workers in unregulated workshops?—I know very little about it personally.

B-3048. Does the health level, that is the physique and general appearance, of the female industrial worker, in your experience, indicate that the average wage is sufficient to maintain the worker in health and efficiency?—That is a very complicated question because it is bound up with the question of family wage, not merely individual wage.

B-3049. Arising out of your answer, "Wise dieting is not necessarily more expensive than unwise dieting",—it should be possible to secure a balanced diet at a price not larger than is paid for an unbalanced diet?—I doubt it.

B-3050. You will be surprised to hear that that is a quotation from a paper read by Mr. McCarrison three days ago?—I bow to his authority.

B-3051. *Miss Power*: In 1921 the Government of India drew the attention of the local Governments to the desirability of appointing a medical woman as factory inspector. Does your Association think it wise that the functions of a factory inspector and those of a medical officer should be combined, or do they feel that the work of medical attendance and that of industrial inspection are entirely separate and require a different type of training?—I do not think they have made any pronouncement on this subject, but I myself feel that they require different training.

B-3052. You do not feel that the appointment of medical women to the factory inspection service disposes of the question of industrial inspection as regards women and children?—I should not think so. At any rate if they were to be used in that way they would need to have some special training.

B-3053. You said in answer to Col. Russell that if the demand were made, suitable women would be forthcoming for new branches of medical and social work. We are sometimes told, in both written and spoken evidence, that it is doubtful if women would be able to cope with such work as that of factory inspection. Is it your opinion that such women would be forthcoming if the

demand were made for suitable women for both types, that is, women industrial inspectors and women medical officers in the industrial field?—Yes, I think that they would be forthcoming; I do not say there would be a rush into these professions in a year or two years, but I think that there would be a steady increase in the number if the posts were opened.

B-3054. Would you suggest that if a demand was made for women in this work it should be an Indian Women service?—Do you mean a service of Indian women only?

B-3055. Yes—Not necessarily.

B-3056. You would have both European and Indian?—Yes.

B-3057. You were asked a question in connection with unregulated workshops. We have come up several times against the question of the child who is rejected by the certifying surgeon as medically unfit for factory labour. Under present conditions there is nothing to prevent that child from going into the worst types of industrial employment in unregulated workshops or on construction work and so on?—Yes.

B-3058. Has your Association any views as to the necessity for bringing such places under industrial regulation?—It has not any formulated views that have appeared in print, but it would certainly support the demand for regulating them.

B-3059. We are also told very frequently in both written and spoken evidence that women industrial workers are less ready to avail themselves of the medical facilities provided than in the case of men. Is it the experience of your Association that this is entirely a question as to whether these facilities are available to women through the medium of men or women doctors?—I think almost entirely.

B-3060. Do you think that were these facilities available through women doctors they would be used by the women as extensively as they are in the case of men?—At any rate they would be used as extensively as they are used by women in an ordinary town where there is a Women's hospital, and that I suppose is almost as much as men in an ordinary town.

B-3061. Col. Russell was asking you about the sex ratio. Has your Association had any views as to how far this disturbance is due to the recruitment of the industrial worker from agricultural sources and how far it is due to the conditions under which the worker when recruited is obliged to live, making it impossible for him to settle down into a stabilized industrial unit?—I should say certainly the latter because other things being equal there is no reason why women should not want to come if the housing conditions and so on were suitable.

B-3062. You think if the social conditions of the worker when he first comes to the town to seek industrial work were better, he would bring his family with him and settle down and become a permanent industrial unit?—They would certainly bring them in much larger proportion than they do at present.

B-3063. *Mrs. Chatterjee*: You say that medical women in India have repeatedly pressed for an inquiry into the causes of infantile mortality. What are the reasons which have delayed the holding of such an inquiry?—Lack of money. No grant has ever been made towards it. When the request was first made—I think it was in 1919—it was for quite a modest sum—a few thousand rupees—and it was rejected by the then Education Member who was reported to have said that it did not matter if a few more children died.

B-3064. Then I understand also that you are opposed to a woman who has a baby working. Do you know what the average wage of an unskilled labourer in industry is? Take for instance Delhi: Are you aware that the average wage of an unskilled labourer is As. 10?—Yes.

B-3065. What do you think is more essential, that the baby should be looked after or that they should be sufficiently fed?—I made the statement

that women should look after the babies as a matter of principle. I did not then enter into the question whether the man was getting a living wage or not, but I do feel that in industrial areas the fact that women go to work makes it possible for the employers to pay lower wages and the man has no chance of earning a wage which would support the whole family. It is not that I think women do not need to work; I know that they do need to work and I admit that it must ordinarily be more necessary for them to work than stay at home and look after the child; but as a general principle I think it is wrong.

B-3066. But taking things as they exist to-day, do you not think that crèches are necessary?—Yes, they may be but I always object to this sort of thing which is a kind of red herring making people think that children are being looked after very nicely and everything is very nice and indefinitely postponing the proper state of affairs.

B-3067. *The Chairman*: I think you have experience of Indian life, both in villages and in industrial areas?—When I first came to India I worked in a town in the Punjab having about 50,000 inhabitants and I visited villages from there in connection with medical work. Then I have been in Delhi since; I have visited industrial areas in connection with medical work.

B-3068. Then you have some experience of what is called the migratory labourer, that is to say, the labourer who preserves his attachment to his village and his land; he comes into the city to work for certain periods, returning at harvest time and so on?—I know about it, but I have not had much personal experience of it.

B-3069. Taking that system as it exists on the one hand and the other system of a permanently settled industrial labour living round the factory, do you consider that the Indian system has virtues which would commend its maintenance, or would you prefer to see the factory labourer separated from the land?—I do not feel I am quite in a position to answer. From the point of view of the capitalists I suppose they would prefer the labourer to be always there.

B-3070. But I am not looking at it from that point of view; I am looking at it from the point of view of the nation?—I do not feel I have a right to give an opinion.

B-3071. But supposing the custom persists you would think that anything that could be done to stabilize in the sense of helping and directing the flow of labour and making it acquire skill by repeated returns to the same place of work would be an addition to the national efficiency?—Yes, certainly.

B-3072. And that in itself would assist schemes of welfare work because the ebb and flow instead of being haphazard would at least have some guidance and some motive for stabilization?—Yes, I think that is the case.

B-3073. *Mr. Cliff*: I see that the Government of India when faced with the Draft Convention for sickness insurance made enquiries of local Governments and other bodies. Can you tell me whether they made an inquiry of your Association in respect of sickness insurance in 1927?—No; I am sure they did not.

B-3074. In 1919 the Draft Convention for maternity benefits was before them and they made similar enquiries?—Enquiries were made then.

B-3075. Did you put in a report then?—I do not know if we went to the length of a formal report, but there were conversations of which we have got files and reports in our office.

B-3076. I was just concerned to see whether the Government really enquire of Associations like yours in connection with sickness schemes, health and so on?—They certainly did about maternity benefit I know, but I am practically certain that they did not about sickness benefits.

B-3077. Have you had any close personal observation of the diet of women and children?—Yes, fairly close.

B-3078. Can you tell the Commission whether it is a satisfactory diet from a physiological point of view as our Medical Assessor puts it?—You mean the labour classes?

I am speaking at the moment of the industrial population?—No, I think it is very unsatisfactory on the whole.

B-3079. Is it insufficient?—It is probably not so much a case of insufficiency as of wrong balance as Col. Russell says.

*Colonel Russell:* Now you admit what you did not admit before.

B-3080. *Mr. Cliff:* In your view it is not insufficiency but a wrong balance?—Yes. I do not mean to contradict Col. Russell, but if you correct the balance you do not necessarily get the same amount of things for the same price because a diet like milk is much more expensive than, say, rice.

B-3081. In your opinion is it necessary for women and children to have milk?—Yes, at any rate for children.

B-3082. I am told that on the wages they earn they cannot buy milk even if it were available?—No, they cannot.

B-3083. Then is their diet insufficient?—Children's diet certainly is.

B-3084. The question is: Is the woman's diet insufficient?—I think the woman's diet is often insufficient too. I think milk is the lacking factor.

B-3085. Is the diet sufficiently varied to be appetizing?—It would not be appetizing to us.

B-3086. I mean to the Indian women and children. I have looked at it and wondered, and I am asking your opinion?—It can be quite appetizing if it is properly cooked. But if it is *roti*, that is, bread made of unleavened flour, with a little *dal* or perhaps not even that, I do not think it is very appetizing; but of course hunger makes them eat it.

B-3087. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* Could you say whether the diet of the woman industrial worker in Delhi differs largely from that of the woman worker in rural districts?—I do not think that it differs a great deal, but in the rural districts the women have a chance of getting a certain amount of green stuff which is not easy to get in the towns.

B-3088. Would the women in the rural districts get better diet from the point of view of quantity than she would in Delhi?—No, I do not think she will get more in quantity, but probably she will get a better quality.

B-3089. It is really a question of difference in their diet. They differ in that in the rural districts they would get more green food?—They have more chance of getting green food because at certain times of the year they can eat unripe gram and sugarcane.

B-3090. *Mr. Clow:* And there is more chance of getting milk?—Yes, because they can keep cows, goats or buffaloes.

B-3091. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* Would you say from your observation that the women in rural districts looked healthier than in industrial districts?—I think that requires investigation also.

B-3092. I am not asking you to say anything that you do not know yourself. From your personal experience you can speak because you have visited villages?—The women mill workers in Delhi, I do not think, are specially unhealthy, but I have never compared them scientifically with the women in villages.

B-3093. Without comparing them scientifically; what is your general impression? From looking at them would you say that the women here are better off than in the rural areas?—Not better off.

B-3094. About the same?—Yes.

B-3095. You would not say that those in the rural districts obviously looked a great deal healthier and of better physique than the women here?—

think the Punjabee woman would be, but I do not think the ones near Delhi are. I am trying to compare the woman industrial worker with the rural worker.

B-3096. *Mr. Cliff*: Would you compare the area of 50,000 inhabitants in the Punjab where you worked with the villages to which you went?—I think the Punjab women of the villages are better physically than the town-dwellers. But the country surrounding Delhi is very poverty stricken; it is a very poor area.

B-3097. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: It really comes to this: in the Punjab you find that women in the rural districts are better than in the district of 50,000 inhabitants in which you were working?—I think so.

B-3098. You would not consider that the women in the rural districts round Delhi were better off than the women engaged in industrial pursuits in Delhi?—No.

(The witness withdrew and the Commission adjourned.)

# DELHI

## THIRTEENTH MEETING

Thursday, 7th November, 1929.

PRESENT :

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).

<p>The Rt. Hon. V.S. SRINIVASA SASTRI, P.C.</p> <p>Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.</p> <p>Sir IBRAHIM RAHIMTOOLA, Kt., K.C.S.I., C.I.E.</p> <p>Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt., C.B.E.</p> <p>Mr. A. G. Clow, C.I.E., I.C.S.</p>	<p>Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.</p> <p>Mr. G. D. BIRLA, M.L.A.</p> <p>Mr. JOHN CLIFF.</p> <p>Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.</p> <p>DIWAN CHAMAN LALL, M.L.A.</p> <p>MISS B. M. LE POER POWER.</p>
<p>Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E., I.M.S. (<i>Medical Assessor</i>).</p> <p>Mrs. J. C. CHATTERJEE (<i>Lady Assessor</i>).</p> <p>Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S.      }</p> <p>Mr. A. DIBDIN.            } (<i>Joint Secretaries</i>.)</p>	

**Lt. GENERAL Sir EDWIN H. de V. ATKINSON, K.C.B., K.B.E.,  
C.M.G., C.I.E., Master-General of the Ordnance in India.**

B-3099. *The Chairman* : Will you tell us, in the first place, the position you hold, how long you have held it and what Departments are under your control?—Previous to holding my present appointment I was 3 years Engineer-in-Chief of the Military Engineer Services. Before the war I was Principal of the Thomason Engineering College for 12 years. In that appointment I had a great deal to do with the training of Indians in the engineering line, and a great deal to do with labour in various ways. Six years ago there were three principal Staff Officers to the Commander-in-Chief: the Chief of the General Staff, the Quartermaster General and the Adjutant General. It was found that certain services, such as the ordnance, were inadequately represented to the Commander-in-Chief, and it was decided to create a fourth principal Staff Officer. He was called the Master General of Supply; he corresponds to the fourth principal Staff Officer in England who is called the Master General of Ordnance. My duties as Master General of Supply were to take over the purchase, manufacture and provision of everything for the Army from ghee to 6-ins. guns; that includes clothing, saddlery, harness and everything the army uses. For this purpose we have 9 Factories in India, as we have not got general manufacturers running in India in the same way, as you are well aware, as they have in the United Kingdom. We manufacture everything we possibly can in India. My principle has been that we will manufacture in our own factories nothing that can be got otherwise from Indian sources of supply, but these articles must of course, be up to our standard. Further, I made it one of my guiding principles that we should endeavour to foster Indian industries whenever we could, not only from the point of view of the Government of India or the good of India, but from the point of view of the Army, because in the event of war the less we have to bring overseas and the more we can get from indigenous supplies in this country, the more efficient and self-supporting will the Army in India be. After

holding my post for four years, I was given an extension of two years, and that extension is now coming to an end. In the meantime, two years ago, the home authorities began considering the re-allocation of duties between the various staff officers. I may tell you that as far as possible we try in India to follow the home organization, because in the event of having to fight side by side, it makes very much for efficiency if we are organized on the same lines. The home authorities finally decided to transfer the whole of the ordnance services as to retail supply, or what we call the Services of the Director of Ordnance, who is in charge of arsenals, from the Quartermaster General to the Master General of Ordnance at home. We undertook to follow the home organization as far as local conditions would allow, and last June the orders came out to make the change and so last June I took over the arsenals. The Quartermaster General up to that time had made what was called "provision"; that is to say, he calculated from the stocks he held in arsenals and from the wants of the troops, what quantities of various articles he required. I had to provide the goods at "Priced Vocabulary" rates, I handed them over to the Quartermaster General and he stored them in his arsenals and issued them to troops. I now carry out these duties.

In the factories which I have controlled for 6 years I have apprenticeship schemes, welfare schemes, labour bureaux, trade testing, co-operative stores, co-operative societies and so on. The arsenals have few of these schemes, but I would advocate introducing them by degrees when I think they will increase efficiency and welfare. You must also remember that in the factories I deal with a large number of skilled workmen. The arsenals deal chiefly with unskilled workmen; except in their repair shops which require skilled workmen.

B-3100. We have had submitted to us five statements, but we have no consolidated memorandum from you with regard to the points with which we are concerned, that is to say, industrial labour under your control. Would it be possible for you to give us a consolidated memorandum covering the whole of the work that is under your control so far as it is relevant to our enquiry?—Certainly, if you will tell me the lines on which you want information. I have seen some of the statements submitted; they are very detailed and technical, and the conditions vary in different places very much.

B-3101. *Sir Alexander Murray*: I think the General might expedite the delivery of these other statements to us and in addition give some remarks on the whole of them giving reasons for the differences.—The Calcutta statements were to be sent to you on some future date when you will be approaching Calcutta. The difficulty for me will be to consolidate all these statements in time. Two or three years ago I got out what I called a note on vocational training in the ordnance factories, which dealt with all my suggestions. It is not so much for workmen as for my different forms of apprenticeship and education. It shows how I was training Indians to hold the various posts of chargemen, foremen, assistant works manager and so on, and my proposals for sending people to England. It gives my own ideas of how it ought to be done.

B-3102. *The Chairman*: That would be useful. Have you anything similar which sums up your experience with regard to joint councils?—Joint councils have practically been started this year. I could give you our experience so far. It has taken some time to form the Whitley councils; but they are formed for my factories. We have a main Whitley council for all the factories and a subsidiary council for each factory. These latter refer their questions to the main council, not for decision, but for putting them forward in the manner they wish. I could give you the details as to how our Whitley councils are formed and what work they have done up to date.

B-3103. That also would be most interesting to us. I do not see that we have so far any statement of the total number of workmen employed under

your direction.—I do not think you have. I have no idea myself. It is very big. I could give you details.

B-3104. *The Chairman* : I suggest that it would be of great value to us to have a memorandum giving a consolidated view of all the factories and arsenals under your control as obviously you yourself have been taking great interest in the kind of questions with which we are concerned. Though some of your methods may be new and not have had long trial, they are none the less valuable to us as an indication of what you have thought possible in the direction of improved organization and improved consultation with the workers under your control.

Would you wish to say anything more at this stage?—Yes, I should. I have had a workmen's union in my cordite factory at Aruvankadu, 8 miles from Ootacamund on the Nilgiris. About three or four years ago they formed a workmen's council. There was no method of recognizing them at that time; they are recognized now. As a matter of fact I told them: "You cannot be recognized at present. I do not like your having a European agitator in your councils, but I shall be very pleased to see you all the same and I would be glad to meet you informally." I met them several times before they were recognized, and far from being annoying or detrimental they were of great help to me. They produced several good ideas which I got through for them and which I had not thought of. There were other minor details. For instance, the Assistant Medical Surgeon only looked after the workmen who were living within a mile of the factory. Some of them lived three or four miles away and they had some difficulty in getting medical assistance. I had to get Government to agree to an additional allowance to the Assistant Surgeon, because he would not go more than a mile on his present allowance. There were little things like that, but very useful.

Then I have a European Foremen's Association. My European foremen have practically all to come from England at present; because my work is of such a technical nature in the way of production of lethal weapons, ammunition and so on, that there are no Indians who could possibly have had a chance of being trained to occupy the position of foremen. As a really first class foreman makes all the difference they have practically all come out from home. I have experienced some difficulty in that direction. We have done a great deal for them. We have got them educational allowances for their children and other things. I have also an All-India Clerks' Association. I have been trying to help them with regard to their grievances, but the file has now reached its fourth year and is very voluminous. They have a genuine grievance, but it is very difficult to put it right owing to departmental delays and "All-India repercussions".

When you go to Calcutta, I hope you will go to Ishapur. There I have two factories, a rifle factory and a metal and steel factory. The rifle factory is my best factory as regards workmanship. You will see some of the best Indian skilled workers there. You will also see all that we have done with regard to housing accommodation and welfare schemes. In every factory we have our boy apprentices, who are as a rule children of our workmen. They work so many hours in the factory and so many hours in the school. We have a school for quite small children. We have an ordinary school for children and boy apprentices and a technical school to fill up the gap in between the time they can go into factories. We have night classes for the workmen. We have a Labour Bureau and a Co-operative Stores; we have a co-operative society which in addition to acting as a co-operative society, pays family allowances to men's families in the villages if they wish it to be done, so that there shall be no trouble over the post office and that sort of thing.

B-3105. *The Chairman* : How many men are there at Ishapur?—I should say about 5,000 in the two factories, the rifle factory and the metal factory. You will see everything on the spot.



B-3106. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Was the Cordite Workers' Association in the cordite factory at one time affiliated to the Trade Union Congress?—I think it was.

B-3107. Why did Government call upon them to disaffiliate from the Trade Union Congress?—I should like to do what they do in Parliament when such questions are put: I want notice of this question. My rough idea is that it was because they had outsiders in their Union. There is a rule with regard to these trade unions that they must all be Government employees.

B-3108. *Mr. Clow*: I do not think that that is a general rule in Government departments.—At any rate that has nothing to do with me if the union was not recognized. It disappears from my ken and goes to the Home Department.

B-3109. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: You have kindly offered to furnish us some information. Would you kindly keep this in view also?—Yes, I will.

B-3110. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In that statement will you tell us what happened to the Kirkee union?—That actually happened before I took over; the arsenal was not under me at that time. I understand that on the introduction of trade tests, certain propagandists some of whom were Europeans, worked up this case, got the men to strike on this point and formed a union.

B-3111. They objected to trade tests?—Yes, just to make trouble. There was no real trouble among the men; they did not really want to strike and they all came back again. I had the same thing at Shajahanpur in the clothing factory. All my tailors were worked up, probably by the gangers, because I was introducing piece work rates and wished to get rid of gangers for the good of the workmen. I said; "If you will only try piece work rates you will find that it means a great deal more money." However they went on strike. About a section of them remained in. The gates were closed and they were told that if anybody liked to come back they could do so. In ten days they all came back, as the sections that remained at work were concrete examples of the advantages to be gained.

B-3112. *Mr. Ahmed*: Will the General kindly give us information with regard to the men engaged in the Royal Indian Marine at Fort William, Calcutta.—I have nothing to do with the Royal Indian Marine beyond repairing their guns.

B-3113. *The Chairman*: Is there anything else you wish to put before us?—In my factories, naturally I have to have the maximum number of people on daily wages. My work is such that I can only do what I get money for. Orders that come from the Army vary very much according to what is required. The result is that I have to keep on taking men and discharging them. I dislike that intensely especially as regards the skilled workers. I have to discharge the men, because I have no work for them to do. I do my best and my Labour Bureau keeps on record all their antecedents and the places where they live so that I can try and get my men back again. If I have to engage new men, it means that I have to train them. I have to waste materials, damage machines and all that sort of thing. So that one would like to keep and one does try to keep the nucleus as constant as possible. I found that a man who is only a daily worker and has served in my factories faithfully for say, 25 years, when he goes sick, under the rules gets nothing. He may serve me till he is an old man; and when he goes he gets nothing. The only thing that I can do for him is to give a bonus of so many months' pay out of the fine fund. I pointed out that that was an unsatisfactory state of affairs and that these men ought to be paid by the Government of India instead of from the fine fund. I have now succeeded in getting through a provident fund for daily paid men, but of course the men do not come into the benefits of the provident fund unless they have served for so many years continuously. So that all my really old and faithful men cannot get any advantage from the new Provident Fund. In addition to this provident fund I should also

have very much liked to have a system by which the men could have so many months' pay when they go, just as they have it on the Railways. Up to date I have succeeded in getting a provident fund in which Government pay 50 per cent. of what the men pay. If the man pays Rs. 10 Government pay only Rs. 5, whereas I understand on the Railways Government pays 75 or 100 per cent. and give also a bonus. I have given orders so that at present bonuses will be paid all right, though it is going to be paid from the fines fund. I am hoping that the thing will be put right some day.

B-3114. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: Did I understand you to mean that the provident fund would be made applicable to the daily rated staff?—Yes, they have got to serve for so many years before they could come into it.

B-3115. Will you also give us a note explaining why although the majority of the workers are daily rated and remain on the works for a continuous number of years, they are not put on a monthly basis, and why the privileges regarding leave are not given to the daily rated staff?—I put as many people as I can on monthly basis. I can tell you why they are not all on a monthly basis. Owing to the continuous change of the load on my factories, I cannot keep a complete continuous staff, because I may not have sufficient funds to pay them all. I have to keep them on daily wages so that I can discharge them if I am forced to do so. In many cases I give them a month's leave without pay. That does not sound very generous, but it just enables them to go on a holiday, when I tell them that probably in a month I will take them back again. I want to ask you to remember that my budget is in the Army budget, and as you know, the Army budget is very limited. At the present moment it is difficult to get the equipment of the Army into an efficient state, so that it is also difficult to get the chiefs of the Army who are trying to introduce modern mechanized units and so forth, into India, to recognize that welfare is of great importance. They naturally point out that there are many other people as well as my staff who want welfare measures. However we have got a great deal and I am thankful for what I have got. With regard to housing I considered that it was the duty of Government as the largest employers to set an example to the other employers in India. When I worked out what it would cost me to build workmen's lines for everybody—my general staff, my clerks, superior artisans and so on,—it came to quite a large sum (66 lakhs). It was no good asking for that large amount. But the Secretary of State accepted the principle, which is a good thing. I then asked for two lakhs a year and I have been getting that amount for six years. I am building my workmen's lines in positions like Ishapur. Where my factory is in a city like Cawnpore, there is not so much difficulty in housing the people and does not so much matter. Ishapur is surrounded by bastis and tanks of water. It is 23 miles from Calcutta. Some of the men have to come to the factory at 7 o'clock in the morning. They have to come by train from Calcutta. It is a very hard day, especially if they are going to do overtime in the evening. Naturally I have done my best to spend the money in those kinds of places. That has meant buying of land to start with and that was not easy. We have to drain the land of the water which is within a foot of the surface. These are the lines on which I have spent most of the money so far.

B-3116. *The Chairman*: In addition to Ishapur which other places would you wish us to visit?—Jubbulpore and Cawnpore. At Cawnpore there is the Harness and Saddlery Factory. I am beginning workmen's lines there, though they are not so necessary there as at Ishapur. Cawnpore is a huge town and the factory is quite close to it, but I think that probably workmen have great difficulty in finding houses, as there must be an enormous mass of workmen in Cawnpore with all the mills and factories.

B-3117. *Col. Russell*: Would you refer to have your lines outside the town of Cawnpore?—Yes, we have got our site and we are starting the work.

B-3118. *Diwan Chaman Lall*: How are they at Jubbulpore?—We have got a workman's village there; they are I think happy and contented. There

is a big gun carriage factory. Perhaps you might also visit the cordite factory at Aruvankadu in the Nilgiris.

B-3119. *Mr. Clow*: We are not going to visit Rawalpindi. The Colonel there has sent us a short memorandum in which he says: Efforts are being made to restore over-time and holidays as seasonally the arsenal is unproductive for 100 days yearly. Will you explain that to a layman?—Does that mean that the arsenal does not work for hundred days in the year?—I imagine probably it would be so. They probably have every holiday.

B-3120. Is not that an unsatisfactory system from your point of view as well as from the point of view of the men?—I think very unsatisfactory.

B-3121. You have to pay overhead charges all the time.—That is one of the things I can say to Diwan Chaman Lall who asked, why not put these people on monthly wages. The moment I put them on monthly rates of pay they want the factory closed on every holiday; if they are on daily rates of pay they want the factory open on every holiday.

B-3122. The officer in charge of the Allahabad Arsenal complains of the responsibility thrown on him by the Factories Act; the Factory Inspector comes round and orders him to do certain things; and then there are files of correspondence, and the Financial Advisers prevent him from carrying out what he is ordered to carry out?—I do not agree with that statement. My factories are much more mixed up with the Factories Act and the Inspectors, but we have no complaints to make.

B-3123. *Sir Alexander Murray*: I see an Arsenal suggesting that in fixing wages they ought to take into account the poverty line. Will you say on what basis you fix wages?—We fix wages according to the man's skill but based on a minimum living wage. He goes into the Labour Bureau, there he is tested with certain tests and according to the result of those tests he is credited with so many rupees a day. If he comes forward and passes a higher test, up he goes. It was the introduction of this system into the Arsenals that has caused the trouble. They have a number of workmen who are highly paid but whose skill was not up to standard of their pay, and when they are put to test, naturally their pay goes down. I will explain wage fixing in more detail in my memorandum.

B-3124. How do you get at the basis; do you pay a little more than the surrounding industries pay their labour?—I should think that we probably pay a little higher pay because if we do not, the railways or somebody else would pinch them. It is not very much more, it is really a fair rate of pay at which they are anxious to serve.

B-3125. The railways, for instance, in addition to giving pay, give provident fund, gratuity fund, clothing and other amenities that you do not give. Therefore I take it that as far as the money wage is concerned, which is chiefly what you pay, you have got to pay a comparatively higher rate in order to attract workers?—I cannot answer the question straightaway; I do not think we pay them very much higher rates of pay.

B-3126. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: If it is not going to be regular work, would you not have to pay more than the railways which give them steady work?—I suppose we would have to. I really cannot answer on the spot; it is a matter of detail.

B-3127. *Sir Alexander Murray*: I know about the apprenticeship scheme in Ishapur. How many years has a boy to serve as apprentice?—Five years.

B-3128. Will you tell us your experience whether the boys after working as apprentices for three or four years and having acquired a certain amount of skill leave to seek employment elsewhere as full-time workers, or do they stick on and get into your higher grades?—You will find that information in the note that I have promised to send. At Ishapur over and above the "boy apprentices", I have got two sorts of apprenticeships—one of a high standard and the other of a moderate standard; I think even in the moderate standard they are mostly B.A.'s. and B.Sc.'s.; they are a well-educated

lot of Bengali. After they complete their five years of apprenticeship, I say to them "Now you are not fit to be a chargeman; you have got to go now and do a couple of years work in factories as an improver." Even though in the beginning they say that the railways or somebody else will take them they do not invariably leave us because they know they cannot be taken on the railways as chargeman. Thus they work for a couple of years more. I have now got a scheme for sending some boys out of those that we turn out to Europe as improvers—I think we turn out about 200 a year altogether—I want them to go into the workshops at home and work in competition with British workmen. Five of my apprentices from Jubbulpore have gone there; of these five, four went at their own cost and one is a scholarship holder of the Central Provinces Government. Those men are all in firms at home; they are working as improvers and against British workmen, earning £5 to £7 a month; they are doing very well. These men when they come out have a chance of rising up to the post of a foreman.

B-3129. How long were these five boys in your workshop altogether before they went home?—Five years.

B-3130. How long did they work in factories at home before they were taken as regular workmen?—They were taken straightaway as workmen.

B-3131. Were they started on the same pay as they are getting now?—They started on a smaller pay and they have gone up. I know one of them is drawing £7. He could earn more but he wanted all-round experience so that when he finishes one job of work he takes up another job of work; naturally he did not go up but went down in pay when he got into a new job.

B-3132. I recollect from personal experience the instance of a boy who after serving as an apprentice for two or three years and acquiring a certain amount of knowledge preferred to go to a shop at Calcutta where he got more money rather than to stay on and complete his apprenticeship. What is the real inducement you give to the boys to stay for the full period of five years?—In the beginning he starts at a certain amount a day and gets more every year—I will give you detailed information in my note—and in his fifth year he will be drawing about a rupee a day (this refers to boy apprentices. The higher class apprentices in their 5th years can draw Rs. 80 per mensem). From this we deduct a few annas which go to meet his railway expenses when he wants to go home on leave.

B-3133. If you pay him one rupee a day after five years of apprenticeship there is no wonder that he wants to go away?—But they are very young.

B-3134. You spoke of building houses for your workmen. At present when you shut down or dispense with a certain number of men owing to want of employment these men go back to their homes in the country round about wherever that happens to be. But if you build houses and the workmen bring their families what will happen to them if they are cut away from land and you shut down?—My building programme is a drop in the ocean. Out of a large number of workmen at Iahapur I have not got accommodation for more than a few hundreds. Everybody is after the houses and they are given only to those people who are likely to stay on.

B-3135. With regard to a statement that there is indebtedness pretty generally amongst workers, and a suggestion that the fact of their being indebted makes them unfit for positions of responsibility, can you draw a distinction between your particular type of service and the ordinary civil employment?—I should say that that is a very true statement, but it is not confined to us only; it exists throughout India. Most Indian workmen get into debt and there is no doubt that it is a most fatal thing if they do. That is the reason why I have started a co-operative society from which a man can borrow money. He subscribes so much a year and when he is in need of money, say, when he has to get one of his daughters married, he can borrow from the fund instead of going to the *bania*.

B-3136. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Who put up the capital?—They put it themselves.

B-3137. They got no help from outside?—No.

B-3138. *Sir Alexander Murray*: In your long experience, can you recall any instance where while promoting a man to a position of responsibility you took into account his indebtedness factors?—No, unless he was so heavily indebted that I would know about it.

B-3139. *Mr. Ahmed*: Do you think that the wage of 8 as. a day that you give to an unskilled boy is sufficient for him to live on?—No. Probably he is the son of one of the workmen there; he is not supposed to live on 8 as.; he is only brought in there to be of help to his father, and to give him education and training.

B-3140. How old will the boy be?—I cannot say.

B-3141. Below 12 years?—I do not know. Mostly they are the sons of workmen in factories; we have them as boy artisans. I have forgotten the factory rules, but I think they have to work for 4 hours in the factory daily and have got to put in ten hours per week in the school as well. These details will all appear in my memorandum.

*Sir Victor Sassoon*: These boys will be under 12 years?—Yes.

B-3142. *Mr. Ahmed*: May be 7, 8 or 9 years?—I think a minimum age has been laid down.

*Mr. Cliff*: It is 12.

B-3143. *The Chairman*: They are under the Factories Act?—Yes.

B-3144. *Mr. Cliff*: In the memoranda from the Arsenals it is stated that a welfare scheme is under the consideration of the Army Headquarters. Do I take it that that really means that you are applying to the Arsenals what you have been putting into operation in your factories?—What they really refer to is the Provident Fund scheme which I got for my factories. The Arsenals will want it but they have not got it yet. Whether it will come in time will depend upon my successor. I should certainly be very anxious to introduce it but the question of finance stands in the way.

B-3145. *The Chairman*: I gather from what you have told us that you introduced it in the factories and you found that it produced increased efficiency?—We have not yet introduced it. The discussion has been going on for the last four years, and I think the Secretary of State has agreed to give effect to it from the 1st April 1930. I had no money in my budget to pay for it this year; I do not think it is going to cost more than Rs. 50,000 to start with.

(The witness withdrew.)

**Messrs. ABDUS SUBHAN and ABDUR RAHMAN, representatives of the workers in the Government of India Press, Delhi.**

B-3146. *The Chairman*: You come before us as representatives of the workers in the Government of India Press?—(Mr. Abdur Rahman) Yes.

B-3147. Will you tell us what your position is? Are you a worker in the press?—I am a piece-worker.

B-3148. On what machine?—I am a compositor.

B-3149. Mr. Abdus Subhan, you are a worker in the press?—Yes.

B-3150. Are you also a compositor?—I am an Assistant Section Holder.

B-3151. We have before us three papers: one is by the Press Union affiliated to the Calcutta Press Workers' Union. Are you members of that body?—Yes.

B-3152. And you appear in support of that memorandum?—Yes.

B-3153. We have also a paper submitted by Mr. Shanker Lall on behalf of the Section Holders of the Government of India Press, Delhi. And we have a paper submitted by the Secretary, Government Press, Delhi, Reading Branch, and signed by Mr. Shanker Lall and Mr. Joshi. Will you tell the Commission how long this Branch has been in existence?—(Mr. Abdur Rahman) for about two years.

B-3154. Can you tell us how many members it has?—About 300.

B-3155. Is it a registered union?—It is a branch of the union which is registered in Calcutta.

B-3156. Can you tell me how it was that this memorandum of yours reached us only yesterday? When was it prepared?—On the 5th of November.

B-3157. I see the name of one of our colleagues here, Mr. Joshi, as being its President?—Yes, he is the President of the Delhi Branch.

B-3158. *Sir Alexander Murray*: When was he appointed as President?—About two years ago.

B-3159. *The Chairman*: I rather gather that Mr. Joshi was not aware of this memorandum. Did Mr. Joshi attend the meeting at which this memorandum was drawn up?—No, he was not present.

B-3160. Therefore, his name is attached only because he became the President of the branch two years ago?—Yes.

B-3161. These three papers deal with a number of detailed questions, like claims for increased wages and conditions of service with which we are not dealing. We are enquiring into the general conditions of labour both in Government undertakings and elsewhere, so that, I think, we should confine ourselves to the points in your memoranda which deal with more general questions. From what you have told us, I understand that many of you have been brought to Delhi from Calcutta?—Yes, many of us have come from Calcutta.

B-3162. Were you also in Calcutta before you came here?—(Mr. Abdus Subhan) I came from Simla. (Mr. Abdur Rahman) I came from Calcutta.

B-3163. You complain that your conditions in Delhi are not as good as they were in Calcutta?—The piece-work rates are the same in both places, but the pay of salaried hands in Calcutta is higher than that in Delhi.

B-3164. Is the cost of living less in Delhi than in Calcutta?—It is about the same. During the malarial season the expenses go up because Delhi is very malarial as compared with Calcutta.

B-3165. I see that is included in your statement, but the general impression is that there is more malaria in Bengal than in Delhi and also the cost of living is higher there?—You can find out from the health officers whether it is not a fact that in Delhi there is more malaria than in Calcutta.

B-3166. You have stated that the recent alteration in the leave rules has been to the disadvantage of the workers?—That is so. They have made three kinds of rules, fundamental rules, industrial rules and supplementary rules, which have not been to our advantage owing to discrimination between salaried employees.

B-3167. In what respect are they to your disadvantage?—Under fundamental rules we were getting two months' leave after 11 months' service, but now under the industrial rules we get only one month; under the former we were entitled to medical leave with full pay but under the latter rules we are entitled only to half pay; under the new rules for the temporary staff we get only 16 days leave while under the fundamental rules we were getting more leave.

B-3168. Do you claim that the rules are special to Delhi or they have been introduced in Government Presses everywhere?—All Government Presses, Delhi, Simla, Aligarh and Calcutta.

B-3169. *The Chairman*: We understand that during five months of the year, when the Legislative Assembly is sitting, there is a great deal of overtime at Delhi?—Yes, we have to put in an excessive amount of overtime during those five months.

B-3170. Is it anticipated when the Press is moved to its new premises in New Delhi that that overtime will continue, or will it diminish?—The overtime will still continue; it is because of the urgency of the work.

B-3171. Is not the overtime during the five months compensated for by short time during the remaining seven months of the year?—No, it is not compensated for. We have to work not less than normal hours, that is, 6 hours on Saturdays and 9½ hours on the remaining days of the week.

B-3172. There is no holiday to make up for the pressure of work during the five months?—No.

B-3173. I suppose this overtime is to your advantage in the matter of pay, but your complaint is that it is too much strain on your health?—That is so. We have to work from 12 to 13 hours sometimes. In Winter when we leave the Press very late we are liable to exposure and get pneumonia and various other diseases.

B-3174. Then the remedy for that would be a larger number of machines and men which would diminish the overtime during the busy five months; but that would also mean that you would have shorter hours or fewer days of work during the remaining seven months?—If the total wages that are paid to us are reduced we would not like it; we would like to have a living wage so that we can make two ends meet. If the working time is reduced we will get less and our children will starve.

B-3175. In your statement you say something about the difficulty of obtaining proper medical attention for yourselves and your families?—Yes; there is that man Mr. Durand, sitting over there; he was asked to produce a medical certificate, and because he had not the means of doing so he was dismissed from service. He had put in about 14 years' service.

B-3176. You tell us that those who come from outside Delhi have to maintain double establishments?—That is so.

B-3177. When the new Press quarters are built at New Delhi will those men still propose to keep their wives and children in Calcutta or Simla?—What we mean is this: we bring our wives and children with us, but the other members of the family, e.g., the brothers and sisters have to remain behind, and we have to go to our homes occasionally for marriage and other ceremonies.

B-3178. But you do regard yourselves as being settled in Delhi?—That is so, but we cannot leave our homes, our brothers and sisters or parents entirely; nor can we ask them to come here and live with us.

B-3179. That hardly amounts to maintaining two establishments?—That is so; we do not spend any money on maintaining an establishment there.

All we say is that twice or thrice every year we have to go there and that means expense to us. Moreover, whoever has got his own house there cannot give that up.

B-3180. Then you say: "We may kindly be provided with quarters bearing sufficient accommodation so that we may not have to undergo hardship and difficulty to reside with our families"?—The accommodation provided at the present time is such that we cannot keep our families with us. It is impossible for us to live in those rooms. Although they are permanent quarters they are not convenient.

B-3181. You say the Government affords no special facilities for the education of the children of the Press employees, and has not established any school for their free education. I take it that they send their children to the ordinary primary schools?—The city is about three miles away; and we cannot send our children so far as that.

B-3182. Do you mean to say the nearest school is three miles away?—There is a middle school there; but if after the middle course we want to send our children for higher education we cannot afford to do so as all those schools are located in the city.

B-3183. What you really ask for is facilities for higher education for the children of press employees?—Yes, after the primary school course, for secondary education.

B-3184. Do your own children go to school?—(Abdur Rahman) I send them to the primary school near our place. (Abdus Subhan) I have a daughter; she does not go to school.

B-3185. Do they have to pay fees in primary schools?—Yes, they have to pay fees. The school belongs to the Notified Area Committee.

B-3186. I thought that in Delhi they had adopted the system of compulsory free primary education?—Only in certain wards of the Municipality. Primary education is free in the Municipal area but not in the Notified Area.

B-3187. *Mr. Clow*: When did you come from Calcutta?—In 1912.

B-3188. Have you ever been to Calcutta since 1912?—No. Those whose home is in Calcutta they go to Calcutta. Our home is in Allahabad.

B-3189. How did you happen to go to Calcutta?—In search of a job.

B-3190. How did you get the job?—I put in an application and I got it.

B-3191. Did you give any *bakshish* to any boy?—No.

B-3192. You find Delhi is more convenient than Calcutta?—It is just about the same.

B-3193. Is it not a fact that when the new rules were introduced all salaried permanent employees were allowed to retain the benefit of the Fundamental Rules?—Not those who had been confirmed before the introduction of the new rules.

B-3194. As far as piece-workers are concerned, when the change was made the result was an increase in the amount of the leave admissible to all the older men. Piece-workers with 10 years' service who formerly got 16 days' leave, received, after the new rules were introduced, an increase in the amount of leave?—Yes.

B-3195. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: I take it that you would prefer to have no overtime for the whole 12 months?—We are not willing to do overtime, provided our wages are not reduced.

B-3196. In other words, you want more pay for the same amount of work?—That is so.

B-3197. Supposing the Government say: "We cannot offer to pay more;" would you prefer to continue with overtime or would you prefer to have no overtime and so earn less?—We cannot carry on now as it is; if you stop our overtime remuneration we will not be able to carry on.



B-3198. So I take it that if there is to be no more pay for the work turned out you would prefer to continue to do overtime?—If we do not agree to that our children will starve.

B-3199. Are the wages that are paid in the Government Press higher or lower than those paid in private presses in Delhi?—The private presses cannot compete with the Government Press.

B-3200. The private presses do not give as good wages?—No.

B-3201. Do private presses have as long overtime as Government presses?—They work only for 8 hours, with an interval.

B-3202. With no overtime?—No.

B-3203. Therefore if you find that you cannot manage on your pay without overtime, the position of a man in a private press must be much worse?—Their condition is worse than ours.

B-3204. Do the Government Press employees get leave on full pay or on half pay?—Up to one month on full pay, rest on half pay, according to their leave account.

B-3205. Do private presses get any leave on full pay?—The private presses are a contractor's business, while the Government Press is a Royal Press.

B-3206. Therefore you consider that the cost of the work should be more in a Royal Press than in a private Press?—If you compare the two you will find that the Government Press work is done more expeditiously than work done by any private press, and further it is confidential and secret work.

B-3207. In regard to the quarters, is it your present quarters or the quarters that you are going to get that are considered to be inconvenient?—The quarters that we are going to get.

B-3208. What do you mean by "they are not convenient"?—There should be more rooms and a courtyard.

B-3209. Therefore the new quarters are inferior to the present quarters?—Yes.

B-3210. Have you put this point before the authorities?—Yes, we have sent in petitions.

B-3211. Was that before the lines were actually built?—No, we gave them details and said that this was the type we wanted.

B-3212. Was there a big difference in cost?—No.

B-3213. *Mr. Ahmed*: On account of the transfer of the Capital from Calcutta to Delhi, the men originally employed in Calcutta have suffered great loss since 1912?—They have neither lost nor gained.

B-3214. Is it not inconvenient for these people to live here?—Yes.

B-3215. You asked for warm colthing, because the winter here is 10 to 20 degrees cooler than in Calcutta?—Yes.

B-3216. With regard to medical assistance in case of malaria or typhoid do you expect any help from Government?—Yes, we do.

B-3217. Do you also want facilities for the education of your children?—Yes, we expect assistance from Government.

B-3218. Some of you were originally appointed in Calcutta and transferred here later on. Do you want free passage to and from Calcutta once a year during festivals and so on?—Yes, not only for Calcutta but also for other places from which many of us have come.

B-3219. We found also some of you submitted applications before the Commission with regard to wrongful dismissal on the part of Government officials who did not give any explanation of their decision for dismissing you. Do you know the names of those people who were dismissed?—Yes, we can give the names of those we remember at the moment. There is one instance of this man, Shivdhar, standing there, who was asked some questions by Mrs. Chatterjee and from that very day he is being threatened with dismissal by the management.

B-3220. *The Chairman*: Not dismissed?—No, not actually dismissed. It was because some questions were put to him by Mrs. Chatterjee and he gave replies. From that very day he is being bullied by the management and threatened with dismissal.

B-3221. *By whom?*—Both the Manager and the Assistant Manager, and we also are afraid that we might be victimised.

B-3222. What is the name of the Manager?—Mr. T. Carter.

B-3223. And of the Assistant Manager?—Mr. Saroda Chandra Chunder.

*The Chairman*: We have listened to the statement from their side; we do not, of course, necessarily accept it but it will be my duty as Chairman of the Commission to make proper enquiries.

The witness: The man is here now and you can ask him yourself if you like.

*The Chairman*: We have the statement; what I wish to hear is the statement of the other side. Any one who is called to appear before us may be quite sure that no such action will be taken against him.

The witness: We are afraid because a similar thing has happened to one of us. I was actually dismissed and then taken back. We have got to think of our children.

*Mr. Clow*: It was not for that reason, I can tell you.

*The Chairman*: That is, of course, my reason for not accepting an *ex parte* statement. I am accustomed to find there are generally two sides to a question.

B-3224. *Mr. Cliff*: With regard to these works committees, how often did they meet during the current year?—Once a month.

B-3225. The officer of the place says that the works committee has been functioning satisfactorily. Has there been an application put before the works committee asking for reduction of hours of work, by the people on the works committee?—No, we did not put in any application because such questions are not allowed to be discussed.

B-3226. With regard to the new lines that are built for the workpeople, were representations in respect of them put before the works committee?—We put it up once before the works committee.

B-3227. There are three different memoranda submitted to the Commission. Are the complaints stated in them being put before the works committee?—There are certain rules which govern the working of the works committee. Under that we can bring only some matters before the works committee.

B-3228. Can you bring the question of increased rates of pay?—No, not generally.

B-3229. Such questions like leave or payment for sickness and so on?—No, we cannot. These are all referred to the Department.

*The Chairman*: These are rules governing other places.

B-3230. *Mr. Cliff*: Is the works committee elected by the workpeople?—Yes, that is elected from among the workpeople.

B-3231. What concessions have been obtained as a result of representations made at the works committee?—No concessions have been obtained.

B-3232. Are you both members of the works committee?—I am still on the works committee whereas my friend here has ceased to be one.

B-3233. May I ask the gentleman who has left whether he agrees with the controller that the works committees are working satisfactorily?—No, we do not agree at all. We tell them what we want and they do what they like.

B-3234. *Sir Victor Sassoon*: Have they never granted anything that the works committee recommended?—They grant such minor requests like putting up a light in one place for instance.

B-3235. *Mr. Cliff*: Are there any general standard rates in the presses in the city?—They have standard rates in the *Hindustan Times* Press and the *Chronicle* Press.

B-3236. Are the men engaged on any maximum and minimum rates?—There is no piece rate; they are all salaried.

B-3237. Do they commence with minimum rates and go up to the maximum rates? Are they incremental?—Yes, it is the same system in all presses.

B-3238. Taking two grades, say compositor and foreman, what is the commencing rate for a compositor in the Government Press and for a compositor in private presses?—In the Government Press he starts on Rs. 40; in private presses he begins with Rs. 35 to 40 and sometimes really more.

B-3239. What is the maximum rate in both cases?—We cannot compare both.

B-3240. The piece work is the trouble. Now take a reader. In a private press he gets Rs. 300. What does he get in the Government Press?—The head reader gets Rs. 300 in the Government Press. That is the maximum.

B-3241. Take the Controller's memorandum. There are four grades of readers and I shall take the middle grade which starts from Rs. 160 and goes up to Rs. 200 by annual increments of Rs. 10. How does that compare with the rates obtaining in private presses?—It is practically the same in the private presses also. It depends on the seniority and efficiency of the man.

B-3242. Take warehousemen. There are men getting different rates, Rs. 16, Rs. 18, and Rs. 25. How does that compare with the rates in private presses?—In private presses also, similar rates are paid.

B-3243. Do all the employees in the Delhi Press, from the lowest paid to the highest paid, get payment for sickness?—The monthly rated staff and the salaried hands get one month's leave with pay for every 11 months' service. Those who are governed by industrial rules get half a month every 11 months.

*Mr. Clow*: I do not think that is the correct position. If you refer to the Controller's memorandum, you will find that they get one month for every 11 months and another half a month with medical certificate.

B-3244. *The Chairman*: From what we have heard it appears that there is not much difference in rates between the Government Press and the private presses in Delhi.—There is a difference in this way. While in private presses lino. operators and mono. operators get about Rs. 200, here in the Government Press they stick at Rs. 100.

*Diwan Chaman Lal*: In my experience the average for lino. operators is about Rs. 145.

B-3245. *The Chairman*: Do men from the Government Press leave to join private presses?—Sometimes they do. One Charan Dass, mono. operator from the Government Press, Simla, left it and joined a private press.

*The Chairman*: So that I do not think these men would favour nationalisation.

B-3246. *Mr. Clow*: Was that man permanent or temporary?—He was temporary, but one permanent man by name Dhiren Chatterji went from the Delhi Press to join a private press at Calcutta.

*The Chairman*: I should take it as it happens elsewhere that private service is less stereotyped than Government service.

B-3247. *Mr. Cliff*: I want to follow that question about sick leave. Do the temporary people get any leave and if so, how much?—Under the supplementary rules they get 16 days' casual leave.

B-3248. In the document submitted by the Press Union they deal with the reduction of staff which took place in 1922 and ask that those who have been reinstated should not be regarded as having had a break in service. Have any representations been made in respect of them?—We made several representations on several occasions in the matter.

B-3249. Are any members of the staff who were reduced in 1922 still unemployed?—There are a number of them who have not been taken back.

B-3250. Can you give me any idea when the last man was reinstated?—Within two days after the reduction a few hands were taken back and some after one month.

B-3251. What is the maximum fine imposed on workpeople?—The maximum is Rs. 5; it depends upon the whim of the man fining.

B-3252. But the maximum is Rs. 5?—Yes.

B-3253. For what class of offence is a man fined Rs. 5?—It depends on the whim of the Manager; it may be for a trivial offence or a serious offence.

B-3254. There are no rules on the matter?—There are no rules.

B-3255. *Mr. Clow*: Do you remember the accident in Delhi Press when two men were killed and three were injured?—Yes, we remember that.

B-3256. Rs. 1,500 was given to Sarash Chandra Bose?—I think he was given Rs. 1,575.

B-3257. What did he do with the money?—He took the money and went to Calcutta.

B-3258. Harchandrasingh who is here got Rs. 1,750. What did he do with the money?—He has opened a little shop.

B-3259. The third was Muhammad Yakub. Is he here?—He is still working in the press.

B-3260. He got Rs. 800; what did he do with it?—He had some debt which he cleared off and spent a portion on wedding.

B-3261. *The Chairman*: Have you anything more to say?—As regards the hours of work, instead of 9½ hours work we should have only 8 hours, including over-time, with interval. With regard to gazetted holidays, we get only 16 days, including the six days communal holidays, while in the Calcutta Press they are given 42 days and in Aligarh 40 days. Instead of pension, we want the system of provident fund to be introduced in the press.

B-3262. Why do you prefer provident fund to the pension?—The real reason is this: because of the hard work and the low physique men die probably within six months after becoming eligible for pension and then the pension stops. But if we got the provident fund we could, after retirement, hand it over to our heirs.

(The witnesses withdrew, and the Commission adjourned.)

## AJMER

## SIXTEENTH MEETING

Tuesday, 12th November, 1929.

## PRESENT:

The Rt. Hon. J. H. WHITLEY (*Chairman*).The Rt. Hon. V. S. SRINIVASA  
SASTRI, P.O.

Sir VICTOR SASSOON, BART.

Sir IBRAHIM RAHIMTOOLA, Kt.,  
K.O.S.I., O.I.E.Sir ALEXANDER MURRAY, Kt.,  
C.B.E.

Mr. A. G. CLOW, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Sir ERNEST JACKSON, Kt., O.I.E., Agent,  
B., B. & C. I. Railway Company,  
Limited.

Lt.-Col. H. A. J. GIDNEY.

Mr. M. S. GREGORY, M.C.

Mr. GOVIND PRASAD.

Mrs. TARA MARTIN (*Lady Assessor*).Mr. S. LALL, I.C.S. } (*Joint Secretaries*)  
Mr. A. DIBDIN.

Mr. KABIR-UD-DIN AHMED, M.L.A.

Mr. JOHN CLIFF.

Mr. N. M. JOSHI, M.L.A.

Miss B. M. LE POER POWER.

Lt.-Col. A. J. H. RUSSELL, C.B.E.,  
I.M.S. (*Medical Assessor*).} (*Assistant  
Commissioners.*)**Mr. W. H. ABEL, Inspector of Factories, Punjab, Delhi, North-West  
Frontier Province and Ajmer.**

*Witness:* May I be allowed to make two corrections to my memorandum before you start. On page 3, the whole paragraph (43) under "Safety" relates to all factories including Railways, so that the word "Railways" is really superfluous. Secondly, on page 7, paragraph (139) where it is stated that "the number of factories in this province at present is 40 and the staff is adequate", the word "adequate" should be corrected to read "inadequate".

B-3263. *The Chairman:* You told us on a previous occasion of a fear that legislation, particularly factory legislation and workmen's compensation legislation, had a tendency to drive industries out of British India into Indian States, where there is no such legislation. Is that particularly the case in regard to Ajmer?—It is particularly the case in this district.

B-3264. Have you any actual instances here?—I have no absolute information beyond what I can collect from the factory owners themselves, but in the case of Bewar, an industrial town about 40 miles from Ajmer, which is surrounded by Indian States, I find that ten or twelve years ago the cotton ginning industry was so very flourishing that possibly two or three hundred carts of raw cotton came in daily for ginning; to-day there are probably not more than 20, and the industry has practically gone. This, factory owners tell me, is due to the fact that factory legislation is applicable to these factories within British India—that is, the hours of work and other regulations, whereas they are not applied to Indian States; they also tell me that in addition to that, a tax is put on the raw cotton going out of a State into British India, so that the tendency is rather for factories to be built within the States than in British India.

B-3265. Not the actual moving of existing factories, but a tendency towards an increase in the number of factories outside British India?—Yes.

B-3266. Is there any move at all with a view to improving the conditions there?—Not that I know of.

B-3267. The second question arises from what you have stated under the heading "Health" in your memorandum. You tell us: "Health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is not possible to say what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness." Do you think that employers might be called upon to keep better registers which would separate sick leave from other kinds of leave?—It would be helpful, but I doubt if you would get really useful figures. The worker, particularly the unskilled worker, turns up for his work when he feels disposed to work and the fact of his being absent would not show the employer whether he was really sick or merely absent on leave.

B-3268. But you see that many of the projects which have been under discussion depend on the accuracy of the sickness return. You would get something like useful statistics taken in well recognized factories, but I do not think you would in seasonal factories?—No, I do not think in seasonal factories. In the bigger mills and railway workshops it is not difficult to tell whether a man is ill because there the doctor has to certify him before he is put on sick leave. In the seasonal factories it is very unusual to report to the mill at all unless a man is actually found to be ill in the factory itself.

B-3269. You think in the more organized industries it would be possible to separate sickness and leave?—Yes.

B-3270. Would that require legislation?—It would, to enforce it.

B-3271. But you do not see any difficulty in carrying it out in perennial factories?—There would be no great difficulty.

B-3272. The third question relates to what you speak of "efficiency" in your memorandum. You tell us there that in your opinion health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of the workers and that unless the labouring classes are well fed by an increase in their wages, it is not possible to effect any improvement in this behalf. Do you think any increase in wages under present conditions would be spent on increased food and thus tend to produce more efficiency?—To some extent it would.

B-3273. We have been told that it is not so much the quantity as the kind of food which is deficient?—Exactly. The illiterate and the unskilled worker frequently buys a much cheaper class of food than is good for him, not necessarily because he has not the money to buy better food—that is no doubt one of the factors—but because he is so much in debt to the bania; and also the unskilled worker spends a great deal of money which he cannot afford on holidays and festivals and thus becomes indebted to his bania, and as a result he has to live on bad food which is not good for his health.

B-3274. He has to take what the bania gives him?—Yes; he is very much in the hands of the bania.

B-3275. Would an increase of wages benefit him if there is sufficient spread of education?—Not at this moment, but it would be an improvement in that direction.

B-3276. He would have more money to spend on food even though he were in the hands of the bania?—He would have a little over; not a lot. At present he has very little indeed.

B-3277. *Mr. Clow*: In the memorandum which he has sent to us the Commissioner has suggested that the minima for workmen's compensation are too low, and that the compensation for more poorly paid worker should be increased. Do you agree with that view?—No, I do not think I do.

B-3278. He gives us a case where a factory worker lost the use of one hand and was given only Rs. 126. That appears to be due to the fact that his pay was Rs. 12 a month. Is that the common scale of pay here? It is a very low scale of pay. What sort of a man would he be?—It is an unusual

case. He might be a cotton opener, but he would be working on a pay of Rs. 18 to 25 a month.

B-3279. Is Rs. 12 a month a regular pay?—I do not think a workman who would be in a position to lose a hand through machinery would be engaged on a pay of Rs. 12 a month.

B-3280. What are the hours of work in cotton ginning factories?—60 hours a week, that is, 10 hours' a day for a six-day week.

B-3281. Do they get any exemption for an exceptional pressure of work?—Not for the last four or five years. After the Act was amended in 1922 we gave exemptions; but they have been gradually decreased, and during the last three years no exemption has been given.

B-3282. Do you know anything about the hours of work in the States?—I only know that they are very much longer. I have no authority to go there, and I cannot definitely say for how many hours a workman would be employed. In Gwalior where there is a big mill the hours are definitely from 70 to 72 per week. It is a spinning mill.

B-3283. I suppose in cotton ginning mills the length of the hours practically determines the production?—Exactly.

B-3284. In referring to the factory inspection staff in your memorandum, the Civil Surgeon is omitted?—That is so.

B-3285. His inspection is confined to the medical side only?—Yes.

B-3286. *Miss Power*: Mr. Abel, you have told us a certain amount about the welfare work undertaken by factories. Do you suggest that it would be a good thing if the Factories Act here could operate as regards welfare very much on the lines of what is done in England, where we have Statutory orders covering the welfare work to be undertaken in a particular industry?—I think it would be the only way of getting any real welfare work done; if there was a law it would be applicable not only to the employer, but also to all others who took any steps in that direction, and it would be the best way of getting welfare work done.

B-3287. Do you think that is the best method?—I must say it would be a very important and a very useful thing.

B-3288. You mention as one of the causes of the increase in the number of accidents, that "underpaid and unskilled workers are put on jobs of which they have no experience." Do you suggest that it would be a good thing to adopt some safety measures on the lines of what is done among illiterate workers in part of America. There they have a very successful method of propaganda entirely by means of posters?—The average unskilled worker that is put on such job as cotton opening would not be able to understand posters. We have posters now very similar to those in America, showing the kind of clothes a worker must wear, the way he should tackle a machine, and so on, and when possible we go round and make a demonstration; but the trouble is that the average worker will again do things almost exactly the same way as he did before. He is not sufficiently educated to appreciate the instructions that are given to him.

B-3289. I take it that it is a question of time?—It is a question of time.

B-3290. I was told in Lahore that the system of training uneducated *dais* by means of picture posters has been very successful. Do you suggest the same thing for the more complicated machinery in the factories?—It would be helpful, but it would be necessary to launch a very vigorous propaganda. The worker would need to have a very full description; and you would have to do it continually day after day and do it very clearly, otherwise the worker would not take notice until you came round again.

B-3291. We have a paper circulated to us by the Government in regard to industrial labour in this Province. It shows that roughly half of the industrial establishments and three-fifths of the employed workers in the Province are covered by the Factory Act. Would you be in favour of extending the Act to cover the remaining half of the places of employment and two-fifths of employed persons?—It is a job which would be perfectly

possible to begin if you have the right quality and quantity of inspection. It is not quite an impossible job if we were to get the inspecting staff. But it is unfortunately somewhat difficult to undertake the inspection and controlling of these smaller factories which are situated in bazaars, it is more difficult than with the bigger ones.

B-3292. If you are going to increase your number of factories by 50 per cent. including all the at present unregistered factories, you would then need to double your staff?—I certainly think all these small factories should be brought under the operation of the Factories Act; it would be a very good thing, but we would want a very big staff to administer the Act in such cases.

B-3293. How much would it mean?—We would need to double the present staff.

B-3294. The present staff is unable to deal with it?—That is true.

B-3295. Are you likely to get additional staff?—There is at present little likelihood of persuading Government to give us the staff, and it would take a long time to secure sufficient staff. It would be an ideal to work up to and it is very necessary.

B-3296. Would three trained men be able to do it?—Yes.

B-3297. You do not think that is an excessive number?—I do not; Government might.

B-3298. *Mr. Clow*: Suppose you were given a full-time Inspector for Delhi and Ajmer, would that be adequate?—No.

B-3299. *Mrs. Martin*: In your memorandum you say "The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable". Is it in the regulation that women can be put to work side by side with men?—There is no regulation against it.

B-3300. But they work side by side?—They do in many factories where possibly no room can be set aside in which women can do their work apart from men and in which there is no machinery so as to enable them to have their children with them if they wanted. But there is no actual regulation against women working in a room along with men, and I do not think women object. I have never found such objection.

B-3301. They do not object?—Ordinarily they do not.

B-3302. You do not think it is necessary to make it possible to put women separately from men?—In many cases it would be impossible because they work machines on which men are also employed.

B-3303. *Mr. Cliff*: With regard to the adequacy of factory inspection you told Miss Power that for the whole area which you cover, three full-time inspectors would be sufficient. Is that so?—Inspection is a work that you can expand enormously; you can make work for 30 men if you want to. But, firstly, we would never get that quantity of inspectors, and secondly, we have not taken up all the work that an inspector could find under the present law. Three, at this moment, would be very much better and would be very useful; if we could get more we would certainly find ample work for them.

B-3304. Assuming that the Factories Act was extended to the places not now covered, would three inspectors be, in your opinion, adequate to cover the whole area?—It depends to what extent you would apply the Act. If it were to cover all the unregulated factories employing 10 persons, whether power was used or not, then certainly three inspectors would not be sufficient.

B-3305. How many would be sufficient in that event?—Unless one investigated the number of factories which would come under the Act, it is impossible to say. But presuming that there would be twice as many factories brought within the purview of the Act if it were extended to both the types of factories, it would mean that we should then have three times as many factories as we have at present, and under the new regulation they would require far more attention than under the old one so that we would



need more than six or seven inspectors for carrying on the inspection work as we are having now.

B-3306. In answer to Mr. Clow you said that one inspector is not adequate for Delhi and Ajmer. Did that relate to the present scope of the Act?—Yes.

B-3307. Your answer with regard to three inspectors for the whole of your area was also related to the present scope of the Act?—Yes.

B-3308. Mr. Clow asked you a question about compensation. I believe you answered that, in your opinion, compensation paid in accordance with the present rate of pay was adequate. Just take these two cases that were given by Mr. Gibson, the Commissioner. I will take them separately. The case given is of an employee who was receiving wages at the rate of Rs. 12 per month. As a result of an accident he had four fingers amputated and he received Rs. 126. Will you apply the present scales to this particular case and tell me whether they are adequate?—I cannot imagine a man working on a machine on a pay of Rs. 12; I do not think that is correct. It is possible it may have been the pay that was allotted to him in the register. If he were earning his proper pay and he was paid according to the schedule, his compensation in that case would be somewhere near Rs. 200 or 300 which would enable him to buy cattle, goats or take some interest in land which would provide him with a living.

B-3309. But this is a case registered by the Commissioner; it may be that the accident did not occur through machinery?—In that case I certainly say that the compensation is not sufficient. I was going on the schedule of compensation as compared with the wages which I find reported to me at the end of the year by employers.

B-3310. Then he quotes what might happen: a workman drawing Rs. 10 if he loses any other finger than the index finger, he is, in accordance with the provisions of the Act, entitled to receive compensation amounting to Rs. 21?—Yes, that is true.

B-3311. Is that, in your opinion, adequate?—There again I say I do not know of any person who is working on that pay per month.

B-3312. With regard to housing, you say in your memorandum, "The bulk of the labouring classes in Beawar and Ajmer employed in the cotton ginning and pressing factories live in quarters provided by the private landlords". Is it also true that the bulk of the labouring classes that are employed on the railways live under private landlords?—Yes.

B-3313. Has it ever been a part of your duty to inspect the housing condition?—No, never; houses outside the factory premises are not my concern officially.

B-3314. Have you ever seen them unofficially?—I have.

B-3315. How would you describe them?—Undesirable. I think they might be improved.

B-3316. Is that the strongest word?—Possibly not. In many cases certainly they should be improved very much.

B-3317. Again you say, "Medical facilities for the workers and their families are provided in the case of bigger mills and factories". I take it you also include the railways to which you later on make a reference?—Yes.

B-3318. Is it practicable for an ordinary workman living three miles away from the hospital to avail himself of the facilities?—No, certainly not; I am alluding to the worker within the factory. When he is a mill employee and during the course of his work he falls ill, he receives medical treatment.

B-3319. Suppose a workman meets with an accident in railway workshop; he is treated, but he is not detained in the hospital and goes home. Is any provision made for visits at his home?—I am afraid I do not know; that would be outside my province.

B-3320. Your observations here do not go further than the facilities provided in the mills or factories?—No; I have no authority and also no time to go beyond that.

B-3321. *Mr. Ahmed:* In your memorandum you say, "Two of the textile mills in Mewar and the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Workshops, Ajmer, have, however, made a provision on a restricted scale for the accommodation of their operatives at a reasonable rent". What do you mean by this?—I am referring to the housing accommodation provided within the workshop premises or close to them for such people as chowkidars, gatekeepers and other employees who must essentially remain on their job. Those houses, to my mind, are fairly good. I take it you are alluding specially to the railways. In this case they are provided by the railway authorities.

B-3322. Has no provision been made for accommodation of the labourers?—Only in the case of those I have mentioned, within the factory premises; I am not sure what arrangements they have made outside the factory premises.

B-3323. You say, "The housing conditions of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Workshops, Ajmer, in so far as the accommodation is provided are on the whole satisfactory in relation to drainage, water supply and sanitation". Do you mean to say that provision has been made for quarters to the permanent staff like managers, clerks and others?—No. I am alluding to those houses and dwellings which are provided for the staff which must remain on their job most of the time. That is in the case of probably less than 5 per cent. of the entire railway workshop staff.

B-3324. You have already said that the efficiency of the workers will be increased if they are given higher wages?—Yes.

B-3325. And indebtedness to the bania is their real grievance?—Yes.

B-3326. Do you not think that if payments are made weekly, it would relieve their indebtedness to the bania?—I do not think it would.

B-3327. If you pay them four times a month they can pay their debts earlier?—They can but it does not follow that they would. I doubt very much if it would be an advantage to the monthly worker to get his pay weekly.

B-3328. Why not?—He usually gets his food in bulk for the month. He is always indebted, whether you pay him by the week or by the month. I do not think he would really be better off by merely getting a small amount of money at the end of the week instead of a good amount at the end of the month. It is the habit of the worker, on pay day, to want the rest of the day as a holiday, and he would not want to forego that holiday if payments are made weekly. The result would be that he would get three extra holidays in a month.

B-3329. *Sir Victor Sassoon:* We have been told by the representatives of the railway workers that outside the railways the usual rate of pay to the lowest class is Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0 in the industries at Ajmer and in the agricultural districts Re. 1 per day. I have here the evidence of the General Manager of the Court of Wards who states that in industries the wages are from 6 annas to 10 annas and in agriculture 4 annas to 6 annas. Which of these statements is, in your opinion, correct?—I should say the latter one; my experience shows that the latter is more correct.

B-3330. You do not consider that in industries outside the railways the usual rate of pay for coolies is from Re. 1 to Rs. 1-4-0?—I am sure it is not.

B-3331. What do you think would be the rate of pay in industries outside the railways?—It would be nearer to 8 or 9 annas—that is for the unskilled work. I collect statistics regarding that at the end of the year, and covering the entire area it works out at about 11 annas for a man and 5 or 5½ annas for a woman; that includes the railways, and it is generally recognised that the railways pay slightly more if anything.

B-3332. That is recognized?—I have always presumed so.

B-3333. In this district?—Yes, slightly more.

B-3334. Have you any experience of the rates paid in the agricultural districts surrounding Ajmer?—No, I am afraid I have not.

(The witness withdrew.)

### Rai Sahib CHANDRIKA PRASAD.

B-3335. *The Chairman*: Rai Sahib, the questions that I shall put to you on your present memorandum will really deal with the questions which you have been good enough to discuss. I may take it that the sum of your claim is as stated in your memorandum where you say: "It shows the necessity for Indianisation of Railway services from the top instead of from the bottom as has been done to some extent so far." Now there are one or two other interesting points in your memorandum. You claim that vocational schools are altogether inadequate?—Exactly.

B-3336. And that they ought to be greatly increased to give the opportunity of training Indians for the higher posts in the railway service?—Yes, both for higher and subordinate posts.

B-3337. Dealing with the question of workmen's compensation you say: "The Workmen's Compensation Act has in some cases curtailed the allowances of full pay to railway workmen for absence due to injury caused by accidents in the performance of their duties." By that do you mean that the provisions of the Act are less liberal than what was being given in some cases by the Company before the Act was passed?—Exactly. The previous practice was to allow full pay for the period of sickness under medical certificate. Now the Act limits it to something like 10 days or so. But I am glad to notice that the Railway Board is allowing the former practice still to continue.

B-3338. I was going to deal with that question. My recollection is that we were informed by the Railway Board that where their own rules were more favourable than the Act, they would allow their own rules to operate?—Yes, I find that is so from the Railway Board's memorandum.

B-3339. That is satisfactory?—Yes.

B-3340. In your memorandum you tell us the purpose of these unions of railway employees. We were told here in Ajmer yesterday that a new union has been recently established?—Yes.

B-3341. Is that union recognized by the All-India Railwaymen's Federation?—It is not at present affiliated, as far as I know, to the All-India Federation.

B-3342. Has it applied to be affiliated to it?—I am not certain; I have nothing to do with this union.

B-3343. Therefore you do not speak to-day in the capacity of a representative of the men engaged on your Railway?—I am speaking in my personal capacity, because the All-India Railwaymen's Federation has not yet decided the question whether they should co-operate with this Commission.

*The Chairman*: I understand.

B-3344. We had under consideration here, and have had under consideration elsewhere, the question of the relation of staff committees or works' committees to trade unions. Are you aware that in England it has been found possible to work the staff committees or works' committees, by whatever name they may be called, with the perfect goodwill of the trade unions?—I am not aware of that, but here I know the staff committees are proteges of the Railway officials, while the railway men's unions are independent bodies who represent the views and wishes of railway employees. That is the position in India.

B-3345. That is an early stage of organization. There is nothing to prevent the staff committees or works' committees being worked with the assistance and approval of the trade unions? That does not come within your experience?—No, it does not. I have no experience in regard to that.

B-3346. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola*: In your memorandum, you give a statement showing the maximum and minimum wages per month of different classes of labour in different countries, and you say that it was worked

out for the Acworth Committee in 1920. Have you any statistics to show what the present position is?—I have not got the statistics since then; but I think these figures are very recent; they were only collected after the war.

B-3347. Is your position the same as it was then? Has there been no real variation in the proportions shown in the statement during the last nine years?—I do not think there is any material difference now. The statement holds good to-day very materially so far as India is concerned.

B-3348. Then you go on to say: "True remedy lies in laying down a scale of salaries for the staff of the Indian Railways on the same scale as is in force on the Japanese State Railways, thus bringing down the high salaries of the higher officials, and raising the salaries and wages of the low-paid staff and work people, without serious rise in the operative ratio." Can you tell us what you mean by a system prevailing in Japanese State railways?—I mean that the maximum salary of a Railway official in Japan is about Rs. 1,000 a month. Here in India the maximum salary of an Agent goes up to Rs. 4,500: I have given it in the statement as only Rs. 3,500. I consider that the salaries of higher officials on Indian railways are very much higher than the salaries paid in Japan. Japan being an Asiatic country has very much the same conditions as we have in India, and that is an ideal for us to follow.

B-3349. That is to say you would work up to that level in future?—No, I will work up to it now.

B-3350. Do you think it is a matter of practical politics to suddenly introduce that system, and would sufficiently qualified men with technical knowledge be available in India on the salaries you advocate?—I do not mean to drive out the present officials; I would keep them on their present salaries, but I would have a new scale for all those that will come into the service henceforward on the basis of Japan.

B-3351. Does Japan train its own railway officials?—Yes, certainly: they have a very nice college there for the training of railway officials.

B-3352. Then your scheme, in essence, is that steps should be taken to provide educational facilities to supply the demand for higher officials employed on the Railways?—Exactly; all higher officials should be trained in India. We have available in India a sufficient quantity of educated material which could be trained.

B-3353. Further in your memorandum you say: "The arbitrary powers exercised by the Supervising Officer or subordinate, without impartial check, often leads to favouritism, racial discrimination or corrupt practices, which affect the efficiency of staff and lead to waste of public money." What kind of impartial check would you advocate?—At another place I have suggested that we want Indians in the higher places. At present the European mind is biased against the Indians, more or less.

B-3354. The point is this. You say there should be impartial check. What kind of check would you exercise to prevent what you call "favouritism, racial discrimination and corrupt practices"?—I would have a Railway officer of a Department that is not concerned in the matter: for instance, I would have an officer of the Audit or Accounts, or even of the Agents Department—an impartial officer to check these things. I have been proposing a Staff Committee of three instead of leaving these matters in the hands of a single individual. Let all establishment matters, that is, matters relating to staff, their appointment, promotion, and so on, be settled by a Committee of three.

B-3355. How would you constitute that Committee of three?—I would take one officer from the executive staff of the Department concerned say, from the Carriage and Wagon or the Loco. workshops, or the Engineers' Branch, or the Traffic Branch; I would take another officer from the Audit and Accounts Department; and the third member would be a representative of the Railwaymen's union.

B-3356. You think that under that system racial discrimination, favouritism and corrupt practices would disappear?—Yes.

B-3357. You do not think that by multiplying the authority of employment there will be much more nepotism?—No, I think a Committee of three will not be influenced by any undue consideration.

B-3358. That is your opinion. You do not think there is a danger of larger favouritism resulting from your scheme?—Single individuals have exercised autocratic powers; these will be toned down by a Committee of three. That is my opinion.

B-3359. By larger distribution of favouritism?—That is not my opinion.

B-3360. I do not say it is your opinion: there is a likelihood of it?—I do not see any likelihood of it. I see an improvement.

B-3361. *Mr. Clow*: In your memorandum you say: "No facilities are allowed by the Railway administrations for insurance against accidents." What do you mean by that?—What I mean is that there ought to be some institution by which the lives or bodies of railwaymen should be insured against accidents; there is nothing done by the railways to insure their lives; they ought to encourage the railwaymen to form an institution or fund by which lives of men could be insured.

B-3362. Do not the compensation rules provide something of that kind?—That is not enough.

B-3363. You mean the men should be compelled to subscribe?—No, the railway ought to do it.

B-3364. The railway provides compensation?—Compensation they give on death or injury. But I say an institution should be formed beforehand from which the men should get money. At present the B., B. and C. I. Railwaymen's Union at Parel (Bombay) does something in that direction; it provides grants within its limited means in the case of accidents, sickness or unemployment.

B-3365. *Mr. Sastri*: In the nature of an insurance scheme?—They give an allowance when a man is injured or is sick.

B-3366. *Mr. Clow*: But you are talking of accidents and not of sickness?—I should say the same principle should apply in the case of accidents too; when a man is disabled they ought to do something; some institution ought to be established.

B-3367. But they do something at present?—That is not enough. They pay a lump sum which is spent in a few years; then the man is left without any means.

B-3368. Then would it not be preferable to give a pension instead of a lump sum?—Certainly that would be preferable.

B-3369. Is that what you mean by your statement?—Yes. In England you have National insurance.

B-3370. That is health insurance?—Yes, but in accidents, instead of giving a lump sum I would prefer a pension.

B-3371. You do not want the workman to pay a premium?—No, he is not able to pay it.

B-3372. You say, "Effect has not been given by the Government of India to the Washington and Geneva Conventions . . . the hours of attendance should not exceed 144 hours for clerical staff.....". How did you reach that figure?—144 hours a month or 36 hours a week. That is the demand of the railwaymen put through the All-India Railwaymen's Federation; they passed a resolution to that effect. Under the present P. W. D. Code no man should work for more than 6 hours a day.

B-3373. You think that the clerical staff should work for much shorter hours than the other staff?—Yes, because it is brain work; in the Indian climate they cannot work continuously for more than 6 hours.

B-3374. Is the climate felt more in the open air or inside the room? The workmen work for 12-14 hours?—I still work for 12 to 14 hours.

B-3375. With your hand?—With my hand and with my brain.

B-3376. That is more akin to clerical work?—I do out-door work also.

B-3377. Only about two months ago there was no union here, is not that so?—The union has been more or less here for the last seven years.

B-3378. What do you mean by more or less?—By more or less I mean, very many obstacles were thrown by the railway officials in the way of the formation of a union. The Trade Union Congress gave a grant specially to organize a railwaymen's union at Ajmer but all our efforts failed because of the attitude of the railway officials.

B-3379. But has the formation of unions elsewhere been dependent on the attitude of the employers?—But Ajmer is an autocratic province and the men are at the sweet will of the authorities; they are afraid of them. Do you see a single Indian railwayman here? They are afraid to come before my friend Sir Ernest Jackson; they would not come here—I am speaking plainly—the poor people have not the courage to come.

B-3380. You are an ex-President of the Trade Union Congress?—Yes.

B-3381. It does not seem that much progress has been made with trade unionism in the long time that you are here, Rai Sahib?—A prophet is never honoured in his own country.

B-3382. *Mr. Joshi*: You stated that some men here were also discharged because the officials thought the men were organizers of railway employees union or leaders of strikes. Can you give us any definite information on this?—I might give you the instance of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway—I am speaking here for All-India and not for the B., B. and C. I. Railway only. On the Bengal-Nagpur Railway a number of men were victimized simply because they were leaders or workers of railway unions. This came to my personal notice in my capacity as President of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation.

*The Chairman*: We can hardly deal with that here.

B-3383. *Mr. Joshi*: In your memorandum you say, "Employment in the railways is generally permanent in cases of men on monthly pay as well as those paid on the daily rates of wages . . ." Why are these people kept on daily rates of wages although their employment is permanent?—I cannot offer any explanation because this has been the system for many years; but I think it is wrong. The men claim to be brought on monthly pay, and I am glad to say that the Railway Board have given us an assurance that they will be brought on monthly pay.

B-3384. You also say, "The practice of raising debits against the station staff for errors in booking or collecting charges from the public leads to corrupt practices". Can you explain this?—Suppose a consignment is booked, say, from Ajmer to Bombay, Bombay is responsible to recover the correct charges. Either through over-sight or through the complex nature of the goods tariff, if the goods clerk at Bombay fails to realise the correct freight, the audit department will raise a debit against him, without regard to his pay—it may be for Rs. 100 or it may be for Rs. 500. He is called upon to realise it from the party concerned; if he fails, the debit stands against him and is recovered from his pay. This, I maintain, leads to corruption. When you levy such heavy debits on a poor man where is he to bring the money from?

B-3385. Are the officers in the railways made to pay any debits for their mistakes?—Certainly not; officers go scot free always.

B-3386. I will ask you a question on a subject on which we had had some information, but I think it is necessary to ask that question. Will you explain how in practice racial discrimination is maintained inspite of the fact that the railway authorities state that they have done away with it in theory?—It will be in your recollection, *Mr. Joshi*, that *Mr. Samarth* put certain questions in the Legislative Assembly, and the Railway

Board assured the assembly that racial distinctions would be abolished. That was something like 10 years ago. But what do we find to-day? The railway memorandum submitted by the B., B. and C. I. Railway Co. clearly shows instances of racial discrimination.

B-3387. Will you explain the methods by which, in practice, this is maintained?—For instance, the different scales that have been laid down—A, B, C, D and E. There are two scales which are extremely low where no European or Anglo-Indian would come to work.

B-3388. Are the Europeans employed on the lowest scales for guards or drivers?—No, they are employed only in the upper grades. So long as you keep these low grades you are maintaining racial distinction.

B-3389. You state that Anglo-Indians and Europeans are not recruited on the lower grades but are directly recruited on the higher grades?—Yes, and they keep ahead of Indians.

B-3390. Is there any method by which Europeans and Anglo-Indians get ahead of Indians?—By rapid promotion too; they are favoured always.

B-3391. *Miss Power*: In your memorandum you suggest that a minimum of Rs. 35 per month with varying allowances for towns and big cities be paid for unskilled employees. I take it you mean that figure as a minimum for railway employees in the more rural areas?—Yes.

B-3392. Further on you say, "The rates of wages in the surrounding agricultural areas should not be considered in fixing the wages and salaries of railway employees? What I want to arrive at is on what basis you fixed Rs. 35 as the minimum?—It is considered to be the lowest with which a man could maintain himself and his family.

B-3393. Even in the more rural areas?—Rs. 35 is the minimum; that has been decided by the All-India Railwaymen's Federation.

B-3394. What difference in the method of living is there between a railway employee in the more rural areas and an agricultural worker?—In the villages an agricultural worker gets fine vegetable and many articles free of charge either from his neighbour or from his own produce. Here a labourer has to pay for every bit he requires for his consumption; there he has his own cottage where he lives, here he has to pay house rent; so the difference is very great in rural areas and in towns.

B-3395. I was not referring to the labourer in towns but to the railway employee in the more rural areas. You suggest a minimum of Rs. 35 with allowances for towns and cities?—Yes; Rs. 35 is the minimum for an unskilled labourer and a higher amount for others.

B-3396. *Colonel Gidney*: I believe you are an advocate of levelling up of wages of the subordinate staff?—Certainly; I do not mean to cut down any salaries of subordinate staff.

You are also an advocate of levelling down the salaries of officials?—Yes.

B-3397. I believe you were present when I asked the Railway Board in their evidence, for figures, to establish a comparison between the total salaries of subordinates as compared with officials in various railways. If it is found that there is a great discrepancy in favour of the officials, would you advocate levelling down the salaries of officials?—Yes.

B-3398. You just now complained of a great distinction between the Anglo-Indians and Indians. You would not complain if the Indian is levelled up to the Anglo-Indian standard of wages?—No.

B-3399. Do you think the railways would function if this were done?—Why not?

B-3400. Why is it that no Indian witness from the railway workshops has appeared before this Commission?—They have not the courage; they are afraid of their superiors.

B-3401. Do you think they would be victimised?—Yes.

B-3402. Have you any real reason to think so?—I have already cited one instance on the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. Here a few months ago the

men were thinking of organizing a union and one of the officials called the leaders and told them not to join or form any union.

B-3403. I have no reason to doubt your statement, on the other hand I may have reason to support it. The Commission is out here to examine the grievances of the railwaymen and if there is such a thing as victimization of any witnesses the Commission would not be in a position to examine those witnesses and they would be placed at a very great disadvantage?—They cannot come forward; they have not the courage.

B-3404. I think you were at Delhi when I asked a question of the Railway Board as to how long it takes for a fireman to become a loco foreman or a ticket collector to become a station superintendent?—Yes, I heard the question as well as the answer.

B-3405. It was said that the average service necessary for this promotion was between 20 and 25 years. Will you agree with me if I say that the reason why Anglo-Indians and Europeans occupy a large number of such superior posts to-day is because they have been continuously in service and at a time when the educated Indian did not seek Railway employment?—Indians have been more continuously in service. Look at the percentage; over 97 per cent. are Indians.

B-3406. I am not talking of the percentage, I am talking of these appointments and the length of service necessary to attain such ranks?—I put in 37½ years' service.

B-3407. Will you agree with me that till a few years ago the educated Indian did not seek employment on the railways?—Why? He has always been after railway service.

B-3408. Will you agree with me that 15 years ago the Indian was not keen on working on railways?—No, certainly not; I joined the railway in 1877.

B-3409. I am not taking you as an example; you are an exception. I am taking the class as a whole?—I am speaking of the Indians generally.

B-3410. Is it a fact that 15 to 20 years ago drivers and guards did not know how to sign their names?—Yes, because you did not take any educated men; you promoted *khalasis* to the rank of a driver.

B-3411. You made a statement about the appointments committee; I think there was a lot in what you said; it impressed me very much. My friend Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola suggested to you that there would be more nepotism if you had such a committee?—If I were to be on that committee I would serve honestly.

B-3412. *Cólnel Gidney*: Do you think that much of the trouble on railways is really due to the ignorance amongst the staff of leave rules, over-time claims, service bonds and other privileges to which they are entitled?—Yes.

B-3413. Would you advocate the issue to all employees of a condensed pamphlet of these rules?—The B., B. and C. I. Railway have done that; they were good enough to send me a copy of it.

B-3414. I do not know whether it is the general practice on all the railways?—I think that is very necessary.

B-3415. Mr. Clow asked you a few questions about compensation. Do you think that if the B., B. and C. I. Railway accepts the system of insuring the lives of their employees that I recommended to the Railway Board and which they agreed to consider, that is, that every employee of the railway be allowed to insure his life and pay the premiums from his accumulated Provident Fund, it would help the Indian employee?—I should think so.

B-3416. You talked just now of long hours of duty. A general statement is one thing; can you substantiate what you said to the Commission by giving concrete cases of men doing 15, 18 or 20 hours duty a day?—I never said 18 hours; I said 12 hours.



B-3417. Well, let it be 12 hours?—Here is a statement which shows that the station staff do 12 hours work.

B-3418. Can you give it to the Commission?—I will show it. It gives the hours from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. Assistant booking clerks, head booking clerks and so forth work 12 hours during the day; I am speaking of Ajmer station which has pretty good work during the day.

B-3419. *The Chairman*: Without any interval for meals?—It is what they call intermittent work; but still the men have to remain longer hours; they cannot leave the station where they are kept for 12 hours. But there is an admission in the Railway Board's memorandum that some of the staff have only 8 hours rest in 24 hours.

B-3420. *Colonel Gidney*: In your memorandum you say that you favour a time scale promotion. Do you mean by that that a ticket collector can, by increments, automatically rise up to the post of station superintendent?—Yes, automatically as they have done in the postal department.

B-3421. I know a time scale promotion exists in the postal and telegraphs departments, also in various other Government departments but do you think this is practicable in the railway department?—Why not? What is practicable in the postal and telegraphs departments is equally practicable in the railway department.

B-3422. What will be the greatest benefit if such a system were introduced? Do you think it would remedy the present hardship of blockage of 80 per cent. of the staff in the upper grades?—If there is blockage in the postal department there may be blockage here as well.

B-3423. I know such a blockage does exist in the telegraph department and that is their chief complaint?—I cannot foresee; I have made no calculation.

B-3424. You have just given the history of Unions on the B., B. and C. I. Railway. Is it your experience, in your long and distinguished service in various grades that the railway official on this Railway looks askance on railway unions or any such bodies, and look upon such bodies, from a hostile point of view?—Yes.

B-3425. Is it your experience that the officials put their hostility into practice?—Yes.

B-3426. Could you give instances in which this has happened?—Yes.

B-3427. And therefore you think this is the chief reason why unions have not succeeded on this railway?—Exactly.

B-3428. Do you think this is a correct attitude?—No, that is not a correct attitude.

B-3429. Do you think that if the railway administration had frequent consultations with unions and other organized bodies of workmen as associations, etc., in matters concerning their own interests, there would be less mistrust, unrest and more satisfaction?—Certainly; but you should abolish these sham staff committees.

B-3430. What would you put in in their place?—The Railwaymen's unions. If the railway officials will favourably receive these railwaymen's unions, I assure you that railwaymen will be very reasonable.

B-3431. Would you accept a grievances committee; I mean a separate department to be created in the Railway in which the men would have a big representation and a big voice?—Certainly, if there are representatives of the railwaymen's union.

B-3432. *Mr. Gregory*: In your memorandum you say ".....except in the case of train running staff some of these are discharged for three or four months of the rainy season which is treated as the slack season on some of the railways". Do you include the B., B. and C. I. Railway in that?—I do.

B-3433. Can you let us know what you refer to in your statement?—In the rainy season when traffic is slack some of the men are given leave for three months—what is called compulsory leave during the slack season.

B-3434. *Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola* : Without pay?—Yes, certainly.

B-3435. *Sir Victor Sassoon* : For how long?—Four months will be the longest period; it is during the slack season when there is little traffic; that has been the practice.

B-3436. *Mr. Gregory* : You have used the expression "compulsory leave". Which class of staff do you refer to?—I am referring to the running staff, drivers and guards.

B-3437. In reply to the Chairman you said that you considered the provision of vocational institutions inadequate. Having seen the policy in the Railway Board memorandum, do you still adhere to that?—Certainly. Shall I give a full account of my views on that?

*Mr. Gregory* : No thank you.

B-3438. *Sir Ernest Jackson* : You speak of the want of special schools and liberal grants-in-aid to the children of Railway workers. When you wrote that were you aware that the policy both of grants-in-aid and of the education of children has been under the consideration of the Government of India for about 18 months, and that a revised policy under these two heads is about to be issued and in fact has been agreed to, I understand, by the Standing Committee of the Legislative Assembly?—I had no means of knowing that, but since then I have seen something in the Railway Board memorandum.

B-3439. You also state that Rs. 35 should be the minimum pay for all rural districts?—Yes.

B-3440. But you also suggest that in addition to that minimum pay it will be necessary to give the employees an additional allowance?—For cities like Bombay; that is what I mean.

B-3441. Whatever the minimum pay may be which may be decided upon, whether it is Rs. 20, or Rs. 35 or Rs. 50? You are doubtless aware that the conditions throughout India vary considerably, and that what may be an adequate pay in one province or district may be quite inadequate, or, on the other hand, too much in another district?—I do not think there is such a marked difference in the minimum living conditions. Knowing India as I do from Madras to Kashmir I think Rs. 35 is absolutely necessary for a man to keep in good health, whether he is a coolie or whatever he is, Rs. 35 is the minimum to give him food, clothing, house accommodation, medical aid, education of children, and provision for sickness, old age, etc.

B-3442. Quite apart from the question of the amount of minimum wages, do you not think that if the minimum were fixed, further complications would immediately arise as to the amount of the additional allowances to be given according to the city or the Province in which that employee is stationed?—I am suggesting at another place staff and wages boards. If you have wages boards in different localities they will settle all these questions.

B-3443. You think there will be no further clamour for additional allowances to meet the extra cost in some particular place or district?—If you adopt the same machinery as they have in England under the English Railways Act, 1921, Part IV, which I think are known as Whitley Committees or Whitley Councils, there should be no difficulty whatever.

B-3444. In your memorandum you speak of the abuse of the fines fund; you state that it is mostly used for the benefit and enjoyment of Anglo-Indians and Europeans. At another place you recommend that unclaimed wages should be used for the benefit of the workmen in just the same way as the fines fund. Is not that a contradiction?—I do not mean that the fines funds should continue to be abused; it should be properly used in consultation with the Railwaymen's unions' representative; that is what I mean. The fines fund should not be used, as at present it is used in the absolute power of the Agent.

B-3445. Colonel Gidney suggested, and you agreed with him, that as far as unions are concerned it would be of immense benefit to the staff if the

Agents and officials met the unions and discussed things with them to try to come to cordial arrangements. Are you aware that in Bombay very great efforts have been made to that end? Are you also aware that so much were we and the Bombay union coming together to discuss these that it was too much for the union, and their Secretary who was meeting us was immediately discharged on the report, as I understand, that he was a spy of the Agent?—I was President of the B., B. and C. I. Railway Union at Parel up to about March or April last, and as far as I know I had no invitation from the authorities to consult with them. I do not know what they are doing now because the union is not under my direction.

B-3446. You have stated that the fines fund is abused. From whom mainly is it collected?—From the Railway staff.

B-3447. From the lowest staff?—Yes.

B-3448. Do they get much benefit from it?—The lowest staff get the least benefit from it.

B-3449. In your memorandum you say that Indians claim equal pay for equal work?—Yes.

B-3450. Will you kindly explain that?—What I have been maintaining is that everybody should get the value of his work; that is to say, if I do the same work as another man is doing, I should not get more pay than that man. Equal pay for equal work is a saying which is very fully understood.

B-3451. What is the particular application of it here? Do you think Indians are not paid equally for their work?—Certainly not.

B-3452. And others are paid disproportionately for the work they are doing?—They are paid unduly high wages as compared with the Indians. The Indians do not get a living wage while others may be getting a living wage. So far as subordinates are concerned, I do not think any subordinate is getting more than he actually earns.

B-3453. With regard to education do you think the Railway Company has taken sufficient care of the children of the Indian labourers?—No, they take very little interest or care of the children of Indians.

B-3454. Are there any night schools for teaching labourers?—While I was in the service I started one, but that was abolished directly, I left Ajmer.

B-3455. Do you think the wages that are being paid to the Indian labourers here are sufficient and living wages?—Certainly not; any wage below Rs. 35 is not a living wage.

B-3456. You have travelled on the Continent?—Yes.

B-3457. You must have seen how the skilled and unskilled labourers lived there?—Yes.

B-3458. Do you think they live there in such a lordly way as some of the so-called skilled labourers and unskilled labourers here who belong to the European and Anglo-Indian classes?—They do not live in that lordly way in England; they live like workmen.

B-3459. Do you know anything about the working of the staff committees?—I do not know anything about their working, but I know they are trying to get in the way of railway employees' unions.

B-3460. To what would you ascribe the indebtedness of the labourers here?—Low wages. What Mr. Kaboor-ud-din Ahmed called "eternal indebtedness" is due to these low wages; the men cannot get out of it though you may form a thousand credit societies.

B-3461. You live very near the Railway hospital?—Yes.

B-3462. Do you think that sufficient attention is paid to the labourers and other persons who attend the hospital?—People go to private practitioners.

B-3463. Why?—For treatment because they do not get proper treatment at the hospital.

B-3464. In its memorandum the Railway Board says that in Ajmer and in Bombay there is sufficient accommodation for the artisan class, and that it is not necessary to provide any housing accommodation or land for them. Do you think there is sufficient housing accommodation in Ajmer?—No; the Indians have been totally neglected in the matter of housing accommodation in Ajmer.

B-3465. But do they get sufficient accommodation anywhere; in the city, and other places?—I would not live in the city for a day under such conditions; the accommodation is not at all healthy. One of the Members of the Commission has remarked about tuberculosis; that disease is extending in Ajmer on account of insufficient air.

B-3466. I think you have seen that portion of Nagra where many people live?—Yes.

B-3467. What sort of huts are there?—In 1908 as Municipal Commissioner of Ajmer I went round and I found men who once get on the ground never rose.

B-3468. *The Chairman*: Did the Municipality do anything to cure that?—It was not within their province.

B-3469. *Sir Ernest Jackson*: You have been on the Municipality?—I was on the Municipality.

B-3470. Do the Railway assist the municipality in any way in cleaning the streets?—They pay only for the work the Municipality does for them.

B-3471. The majority of the inhabitants of Ajmer are Railway people?—Half the population of Ajmer is connected with railway employees.

B-3472. *Colonel Russell*: You say that the medical aid provided by the Railway administration is neither adequate nor acceptable. Will you let us know in which direction medical aid is neither adequate nor acceptable?—There is no provision for the families of Indian railways employees. That is one inadequacy. The other is that the men themselves have to go to private practitioners.

B-3473. Is that the only reason?—That is the reason, and that is sufficient reason; the men cannot get treatment and so they go elsewhere.

B-3474. You say they cannot get treatment at the Railway hospitals?—They do not get proper treatment. The men complain; of course I would not like to repeat their complaint, but they bitterly complain.

B-3475. Of what?—They complain that they are not attended to; they are being driven away.

B-3476. The registers show there is an attendance of about 600 per day?—There may be, but this is what I hear from the men; I never go there myself.

B-3477. *Mr. Cliff*: Have you any knowledge of the Agent of this Railway proceeding in a general way to establish a minimum wage?—No.

B-3478. Therefore if the Railway Board suggested that he was, they would not be speaking the truth?—I cannot say, he may have made proposals, but not to my knowledge.

B-3479. Do you agree with the Agent of this Railway that there were two trade unions formed in 1920?—Yes.

B-3480. Do you agree with the Agent of this Railway that neither of these unions was recognised till 1926?—I had experience of that. They refused repeatedly. The men wanted the union to be recognised, but the Agent refused to recognize it until 1926.

B-3481. And do you agree that they were not recognised till that date?—Yes.

B-3482. Can you tell me whether in the formation of these staff committees the trade unions were ever consulted?—No.

B-3483. Can you tell me the reason why guards on mail and passenger trains work shorter hours than the drivers?—No, I cannot give you information on that point.

B-3484. Is it within your knowledge that the drivers of mail and passenger trains work 70 hours a week?—I cannot say.

B-3485. There were some questions on the minimum wage. Would you be prepared for the purpose of establishing minimum living rates of wages to agree to a series of wages boards being set up in order to determine these wages rates?—Certainly; local boards in each local centre.

B-3486. I understand you are prepared to speak to us on behalf of the trade union to set up similar committees to what are in existence in England?—Exactly.

B-3487. Is it your view that the representatives of the Railway trade unions and the Railway workpeople themselves are competent to put their own business before such bodies?—Some of them are if the railway restrictions are withdrawn. If the men are allowed to form their unions freely, I should say a number of educated men will join the unions and guide the unions on very sound lines.

B-3488. And you believe they will be capable of transacting their own business?—Certainly.

B-3489. Will you kindly tell us the kind of restriction you refer to?—I might in a general way say that the Presidential addresses at the Indian Railway Conference Association from 1920 had been generally against the formation of unions by railwaymen.

B-3490. Reference has been made to grades of labour enumerated A, B, C, D and E. Might a man on the E grade be doing exactly the same work as a man on the D grade?—Exactly.

B-3491. Might he be doing the same work as a man on the C grade?—Yes, very nearly the same work.

B-3492. Did the two separate unions of this railway represent the same class of labour that is employed here in Ajmer?—No. The B., B. & C. I. Railway Employees' Union represents the workshops staff at Parel. The B., B. & C. I. Ry. Men's Association represents the running and station staff and some other staff also of which I am not aware.

B-3493. So that one of the unions represents the men working in a similar shop to the one at Ajmer?—Yes. This Ajmer union should have been a branch of the Bombay union but for the obstacles thrown in their way.

B-3494. You are in favour of paying wages weekly?—Yes.

B-3495. What is your reason?—The wages are low, although the railway authorities will not admit, but charge the men with extravagance. Weekly payment of wages will enable the men to pay the shop-keepers more quickly and clear off their liabilities.

B-3496. If wages were paid weekly, in your opinion there would be less indebtedness, because the workers would be able to clear their liabilities to the shop-keepers more quickly?—Yes, that is so.

B-3497. Do any of the railway men who are paid wages monthly go to the banias for advances?—A good many go. But then there is also the co-operative stores which gives credit to members of the society.

B-3498. Is that a co-operative society which sells food and clothing?—I do not know if they sell clothing. They sell food grains on credit during the month.

B-3499. Is the credit given free or have they to pay interest?—No, that is free to the members of the Society.

B-3500. Instead of paying weekly, they pay monthly?—Yes.

B-3501. Some of the workers go to the banias. Have you any experience of that?—I have not myself gone to a bania, but I know from others who have gone that the bania charges more for his goods because he gives credit. Buying with cash is always cheaper than buying on credit.

B-3502. So that the bania charges more for your food?—Certainly.

B-3503. *Mr. Ahmed*: What do you think is a living wage for a labourer with a wife and two children?—Rs. 35 is the minimum to cover the cost of food, clothing, housing, medical aid and education for children, and a little saving against the rainy day.

B-3504. But some people told us here yesterday that they got only 9 to 11 annas. Is that a sufficient wage?—No, that is not.

B-3505. So you are in favour of increasing that?—Yes.

B-3506. The employers generally say that workshop labour is paid more than agricultural labour in the villages; and make out a case for not increasing their wages. Do you not think that agricultural labourers in the villages get some facilities from the headmen of the village, and that living is much cheaper in a village than in a town?—Yes.

B-3507. To live in Ajmer it costs as much as living in Bombay or Calcutta?—Yes. I am an agriculturist myself and I engage men. Besides paying them their wages I give them many other things such as food, clothing and surplus produce if any.

Is that the case with other agriculturists here also?—Yes.

B-3508. So that you cannot compare factory labour with agricultural labour?—No.

B-3509. *The Chairman*: Do these happy people get Rs. 35 a month?—Without Rs. 35 they get all the necessaries of life to keep them normally healthy and strong besides keeping them out of debt.

B-3510. That is equivalent to Rs. 35 a month?—Yes.

B-3511. *Mr. Ahmed*: Do you not give your labourers half a seer of milk free every day and sweets and things of that sort on festive occasions?—Yes.

B-3512. Have you ever heard of an Agent of the Railway or an officer of the Railway giving feasts to the labourers on any occasion?—No, never.

B-3513. Do they pay wages to the workmen if they do not go to the workshops on account of illness?—No, they do not.

B-3514. They give some holidays such as the Puja holidays and so on. Do they pay them their wages for those holidays?—For some holidays such as King's birthday altogether 15 for the whole year, they pay. For the rest they do not.

B-3515. With regard to housing do you not think that these workers should be given adequate accommodation in the towns?—Yes, preferably in the suburbs.

B-3516. With regard to construction of wagons, are not all the necessary materials available here in India except probably wheels and axles?—Yes, even they can be cast in the foundries. Ajmer has taken a lead in the matter; they have been manufacturing rolling stock such as engines since 1897.

B-3517. Are you in favour of manufacturing them here instead of importing them from foreign countries at enormous cost?—Yes. I am for the manufacture of these articles not only here, but throughout India.

B-3518. The Railways are not running their business on a commercial basis if under the circumstances they get their requirements from foreign countries?—No.

B-3519. What is the reason for it?—Only a disinclination to deprive European countries of this work. On the other hand if the work were done in India there would be less unemployment, and more technical skill and experience would be accumulated in the country. That would indirectly benefit agriculture also.

B-3520. *Sir Alexander Murray*: You say that Rs. 35 is the minimum living wage?—Yes.

B-3521. For how many days' work in the month?—26 days, with the usual allowance for leave.

B-3522. How many days' leave would you have? We have had evidence from the workers yesterday that they should have 30 days' privilege leave?—Yes, that is allowed under the Government leave rules.

B-3523. In addition they suggest 10 days' casual leave?—Yes.

B-3524. There are 52 Sundays in a year?—Sundays are universal holidays.

B-3525. They have many other holidays such as Bakrid, New Year's Day and so on which come to 26 a year. You will give these public holidays also?—Yes. What does the total come to?

B-3526. The total comes to 118 holidays including privilege leave, casual leave, Sundays and Gasetted holidays. That leaves 247 working days in a year of 365 days, or eight months in a year. Do you approve of a man working only eight months a year?—The Government have done it and I would not alter the Government code. I think whatever Government have done is right.

B-3527. I am very glad to hear you say a good word about Government. Do you think it a reasonable proposition that an ordinary menial labourer should be required to work only for 8 months a year?—Yes. Every man is an equal servant. The menial labourer is also a man like everybody else.

B-3528. I am sorry I said that. Do you think that an ordinary working man on the railway should work only eight months a year?—If the higher officials do only eight months a year, why should not the poor men also have the same privilege. Every man must have the same privileges. As an employer myself I treat my workmen just like myself.

B-3529. I am glad to hear that from you. But do you think it reasonable that they should get 12 months' pay at Rs. 35 a month and work only for 8 months a year?—How much per day would that work out to?—Holidays must not be counted at all; they are intended for rest and recuperation, just the same as you have.

B-3530. What do you think is a reasonable pay for a working day?—You will have to divide Rs. 35 by 30 to get that. That is a simple question in arithmetic.

B-3531. You divide Rs. 35 by the number of days in a month. I want you to divide the total of Rs. 35 per month for 12 months by 247 days, because he is only working for so many days?—Non-working days go towards the rest of the worker. He deserved the same rest as others.

B-3532. Sir Victor Sassoon : I was most interested in that remark of yours. But do you actually give 118 holidays in the year to your workmen?—My workers have very easy work.

B-3533. But have they 118 holidays a year?—They get as many as they require. I do not deduct from their monthly pay anything for absence through sickness.

B-3534. But would the number of holidays go up to 118?—It may even exceed that. I give them easy work to do. I do not exact the pound of flesh.

B-3535. Besides so many concessions your agriculturists get an equivalent of Rs. 35 a month. You also say that they get 118 holidays in the year and even more, for rest. Do you maintain that this is not peculiar to you and that this is usual among employers of agricultural labour round about the country here?—The economic conditions in India are very bad. There is unemployment and poverty. So much so, the poor workers are driven to accept whatever you give. That does not mean that the low wages they get are the prevailing wages everywhere or that they are sufficient for their living.

B-3536. I want you to be quite clear on this. This living wage of Rs. 35 a month the equivalent of which you give your agricultural workers, is this

not only what you are giving and therefore exceptional, but the usual rate in this part of the country?—The majority of agriculturists do their work themselves; only a few like myself employ labour.

B-3537. Would you say that those who are working for themselves are getting an equivalent of the standard of living of a railway man getting Rs. 35 a month?—Yes, otherwise they would not live; they would not continue their agricultural pursuits.

B-3538. Do you admit that the agriculturists form the large majority of the population in India?—Yes.

B-3539. In that case the large majority of the population of this country is living on an equivalent of Rs. 35 a month?—Certainly they have the same comforts.

B-3540. In your memorandum you have stated that the condition of agriculturists in India is more miserable than that of an average factory worker?—How do you reconcile the two?—They should adopt methods of co-operation such as are in vogue in Denmark. You would find them advocated in my book, "Agricultural Co-operation in Denmark" which I wrote after visiting that country two summers. If our agriculturists suffer here now, it is because they do not adopt those methods.

B-3541. So that what you maintain is not that the agriculturists are at present actually earning Rs. 35 a month, but that is what they might earn if they followed the methods of co-operation of the Danes?—It is difficult for me to answer that. A rural survey will have to be made in order to understand the real situation. I can only speak for the agricultural labourers whom I employ.

B-3542. Would you say, not only for yourself but also generally for the people round about Ajmer,—I am not asking you to go to Madras or to Kashmir to let us have these details—that the agricultural labourer whether working for himself or working for a good employer like you, gets the equivalent of Rs. 35 a month?—If that were so, that would have a great deal of influence on our work?—I must draw a line between agricultural labourers and railway employees. Take a pointman. If he puts a train on the wrong line he is liable to be criminally prosecuted and sent to jail. The agricultural labourer has no such liability.

B-3543. Would you put a money value on that?—Why not? The man takes such risk.

(The witness withdrew.)



**Miss J. E. COPELAND, M.A., Church of Scotland Mission House, Ajmer, accompanied by Mr. Kanhaiyalal Gargiya.**

B-3544. *Miss Power*: In your memorandum you say: "There should be some organized system of recruiting labour. The need is specially urgent in the matter of getting boys into suitable employment when they leave school and in the matter of securing a better system of apprenticeship and training, either within the area or beyond."

You are dealing here with the comparatively small percentage of literate children, or rather boys?—Yes.

B-3545. How do they now find employment?—This does not refer to railway employment only, but to all kinds of employment. It seems to me that there is a wastage when boys leave school and do not immediately get into suitable employment. If there were some means by which the boys might learn the type of work most suitable to their capabilities, if they could learn what might be required of them for their vocation in life, they might stay a little longer at school or be drafted into vocational training classes. In this way the wastage might be avoided.

B-3546. But what is open to these literate boys now except the railways?—There are various forms of work in which they could be engaged: printing presses, carpenters' shops in the city and several other kinds of skilled work. There are various factories, where employment can be had. The only thing is that they should know the conditions of work in each place, the amount of education that is required, the terms of apprenticeship and so on, so that they may be drafted into some suitable occupation immediately on leaving school and the present waste avoided, with profit to the boys and to industries generally.

B-3547. Are there in fact many false starts? Does a boy drift from one occupation to another before he finds a suitable one for himself?—My experience is that a boy generally wastes a couple of years after leaving school. He works casually, sometimes here and sometimes there before he gets into a suitable occupation. It does not seem to me as if most of the boys go on a steady march towards some higher post.

B-3548. Would you like some sort of vocational guidance?—Something similar to what the After-care Committees do at home.

B-3549. Who should start such committees? Would you have them done by Government or by voluntary organisations?—The After-care Committee for boys might be a voluntary one, run very definitely in connection with schools to begin with. That would open the field for investigation into what is necessary. People like headmasters and teachers would know that an enquiry along these lines into the boys' capabilities might be made and help given to them to get into suitable occupations.

B-3550. Has that sort of thing ever been attempted anywhere?—I am not aware of anything in this district.

B-3551. Not even by missionary societies or other such bodies?—In practice Missionary societies help those boys who are known to them. My proposal was about boys who were not in touch with the missionaries or with people who knew about the conditions of labour who could give them any help. We are able to give for example in our mission some help to the boys we know.

B-3552. In your memorandum you say:

"There is considerable unemployment. The B., B. & C. I. Rly. which is the largest employer of labour in the area, is reducing its staff of workmen." I expect you probably heard this morning that that statement was challenged?—Yes.

B-3553. What is your experience with regard to unemployment?—I do not put this down as the only reason for unemployment. That is merely one reason which strikes the eye of an ordinary observer, that men are

seeking work and that work is not available in the largest concern in the district.

B-3554. What sort of men are seeking work?—Some are of the coolie class, some are semi-skilled labourers. There are also some fitters and carpenters, etc., etc.

B-3555. Where do they come from?—Ajmer.

B-3556. They are residents of the town?—Mostly.

B-3557. You say there is a shortage of houses for working people in Ajmer. The Railway authorities say that they do not provide accommodation for workers of the grade of artisans as there is ample to be obtained in the town. What is your experience?—My experience is that the housing accommodation is neither sufficient nor healthy. Ajmer city is very crowded and the sanitary conditions are not good. It would be a great benefit if houses could be provided on the outskirts.

B-3558. Do you mean municipal houses, or houses supplied by the Railway?—Either.

B-3559. Are there houses available beyond the means of those seeking them?—I daresay there are.

B-3560. You say that the working conditions are on the whole satisfactory in the bigger concerns. I take it you mean by that those places which come under the Factory Act?—Yes.

B-3561. Speaking of work done in the home, you say that the conditions are not good because of the low rates of pay, bad sanitary arrangements and the small size and bad ventilation of most of the workers' houses?—I would like this Commission to make some enquiry into these home industries. Either the work is brought to the women's homes or else they go and get it and bring it back.

B-3562. Have you any idea as to what a woman earns on that kind of work?—About six annas a day if they work for about 10 hours.

B-3563. You refer to crèches at particular mills. Is your complaint there that the crèche is simply a space allocated for the children, without any convenience or supervision, and that therefore very little use is made of it?—Yes. There are two sheds available but no one is in charge. There is no furnishing, and no other arrangements are provided.

B-3564. How much are these sheds used in practice as the result of there being no supervision?—As a matter of fact the children just play around the yard. They do not go into the building provided for them. If there was some one in charge, who could look after the children, give them treatment, such as a daily bath, and so on, it would not only benefit the children, but it would be an object lesson to the mothers. So far as I know the mill authorities would be quite willing to undertake such a responsibility.

B-3565. How many women are employed in the three mills to which you refer?—About 150, but very many more are employed in the ginning factories during the season.

B-3566. You say that the mills contribute to the schools in the city but that these schools are not attended by the workers' children who are almost entirely illiterate. Is that because the children are themselves at work?—No. The reason is that the parents are not alive to the necessity of sending their children to school.

B-3567. You say the working hours in the mills should be reduced from 10 to 9 or 8 per day. Is it your contention that if the hours were reduced to, say, 8 per day, the same volume of output would be achieved?—I do not think that that result would be achieved immediately, but my feeling is that if the women (and I only refer here to women) worked only 8 hours per day,

there would then be time for them to attend to their other interests. Welfare work could be done amongst them. If they work ten hours a day, for part of the year at any rate, they have no time to look after any other interest. I think it is in the interests of better work that the working woman should be made more intelligent, her outlook broadened and her standard of living raised. I do not see how we are going to raise her standard of living unless she has some time in which to give attention to matters of hygiene, better living, and so on. I think if the women only worked 8 hours a day, thus giving time for some uplift work to be done amongst them, it would result in more concentrated effort.

B-3568. If there were a shorter legal working day for women than for men, do you not think that might have the effect of penalising the employment of women?—It would probably have that effect.

B-3569. If there is any lowering of the hours of work, do you not think it should apply both to men and to women?—Yes, I think it should.

B-3570. Colonel Russell : Can you give us any idea of the death rate and infant mortality rate in Ajmer?—I have not the figures.

B-3571. I understand you are associated to some extent at least with the Mission hospital here. You will no doubt be able to give us some information as regards the incidence of various diseases here. Is it your experience that tuberculosis exists to a high degree in Ajmer?—Yes. In a recent classification of cities, Ajmer was put down as a C. 3 city, as far as tuberculosis was concerned. That means the highest death rate from tuberculosis.

B-3572. Has that anything to do with the question of the shortage of houses and overcrowding?—Yes. One factor is the overcrowding of houses. There are other factors also.

B-3573. You say the conditions are not good because of the low rates of pay. Can you give the Commission some family budgets of the lowest grade of worker? Yes. I have one or two budgets here which have been given to me by coolies and workmen. Here is one earning one rupee a day, of eight hours. He may, by doing overtime, earn Rs. 1/2 or Rs. 1/4. He spends on food alone Rs. 22/12; on house rent Rs. 4/4. His monthly earnings average Rs. 26.

B-3574. How does he make his both ends meet?—He is in debt, but he ekes out his earnings by doing odd jobs out of work hours and on holidays.

B-3575. Does the wife add to the income?—Not in this case. Here is another budget of a workman earning 12 annas a day; average monthly earnings Rs. 19 or 20. He pays Rs. 18/4 for food alone—husband, wife and child. He pays Rs. 3 for rent, making a total of Rs. 21/4, and his average earnings are Rs. 20. He also works overtime. Here is another one. The man earns Rs. 15, and his food bill only comes to Rs. 12/15, but I think his food items miss out certain vital and necessary things, for instance, ghee.

B-3576. What about vegetables?—Vegetables are very scant.

B-3577. The previous witness, I think, said that the minimum wage ought to be Rs. 35. What is your opinion on that figure?—Personally I think that is perhaps rather high; I think the average food necessary is about Rs. 6 per adult.

B-3578. That would be Rs. 12 for a man and his wife?—Yes.

B-3579. And supposing there were three children varying in ages from 10 to 2 years?—You could count them as two adults.

B-3580. That would be Rs. 24 on food alone. What about clothing?—I think that could be done—of course we are speaking of the minimum—within Rs. 2 per month.

B-3581. Then he would get medical treatment free, I suppose?—Yes.

B-3582. Do you add anything else to that budget?—Probably he has to pay rent.

B-3583. How much?—On an average Rs. 3.

B-3584. Anything else?—There would be some incidental expenses; he will probably have to contribute to his community life in some way, like church collections, etc.

B-3585. That comes to over Rs. 30?—Yes.

B-3586. *Miss Power*: What do you say would be the living minimum wage for a family of five in Ajmer?—I think about Rs. 30 would be a very good sum. A great many people manage on less. I have a budget, for example, of a man who has his wife and four children; he has kept out of debt on Rs. 15, but, of course, as I said, that omits certain necessary items from his diet.

B-3587. When you say he can manage on Rs. 30 it presupposes that his wife is not working?—Yes, taking the family income as Rs. 30.

B-3588. *Colonel Russell*: Would you tell us who compiled these budgets?—I collected them.

B-3589. From the individuals themselves?—Yes.

B-3590. You are satisfied that these figures are reasonably correct?—Yes, because I have a basis for comparison. You take the budget for food, for example, in our hospitals or schools as a criterion. Of course, you can do things very much more cheaply in large quantities but still that gives you a basis for comparison.

B-3591. What would be the average monthly cost for a pupil in your school? I think you have girls there upto 15 years of age?—Yes, up to 18. The average is Rs. 5-4-0 per head.

B-3592. You can feed them on that?—Yes.

B-3593. Does that include articles like ghee and vegetables which would give them vitamins that are so necessary for a good diet?—Yes; and meat twice a week.

B-3594. With regard to the question of welfare work, you would like to have additional trained midwives to look after the wives of workers and children of men and women workers?—That only refers to the Beawar Mills, Yes.

B-3595. Are trained midwives available?—Yes; I think they would be available.

B-3596. You could get a sufficient number of recruits for that class of work?—Yes, they would be available.

B-3597. In your memorandum you say "Apart from this (that is, a Christmas tree and sports day I take it) no definite welfare work is being done among the Railway Indian employees."

On what lines do you think such definite welfare work should be done?—I would like to see either a welfare worker appointed by the Railway, or facilities granted in the way of a house, and perhaps a hall, which would become a community centre for the lowest paid Indian workmen. If the Railway could not appoint an officer, perhaps the Y. M. C. A. might be approached to send a man, if they could be guaranteed suitable accommodation.

B-3598. You think it might be possible for the Railway to appoint a welfare officer of its own?—I think that would be best, if they could see their way to do it.

B-3599. Should that welfare officer be a male or a female?—In Ajmer certainly a man, because there are not many women workers here, and none in the Railway.

B-3600. You say "This attempt at welfare should be resumed". Why was it stopped?—It was stopped, because that particular social worker went home.

B-3601. It was dependent on a voluntary worker?—Yes—this particular effort to which I refer here.

B-3602. You refer to the question of crèches. You approve of the principles of having crèches for the accommodation of children of women workers?—Yes, because I think they are a valuable means of training a woman how to look after her children, and of training the children in good habits.

B-3603. Have you any experience of the working of crèches in India?—No, not for any lengthy period.

B-3604. Would you be surprised to know that in several instances we have learnt that they have been failures?—I know there are difficulties, especially if the crèches are outside the mill premises. In the case of the particular mills mentioned, I think if the existing sheds were improved, and if it were made possible for the children to be near their mothers who could go and see them at any time they wanted to, some of the difficulties might be met. My idea is that a well-qualified woman should be in charge of every crèche.

B-3605. *The Chairman* : Have the employers been asked to provide these crèches?—The matter has been brought to their attention, and is at present engaging their attention.

B-3606. It is not that they decline to provide them?—Not at all; I think they will favourably consider the matter.

B-3607. *Colonel Russell* : Again you say "Beawar separate latrine and bathing arrangements should be provided." Does it imply that there are no separate latrines or bathing arrangements?—There are separate latrines in one sense, but the compound is so big that it seems to me that the women's arrangement might be put in one corner and the men's in another. I was told that women did not use the bathing arrangements, which were excellent, and I thought that if the authorities provided them in another corner they would probably be utilized.

B-3608. Certain complaints have been made to the Royal Commission that the medical treatment and advice given to the workers in Ajmer is inadequate. Do you consider that there are any grounds for any complaints or have you heard of such complaints?—My experience would lead me to suppose that there were no grounds.

B-3609. Would you prefer to say anything more?—So far as I know, they get very good treatment in this hospital. I have visited the railway hospital where the patients are really very happy and contented and my own experience would lead me to suppose that there were no grounds for complaint.

B-3610. You are closely connected with the mission hospital. Is any large proportion of their patients drawn from railway workers communities?—I have not gone into the lists of patients to know that; but in the case of *parda* women certainly, because there is no *parda* ward in the railway hospital. A great many *parda* women come to the mission hospital, but I do not know whether they belong to the railway workers communities.

B-3611. But do you think it would be a reasonable demand if the workers should ask for *parda* wards in the railway hospital?—It would be quite reasonable. The railway hospital is in one part of the city while the mission hospital is in another, and if the railway hospital provides *parda* wards it will meet the needs of those who are nearer to that end.

B-3612. *Mrs. Martin* : You said that medical facilities are provided for females in the railway hospital. Can you tell us how many women go there as in-patients?—I have no idea.

B-3613. How many Indian women nurses or midwives are there?—I do not know the number of staff.

B-3614. Do you know what provision is made in the hospital for women in-patients?—We learnt this morning that two wards have been set apart for Indian women.

B-3615. Is there any Indian woman doctor who attends on them?—I think the sister looks after them.

B-3616. Is there a lady doctor?—No.

Are there Indian nurses?—There are Anglo-Indian nurses.

B-3617. It does not matter whether there are Indian nurses or Anglo-Indian nurses, but are the nurses in sufficient number?—I think so, as far as my knowledge goes.

(The witness withdrew.)

**ROYAL COMMISSION**

**ON**

**LABOUR IN INDIA**

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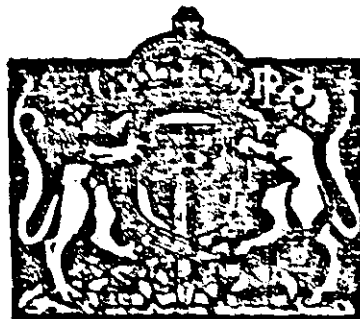
**TO**

**Volume II, Parts I and II**

**PUNJAB, DELHI**

**and**

**AJMER-MERWARA**



**SIMLA**

**GOVERNMENT OF INDIA PRESS**

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