



ROYAL COMMISSION  
ON  
INDIAN LABOUR

MEMORANDUM  
OF WRITTEN EVIDENCE OF  
GOVERNMENT WITNESSES  
BOMBAY PRESIDENCY

*[For official use only]*

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## ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR IN INDIA

Sir,

The Chairman of the Royal Commission on Labour in India desires me to send you the enclosed paper setting out the terms of reference to the Commission and a Schedule of the subjects falling within them which appear likely to engage the Commissioners' attention in the course of their enquiry.

I am to invite you/your organisation to submit, for the information of the Commission, any written statement which is likely to contribute to the objects of the inquiry.

The attached Schedule of subjects is not intended to be exhaustive and the Commission will welcome evidence on any matter falling within the scope of their inquiry, whether included in the Schedule or not. They also consider it unlikely that you will feel called upon to deal with all the headings of the Schedule, and I am to suggest that you should select those in the subject-matter of which your experience mainly lies. They would be glad if in dealing with subjects mentioned in the Schedule you would number the various parts of your reply to correspond with the headings numbered in Arabic numerals in the Schedule (Nos. 1—146).

The Commission attach great importance to detailed evidence based on personal experience of particular industries, localities or establishments, and they trust that no possible witness will be deterred from proffering such evidence by its comparatively narrow field. Where information of a definitely statistical nature can be given this will naturally be of the greatest value to the Commission.

In the case of witnesses giving evidence on behalf of industrial institutions it will be of assistance if they will state in their evidence the nature of the firm's business, its output, period for which it has been operating, and particulars of number and grading of its employees, male, female and juvenile.

The Commission will find it of assistance if any memorandum of evidence you may be willing to put forward may be sent as soon as possible, and in any case not later than the 25th September 1929, to the—

Joint Secretary to the Royal Commission on Labour in India,  
Camp, India.

The Commission will of necessity have to limit the volume of oral evidence taken by them, but they would be obliged if you could state whether you wish to give evidence in person before them and, if so, at

what place it would be most convenient for you to do so. They expect to visit all the leading industrial centres and probably all the provincial capitals in the course of the cold weather of 1929-30.

I am, Sir,  
Your obedient servant,

S. LALL,  
*Joint Secretary to the  
Royal Commission on Labour in India.*

To

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\_\_\_\_\_

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## ENCLOSURE No. 1

## THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR IN INDIA

*Terms of Reference.*

"To inquire into and report on the existing conditions of labour in industrial undertakings and plantations in British India, on the health, efficiency and standard of living of the workers, and on the relations between employers and employed, and to make recommendations."

NOTE.—"Industrial undertaking" for the purpose of the Commission is interpreted as in Article I of the Washington Hours Convention, which is as follows :—

"For the purpose of this Convention, the term 'industrial undertaking' includes particularly :—

"(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

"(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding and the generation, transformation and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind.

"(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gaswork, waterwork or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundations of any such work or structure.

"(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road, rail, sea, or inland waterway, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves or warehouses, but excluding transport by hand."

The competent authority in each country shall define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

## ENCLOSURE No. 2

## ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR IN INDIA

*List of Subjects***I. Recruitment.**

- (1) *Origin of Labour.*
  - (i) Extent of migration.
  - (ii) Causes of particular streams of migration.
  - (iii) Changes in recent years.
- (2) *Contact with villages.*
  - (i) Extent and frequency of return.
  - (ii) Extent of permanent labour force.
- (3) *Methods of recruitment.*
  - (i) Existing methods.
  - (ii) Possible improvement.
  - (iii) Public employment agencies.
    - (a) Desirability of establishing.
    - (b) Possibility of practical schemes.
- (4) *Extent and effects of disturbance of family life.*
- (5) *Recruitment of seamen.*
  - (i) Existing practice.
  - (ii) Effect of changes introduced in Calcutta.
  - (iii) Suggestions for improvement.
- (6) *Recruitment for Assam.*
  - (i) Need of retention of control.
  - (ii) Administration of present system.
  - (iii) Composition and working of Assam Labour Board.
  - (iv) Defects of existing Act and system.
  - (v) Possible substitutes.
- (7) *Unemployment.*
  - (i) Extent and character.
  - (ii) Extent to which caused by—
    - (a) Retrenchment or dismissals.
    - (b) Voluntary retirement.
    - (c) Other causes.
  - (iii) Possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress.
  - (iv) Unemployment Insurance.
  - (v) Application of International Conventions relating to unemployment.
- (8) *Labour "turnover."\**
  - (i) Average duration of employment.
  - (ii) Extent of casual employment.

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\* This word should be read as indicating generally the changes in composition of the labour staff of an undertaking.

## (iii) Absenteeism.

- (a) Extent, character and causes.
- (b) Seasonal or otherwise.
- (c) Time and wages lost.

(9) *Apprentices Act, 1850.*  
Value of.**II. Staff Organisation.**

- (10) *Details of organisation, administrative and departmental.*
- (11) *Selection of managing staff.*
- (12) *Recruitment and training of supervising staff, superior and subordinate.*
  - (i) Methods in force.
  - (ii) Facilities for training and promotion of workmen.
- (13) *Relations between staff and rank and file.*
  - (i) Relations generally.
  - (ii) Value and defects of system of employing jobbers.
  - (iii) Works Committees: their constitution, extent and achievements.
  - (iv) Works Councils and Industrial Councils.
- (14) *Timekeeping, piecework, contract and attendance registers.*
  - (i) How and by whom kept and checked.
  - (ii) How and by whom wages actually paid to workers.
- (15) *Contractors as intermediaries.*
  - (i) Extent and character of work given on contract.
  - (ii) Extent of sub-contracting.
  - (iii) Control exercised over working conditions.
  - (iv) Effects.

**III. Housing.**

- (16) *Extent to which housing is provided.*
  - (i) By employers.
  - (ii) By Government or other public agency.
  - (iii) By private landlords.
  - (iv) By workers themselves.
- (17) *Facilities for acquisition of land for workers' houses.*
- (18) *Nature of accommodation provided in each class.*
  - (i) In relation to workers' demands.
  - (ii) In relation to best type from health point of view.
  - (iii) Provision made for lighting, conservancy and water supply.
- (19) *Utilization by workers of accommodation available.*
- (20) *Rent rates in various classes.*



- (21) *Special problems arising in connection with various classes of housing.*  
*e.g., Subletting ;*  
 Occupation of employers' houses by tenants in other employ ;  
 Eviction.
- (22) *Moral effect on worker of industrial housing conditions.*  
*Improvements tried and suggested.*

#### IV. Health.

- (23) *General health conditions of workers.*  
 (i) Figures of mortality.  
 (ii) Birth rate and infant mortality.  
 Methods of registration.  
 (iii) Working conditions—  
     (a) at work places ;  
     (b) at home.  
 (iv) Dietary.  
 (v) Physique.  
 (vi) Effects of disturbance of sex ratio in industrial cities.  
 (vii) Relation between housing and mortality.
- (24) *Extent of medical facilities provided.*  
 (i) By employers.  
 (ii) By Government.  
 (iii) By other agencies.  
 (iv) Provision for women doctors, trained midwives or dais.
- (25) *Extent to which medical facilities are utilised.*  
 (i) Generally.  
 (ii) By women.
- (26) *Sanitary arrangements, (a) at work places, (b) at home.*  
 (i) Latrines.  
 (ii) Drinking water.  
 (iii) Bathing and washing.
- (27) *Extent and nature of official supervision.*  
 (i) Work of Boards of Health in special areas.  
 (ii) Inspection of plantations.  
 (iii) In mill and other industrial areas.
- (28) *Suitability of existing Factories and Mines Acts and Rules.*  
 (i) Control of temperature in factories.  
 (ii) Control of humidification in cotton mills.  
     (a) Nature of action taken by Local Governments.  
     (b) Results.
- (29) *Disease.*  
 (i) Prevalence of industrial diseases.  
 (ii) Prevalence of cholera, malaria, hookworm and other tropical diseases.

- (30) *Sickness insurance.*  
 (i) Suitability of International Labour Convention.  
 (ii) Possibility of introducing other systems.  
 (iii) How to meet difficulties arising from non-acceptability of Western medicine, paucity of medical men, migration of labour, finance.
- (31) *Maternity benefits.*  
 (i) Extent and working of existing schemes (including allowances given before and after childbirth).  
 (ii) History of central and provincial Bills.  
 (iii) Possibility of legislation.

#### V. Welfare (other than Health and Housing, but including Education).

- (32) *Extent of welfare work.*  
 (i) By employers.  
 (ii) By other agencies.
- (33) *Employment of Welfare Officers and workers.*
- (34) *Nature of other Welfare activities, (a) by employers, (b) by other agencies.*  
 (i) Provision for refreshments, shelters and crèches.  
 (ii) Provision for physical culture, recreation and amusements.  
 (iii) Other activities.
- (35) *Results achieved.*
- (36) *Provision of educational facilities by employers—*  
 (i) For adult workers.  
 (ii) For half-time workers.  
 (iii) For workers' children.  
 (iv) Extent to which used.
- (37) *Desirability and possibility of provision for old age and premature retirement.*
- (38) *Co-operation.*
- (39) *Possibility and desirability of a Statutory Miners' Welfare Fund.*

#### VI. Education.

- (40) *Facilities for general education in industrial areas.*  
 (i) Of children not in employment.  
 (ii) Of children employed in factories.  
 (iii) Of adults.
- (41) *Facilities for industrial and vocational training.*
- (42) *Effect of education on standard of living and industrial efficiency of workers.*

#### VII. Safety.

- (43) *Existing regulations in factories, mines, railways and docks.*  
 (44) *Incidence of accidents in factories, mines, railways and docks.*

- (45) *Causes.*
- (46) *Accident prevention* (including "Safety First" propaganda).
- (47) *Accidents in non-regulated establishments.*
- (48) *First-aid and medical relief.*
- (49) *Stringency of inspection and enforcement of regulations.*
  - (i) In industry generally.
  - (ii) In seasonal industries.
- (50) *Effect upon safety of hours, health, light and working conditions generally.*

### VIII. Workmen's Compensation,

- (51) *Workmen's Compensation Act.*
  - (i) Extent of use.
  - (ii) Comparison with extent of possible claims.
  - (iii) Effects on industry.
  - (iv) Availability and use of insurance facilities and value from workers' point of view.
  - (v) Desirability of compulsory insurance by employers.
- (52) *Desirability of extending Act to other occupations.*  
Possibility of providing against insolvency of employers who might be so covered.
- (53) *Suitability of provisions relating to—*
  - (i) Scales of compensation.
  - (ii) Conditions governing grant of compensation.
  - (iii) Industrial diseases.
  - (iv) Machinery of administration.
  - (v) Other matters.
- (54) *Desirability of legislation on lines of Employers' Liability Act, 1880.*

### IX. Hours.

#### A. Factories.

- (55) *Hours worked per week and per day.*
  - (i) Normal, i.e., as determined by custom or agreement.
  - (ii) Actual, i.e., including overtime.
  - (iii) Spreadover, i.e., relation between hours worked and hours during which worker is on call.
- (56) *Days worked per week.*
- (57) *Effect of 60 hours restriction—*
  - (i) On workers.
  - (ii) On industry.
- (58) *Effect of daily limit.*
- (59) *Possibility of reduction in maxima.*
- (60) *Intervals.*
  - (i) Existing practice—
    - (a) In relation to fatigue.
    - (b) In relation to workers' meal times.

- (ii) Suitability of the law.
  - (iii) Suitability of hours during which factory is working.
  - (iv) Number of holidays given.
- (61) *Day of rest.*
- (i) Existing practice.
  - (ii) Suitability of the law.
- (62) *Exempting provisions and the use made of them.*

#### B. Mines.

- (63) *Hours worked per day and per week.*
- (i) Normal, i.e., as determined by custom or agreement.
  - (ii) Actual, i.e., including overtime.
  - (iii) Spreadover, i.e., relation between hours worked and hours during which worker is on call.
- (64) *Days worked per week.*
- (65) *Effect of restriction of hours.*
- (i) On workers.
  - (ii) On industry.
- (66) *Possibility of reducing maxima.*
- (67) *Suitability of the law relating to shifts.*
- (68) *Possibility of introducing an effective daily limitation.*
- (69) *Intervals.*
- (i) In relation to fatigue.
  - (ii) In relation to workers' meal times.
  - (iii) Number of holidays given.
- (70) *Day of rest.*
- (71) *Adequacy of existing provisions.*
- (72) *Exempting provisions and use made of them.*

#### C. Railways.

- (73) *Hours worked per week and per day.*
- (i) Normal, i.e., as determined by custom or agreement.
  - (ii) Actual, i.e., including overtime.
  - (iii) Spreadover, i.e., relation between hours worked and hours during which worker is on call.
- (74) *Days worked per week.*
- (75) *Extent of application of International Labour Conventions relating*
- do—
- (i) Hours.
  - (ii) Rest days.
- (76) *Intervals.*
- (i) In relation to fatigue.
  - (ii) In relation to workers' meal times.
  - (iii) Number of holidays given.
- (77) *Possibility of regulation.*

**D. Other Establishments.**

- (a) Plantations.
  - (b) Docks.
  - (c) Other industrial establishments.
- (78) *Hours worked per week and per day.*
- (i) Normal, *i.e.*, as determined by custom or agreement.
  - (ii) Actual, *i.e.*, including overtime.
  - (iii) Spreadover, *i.e.*, relation between hours worked and hours during which worker is on call.
- (79) *Days worked per week.*
- (80) *Desirability of regulation.*

**X. Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.****A. Factories.**

- (81) *Effect of 1922 Act on employment.*
- (82) *Admission of infants to factories.*
- (83) *Suitability of regulations for women's work.*
- (84) *Suitability of regulations affecting children.*
- (i) Hours and intervals.
  - (ii) Minimum and maximum ages.
- (85) *Double employment of children (i.e., in more than one establishment in same day).*
- (86) *Work and training of young adults.*  
Facilities for apprenticeship.
- (87) *Extent of "blind alley" employment (i.e., extent to which children are dismissed on reaching full age).*
- (88) *Comparative merits of double and single shift systems as affecting health of women, young adults and children.*
- (89) *Work of women and children in factories not subject to Act.*
- (i) Use by Local Governments of section 2 (3) (b).
  - (ii) Advisability of extended application.

**B. Mines.**

- (90) *Effect of Act of 1923.*  
Suitability of certification provisions.
- (91) *Exclusion of women.*
- (i) Suitability of regulations.
  - (ii) Probable effect on industry.
  - (iii) Economic effect on workers.
  - (iv) Speed of withdrawal.

**C. Other establishments.**

- (92) *Need for regulation.*

**XI. Special Questions relating to Seamen and Workers in Inland Navigation.**

- (93) *Hours of work.*
- (94) *Rations and accommodation, articles of agreement, etc.*

(95) *Indian Merchant Shipping Act.*

- (i) Existing provisions.
- (ii) Need of revision.

**XII. Wages.**(96) *Prevailing rates of wages (time and piece) and average earnings.*

- (i) In industry.
- (ii) In surrounding agricultural areas.
- (iii) Difference between money wages and money value of all earnings.

(97) *Movements in recent years.*

- (i) Increases and decreases.
- (ii) Reasons for variation.
- (iii) Relation to prices and cost of living (pre-war and post-war).
- (iv) Relation to profits.

(98) *Amounts sent to villages.*(99) *Payment in kind and allied problems.*(100) *Extent and effect of payment through contractors, sub-contractors or headmen.*(101) *Method of fixing wages.*

- (i) By negotiated agreements.
- (ii) Other means.

(102) *Basis of payment for overtime and Sunday work.*(103) *Extent of standardisation.*(104) *Effect of wage-changes on labour supply.*(105) *Minimum wages.*

Advisability and possibility of statutory establishment.

(106) *Deductions.*

- (i) Extent of fining.
- (ii) Other deductions.
- (iii) Utilisation of fines.
- (iv) Desirability of legislation.

(107) *Periods of wage-payment (day, week or month).*

- (i) Periods for which wages paid.
- (ii) Periods elapsing before payment.
- (iii) Desirability of legislation—
  - (a) to regulate periods ;
  - (b) to prevent delay in payment.
- (iv) Treatment of unclaimed wages.

(108) *Indebtedness.*

- (i) In village.
- (ii) In industrial area.

(109) *Bonus and profit sharing schemes.*

- (i) Nature and effect of schemes which are or have been in operation.
- (ii) Basis of schemes, whether production or profits.

(110) *Annual or other leave.*

- (i) Extent to which taken by workers.
- (ii) Extent to which countenanced and/or assisted by employers.
- (iii) Extent of consequential loss to worker of back-lying wages.

(111) *Desirability of Fair Wages Clause in public contracts.*

**XIII. Industrial Efficiency of Workers.**

(112) *Comparative changes in efficiency of Indian workers in recent years.*

(113) *Comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers.*

(114) *Extent to which comparisons are affected by—*

- (i) Migration of workers.
- (ii) Use of machinery.
- (iii) Comparative efficiency of plant.
- (iv) Comparative efficiency of management.
- (v) Physique.
- (vi) Health.
- (vii) Education.
- (viii) Standards of living.
- (ix) Climate.

(115) *Effect on production of—*

- (i) Changes in working hours.
- (ii) Changes in other working conditions.
- (iii) Expenditure on health and sanitation.
- (iv) Housing.
- (v) Alterations in methods of remuneration.
- (vi) Movements in wage levels.
- (vii) Legislative enactments.
- (viii) Dietary.
- (ix) Alcohol and drugs.
- (x) Industrial fatigue.

(116) *Possible methods of securing increased efficiency.*

**XIV. Trade Combinations.**

(117) *Extent of organisation of—*

- (i) Employers.
- (ii) Employed.

(118) *Effect of organisations on—*

- (i) Industry.
- (ii) Conditions of workers generally.

(119) *Nature of Trade Union activities.*

- (i) Mutual aid benefit schemes : unemployment : sickness : old age : strike pay.
- (ii) Other activities.

(120) *Individual Trade Unions.*

- (i) History.
- (ii) Attitude of workers and extent of their control.
- (iii) Attitude of employers and relations with them.

(121) *Trade Unions Act, 1926.*

- (i) Extent to which utilised.
- (ii) Effects.
- (iii) Possible amendments.

(122) *Miscellaneous questions regarding Trade Unions.*

- (i) Methods of negotiation between employers and employed.
- (ii) Results of attempts at co-operation between employers and employed to increase efficiency of production.
- (iii) Position of employees in State industrial concerns in relation to general Trade Union movement.

**XV. Industrial Disputes.**(123) *Extent of strikes and lock-outs.*

- (i) Causes.
- (ii) Duration and character.
- (iii) Nature and methods of settlement.
- (iv) Loss to industry and workers.

(124) *Conciliation and arbitration machinery.*

- (i) Results of previous investigations.
- (ii) Part played by official or non-official conciliators in settling disputes.
- (iii) Use (if any) made of Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act, 1860.
- (iv) Joint standing machinery for regulation of relations between employers and workpeople.
- (v) Opportunity afforded to workpeople of making representations.
- (vi) Applicability to Indian conditions of Industrial Court, Trade Boards, Joint Industrial Councils.

(125) *Trades Disputes Act.*(126) *Attitude of Government—*

- (i) Towards trade combinations.
- (ii) In connection with industrial disputes.

**XVI. Law of Master and Servant.**(127) *Effect of repeal of Workmen's Breach of Contract Act.*(128) *Types of contract commonly in use.*(129) *Extent to which (i) Civil, (ii) Criminal law is available and used for enforcement.*(130) *Madras Planters Labour Act, 1903.*(131) *Coorg Labour Act.*(132) *Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act : Is it used ?*



**XVII. Administration.**

- (133) *Central and Provincial Legislatures.*  
Action and attitude on labour questions.
- (134) *International Labour Organisation.*  
(i) Ratification of Conventions and action taken.  
(ii) Its effect on legislation, etc.
- (135) *Relations between Central and Local Governments.*
- (136) *Administrative authorities in various Governments.*  
Work of special labour offices or officers.
- (137) *Effect of differences in law or administration in Indian States and British India.*
- (138) *Acquaintance of workpeople with factory legislation.*
- (139) *Factory inspection.*  
(i) Adequacy of staff.  
(ii) Uniformity of administration in different Provinces.  
(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration.  
(iv) Prosecutions and their result.
- (140) *Mines inspection.*  
(i) Adequacy of staff.  
(ii) Rigour and efficiency of administration.  
(iii) Prosecutions and their result.
- (141) *Railways (State and Company).*  
Administration of questions affecting personnel.
- (142) *Plantations, docks and other industrial establishments.*  
Extent and nature of inspection.

**XVIII. Intelligence.**

- (143) *Existing statistics.*  
(i) Extent and use.  
(ii) Method of collection.  
(iii) Degree of accuracy.
- (144) *Possibility of improvement in statistics.*
- (145) *Nature of special investigations conducted.*  
(i) Cost of living enquiries.  
(ii) Results achieved.
- (146) *Future developments necessary.*

**Mr. J. E. P. CURRY, Shipping Master, Bombay.**

**I. Recruitment.**

(1) The P. & 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.

(4) 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. 1-8-0 to Rs. 3-0-0 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.**

(12) The general conditions of health of seamen on boardships 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

(13) 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.

(14) There is no organised 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.

(20) (i) 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.

(24) 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.

(25) 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 ship-owners and agents in Bombay held in September 1923. Each man's wages is entered in the articles of agreement.

(26) The labour supply is invariably greater than the demand and has not been affected by the wage-changes.

(27) It does not seem necessary to fix minimum wages.

(28) 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.

(29) 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).

(30) 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.

(33) 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.

(34) The only organisations 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.

(35) The above organisations do not appear to have had much effect on the conditions generally of the employees.

(36) 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. & O. S. N. Co.

(37) 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. & 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.

(38) 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.

(39) 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. The shipping companies have no use for the Indian Seamen's Union which has adopted a dictatorial and obstructive attitude on several occasions.

(40) 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.

(41) There have been no strikes and lock-outs in recent years.

(42) and (43) 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.

(44) No use has been made of the Employers' and Workmen's (Disputes) Act, IX of 1860.

(From Licensed Shipping Broker, Government Shipping Office, Bombay)

## BOMBAY RATE OF WAGES

1915

	Home Trade Rates	Foreign going rates	
<i>Deck Department</i>			
Carpenter .. ..	Rs. 50 to 65	Rs. 60 to 75—80	
L. Serang .. ..	<i>Hindu Crew</i> Rs. 37	<i>Hindu Crew</i> Rs. 40	<i>Mahomedan Crew</i> Rs. 42 (Rs. 45 to Senior Serangs)
1st Tindel .. ..	.. 32	.. 32	.. 32
2nd do. .. ..	.. 27	.. 27	.. 27
Seacunny .. ..	.. 27	.. 37	.. 42 (Rs. 45 to Senior Seacunny)
Winchman .. ..	.. 24	.. 24	.. 24
Cassab .. ..	.. 20	.. 24	.. 24
Lascars .. ..	.. 17	.. 20 each	.. 19 Average.*
Bhandary .. ..	.. 17 each	.. 20	.. 20
Do. Mate .. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. 12 to 15
Do. Topass .. ..	.. 14 to 15	.. 15 to 17	.. 15 to 17
<i>Engine Department</i>			
F. Serang .. ..	Rs. 37	Rs. 42 (Rs.45 to Senior Serangs)	
1st Tindel .. ..	.. 27	.. 29	
2nd do. .. ..	.. 25	.. 27	
3rd do. .. ..	.. 23	.. 25	
Donkeyman .. ..	.. 22	.. 25	
Cassab .. ..	.. 22	.. 24	
Freezer .. ..	.. 22	.. 24	
Hydraulic .. ..	.. 37	.. 40	
Lampman .. ..	.. 21	.. 23	
Oilman .. ..	.. 21	.. 22	
Fireman .. ..	.. 19 each	.. 20 each.	
Bhandary .. ..	.. 19	.. 20	
Do. Mate .. ..	.. ..	.. 12 to 15	
Coal Trimmers .. ..	.. 14 each	.. 15 each.	
Electrician .. ..	.. 40 to 50	.. 60 to 75	
Boiler Maker .. ..	.. 40 to 60	.. 60 to 90	
<i>Saloon Department</i>			
Butler or Steward .. ..	Rs. 40	Rs. 50 to 60, 75	
Chief Cook .. ..	.. 40	.. 50 to 60	
2nd do. .. ..	.. 20	.. 30	
3rd do. .. ..	.. 15	.. 20	
4th do. .. ..	.. 10	.. 15	
Chief Cook and Baker .. ..	.. 50	.. 55	
Baker .. ..	.. 35	.. 50 to 60	
Do. Mate .. ..	.. 15	.. 23 to 25	
Butcher .. ..	.. 30	.. 35 to 40	
Do. Mate .. ..	.. 15	.. 20	
Scullion .. ..	.. 14 to 15	.. 15 to 17	
1st Class Pantryman .. ..	.. 20	.. 45, 35, 23	
Do. do. Mate .. ..	.. ..	.. 15	
2nd Class Pantryman .. ..	.. ..	.. 30 to 35	
Do. do. Mate .. ..	.. ..	.. 15	

\*(1st Class Lascars Rs. 22, 2nd Class Rs. 20, 3rd Class Rs. 16 and 4th Class Rs. 12.)

	Home Trade Rates	Foreign going rates
<i>Saloon Department—contd.</i>		
General Servants (Officer's, Engineer's and Cabin Boy, etc.)	Rs. 20 each	Rs. 23 to 25
Mess Room Boy .. .. .	„ 20	„ 23 to 25
Do. Mate .. .. .	„ ..	„ 15
Saloon Topass .. .. .	„ 14 to 15	„ 15 to 17
Punkha Boys .. .. .	„ 10	„ 12 to 15

*N.B.*—If any company or ship's officers in their respective departments wishing to pay any more wages than the above quoted ratings they should only provide them by monthly bonuses, without entering in the articles.

If the steamers are Chartered by the Government for trooping season, these men should be provided with 25 per cent. increase to their wages at the time of their final discharges.

(From Chichgar & Co., Government Shipping Brokers, Bombay)

### RATE OF WAGES FOR NATIVE CREWS

In force from 19th November 1920

	6 Months		12 Months	
	Coasting		Home Line	
Deck Crews				
DECK DEPARTMENT				
<i>Hindu</i>				
	Rs.		Rs.	
D. Serang .. .. .	56		69	
Tindal .. .. .	44		46	
2nd Tindal .. .. .	34		37	
3rd do. .. .. .	32		36	
Winchman .. .. .	31		36	
Cassab .. .. .	31		36	
Seacunny .. .. .	50		63	
Lascar .. .. .	20-22-24-27		22-25-28-30	
Bhandary .. .. .	27		31	
Do. Mate .. .. .	20		25	
Deck Topas .. .. .	25		28	
L. Boy .. .. .	14		15	
Carpenter .. .. .	75		120	
<i>Mahomedan</i>				
Serang .. .. .	62		75	
Tindals .. .. .	44		46	
2nd Tindal .. .. .	34		37	
3rd do. .. .. .	32		36	
Seacunny .. .. .	60		69	
Winchman .. .. .	31		36	
Cassab .. .. .	31		36	
Lascars .. .. .	20-22-24-27		22-25-28-31	
Bhandary .. .. .	27		31	
Do. Mate .. .. .	20		25	
Topas .. .. .	25		28	
Lascar Boy .. .. .	14		15	
Carpenter .. .. .	75		120	



	6 Months		12 Months	
	Coasting		Home	
	Engine Crews			
<b>ENGINE DEPARTMENT</b>				
<i>Mahomedan</i>				
		Rs.		Rs.
Sarang .. .. .		62		75
Tindel .. .. .		40		44
2nd Tindel .. .. .		37		37
3rd do. .. .. .		34		35
Donkeyman .. .. .		34		35
Cassab .. .. .		34		35
Oilman .. .. .		31		32
Lampman .. .. .		31		32
Fireman .. .. .		29		30
Coal Trimmers .. .. .		21		24
Bhandary .. .. .		29		30
Do. Mate .. .. .		21		25
Freezer .. .. .		37		39
Hydraulic .. .. .		45		50
Coal Trimmers Serang .. .. .		37		44
<b>Saloon Crews</b>				
<b>SALOON DEPARTMENT</b>				
		(Under Ch. Stwd. 75)		(Under Ch. 85)
		Rs.	a.	Rs. a.
Butler .. .. .		80	0	90 0
Chief Cook and Baker .. .. .		75	0	85 0
Chief Cook .. .. .		70	0	80 0
2nd Cook .. .. .		40	0	45 0
3rd Cook .. .. .		22	8	28 0
4th Cook .. .. .		20	0	22 8
Butcher .. .. .		50	0	55 0
Butcher Mate .. .. .		22	8	25 0
Baker .. .. .		65	0	70 0
Baker's Mate .. .. .		20	0	22 8
Scullion .. .. .		20	0	22 8
Topass .. .. .		20	0	22 8
Pantryman .. .. .		40	0	45 0
Do. Mate .. .. .		20	0	22 8
Mess Room Boy .. .. .		30	0	35 0
Do. Mate .. .. .		15	0	....
Marcony Boy .. .. .		10	0	10 0
Head Waiter .. .. .		45	0	50 0
Troop baker .. .. .		50	0	55 0
Do. Mate .. .. .		20	0	22 0
Do. Cook .. .. .		50	0	55 0
Assistant Baker and Assistant Cook .. .. .		45	0	50 0
Gl. Svnt. Ch. E. B. and Capt. Boy .. .. .		23-26-50		26-30-35
		1 year, over 1 and under 5 years		5 years and over.

(From Chichgar &amp; Co., Government Shipping Brokers, Bombay)

**REVISED RATES OF PAY FROM 15TH OCTOBER 1923.**

Fixed by the Liner's Conference held in Bombay on the 27th September 1923

This cancels all previous Lists.

	Coasting	Home
Deck	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Serang Mahomedan, .. .. .	55 0	65 0
Serang, Hindu .. .. .	52 0	65 0
1st Tindal .. .. .	40 0	46 0
2nd do. .. .. .	32 0	36 0
3rd do. .. .. .	30 0	34 0
Cassab .. .. .	27 0	32 0
Winchman .. .. .	29 0	34 0
Seacunny .. .. .	50 0	60 0
Lascars ↓ @ .. .. .	18 0	22 0
Do. ↓ @ .. .. .	21 0	25 0
Do. ↓ @ .. .. .	23 0	28 0
Do. ↓ @ .. .. .	26 0	30 0
Lascar Boys .. .. .	13 0	15 0
Bhandary .. .. .	26 0	30 0
Do. Mate .. .. .	15 0	20 0
Topas .. .. .	26 0	23 0
Carpenter .. .. .	75 0	120 0
<i>Engine</i>		
Serang .. .. .	55 0	65 0
1st Tindal .. .. .	38 0	40 0
2nd do. .. .. .	35 0	37 0
3rd do. .. .. .	32 0	35 0
Cassab .. .. .	30 0	35 0
Donkeyman .. .. .	30 0	35 0
Hydraulicman .. .. .	40 0	45 0
Ice-man or Freezer .. .. .	35 0	37 0
Fireman .. .. .	25 0	27 0
Coal Trimmers .. .. .	18 0	21 0
Lampman .. .. .	28 0	32 0
Bhandary .. .. .	25 0	30 0
Do. Mate. .. .. .	17 0	20 0
Oilman .. .. .	28 0	32 0
Pumpman .. .. .	52 0	62 0
Coal Trimmer Serang .. .. .	37 0	40 0
*Lascar's Average .. .. .	22 0	26 0
<i>Saloon</i>		
Butler I/C .. .. .	75 0	85 0
Do. .. .. .	70 0	75 0
Butler, 2nd class .. .. .	60 0	65 0
Chief Cook .. .. .	60 0	70 0+
2nd Cook G. .. .. .	30 0	40 0
Do. P. .. .. .	35 0	40 0
Curry cook .. .. .	35 0	40 0
3rd Cook P. .. .. .	22 8	28 0
Do. G. .. .. .	20 0	22 8
4th Cook .. .. .	16 0	20 0

	Coasting		Home	
	Rs.	a.	Rs.	a.
<i>Saloon—contd.</i>				
Baker	60	0	70	0
Do. Second	45	0	50	0
Do. Third or Assistant Baker	30	0	35	0
Do. Mate	20	0	22	8
Chief Cook and Baker	65	0	75	0+
Pantryman P.	30	0	40	0
Do. 1st class	40	0	45	0
Do. 2nd class	35	0	40	0
Do. Cargo ship	33	0	37	0
Do. Mate	18	0	20	0
Butcher	45	0	50	0
Do. Mate	18	0	25	0
Topas Saloon	20	0	22	8
Do. Stock	20	0	22	8
Scullions	20	0	22	8
Head Waiter C.	35	0	40	0
Head Waiter P. O. L.	40	0	45	0
Saloon Boys—				
3rd 1st year	23	0	26	0
Do. 25th	25	0	30	0
Do. over 5	27	0	34	0
Messroom Boys C.	25	0	30	0
Messroom Boy without assistant or mate	28	0	33	0
Messroom Boys O. L.	27	0	34	0
Messroom Assistant	20	0	25	0
Do. Mate	14	0	16	0
Chief Engineer Boys—				
1st year	23	0	26	0
2/5th year	25	0	30	0
Over 5	27	0	34	0
Captain Boy—				
1st year	23	0	26	0
2/5th years	25	0	30	0
Over 5 years	27	0	34	0
Officers' Boys—				
Same as G. Servant	23-27	0	26-34	0
Marconi Boy	8	0	10	0
Saloon crew cook	35	0	40	0
Do. Mate	16	0	20	0
Troop Baker	50	0	55	0
Do. 2nd Baker	40	0	45	0
Do. Baker Mate	20	0	22	8
Do. Cook	50	0	55	0
Do. Assistant Cook	45	0	50	0
Deck Steward	27	0	34	0
Barman	35	0	40	0
Bell Boy	28	0	26	0
Knifeman	26	0	30	0
Laundryman (Dhobi)	40	0	45	0

+ Certified necessary.  
 C. Cargo ship local liners.  
 P. Passenger ship local liners.

P. O. L. Passenger other liners.  
 O. L. Other liner.

## RATE OF PAY TO BOMBAY CREWS ON P. &amp; O. SHIPS

From 1912 to 1914.

	1912		1914	
	Rs.	a.	Rs.	a.
<i>Deck Department</i>				
Serang .. .. .	36	8	42	0
1st Tindal .. .. .	31	0	33	0
2nd do. .. .. .	25	0	27	0
3rd do. .. .. .	23	0	25	0
Lascar .. .. .	20	0	22	0
Do. .. .. .	18	0	20	0
Do. .. .. .	16	0	18	0
Do. .. .. .	14	0	16	0
Do. .. .. .	12	0	14	0
Do. .. .. .	11	0	13	0
Do. .. .. .	10	0	11	0
Bhandary .. .. .	20	0	22	0
Topass .. .. .	13	0	17	0
<i>Engine Department</i>				
Serang .. .. .	36	8	40	0
1st Paniwalla .. .. .	28	0	27	0
2nd do. .. .. .	24	0	25	0
3rd do. .. .. .	22	0	23	0
Tindal .. .. .	24	0	26	0
Storekeeper .. .. .	22	8	23	8
Lampman .. .. .	19	8	21	0
Fireman, 1st .. .. .	18	0	20	0
Do. 2nd .. .. .	13	0	15	0
Bhandary .. .. .	20	0	22	0
Do. Mate .. .. .	10	0	12	0
C. T. Serang .. .. .	26	8	27	8
Coal Trimmer .. .. .	13	0	15	0
<i>Purser's Department</i>				
1st Sal. P'man, Mail .. .. .	61	4	64	4
Do. Inter .. .. .	56	4	59	4
2nd Sal. P'man, Mail .. .. .	43	12	46	12
Do. Inter .. .. .	33	12	36	12
Chief Cook (Passenger) .. .. .	108	12	111	12
Baker .. .. .	78	12	81	12
Cook (cargo) .. .. .	48	12	51	12
Baker (cargo) .. .. .	33	12	36	12
Troop Cook .. .. .	63	12	66	12
Do. Baker .. .. .	53	12	56	12
Assistant Cook .. .. .	48	12	51	12
2nd Cook .. .. .	38	12	41	12
Curry Cook .. .. .	33	12	36	12
Scullion .. .. .	18	12	21	12
Assistant Baker .. .. .	38	12	41	12
Baker's Mate .. .. .	18	12	21	12
Butcher (Mail) .. .. .	63	12	66	12
Do. (Cargo) .. .. .	48	12	51	12
Assistant Butcher .. .. .	43	12	46	12
Butcher's Mate .. .. .	18	12	21	12
Ice-man .. .. .	19	12	22	12
Knifeman .. .. .	18	12	21	12
Topass .. .. .	15	12	18	12
Pantry Boy .. .. .	8	12	11	12
Laundryman .. .. .	30	0	33	0
Sal. Waiter & M. R. S. .. .. .	25	12	28	12

## P. &amp; O. S. N. Co.—THE PRESENT RATE OF WAGES.

DECK DEPARTMENT				ENGINE DEPARTMENT			
		Rs.	a.			Rs.	s.
Serang	..	80	0	Serang	..	80	0
Tindal	..	51	0	Paniwalla	..	44	0
2nd Tindal	..	45	0	Do.	..	40	0
3rd do.	..	39	0	Do.	..	36	8
Lascar	..	32	0	Tindal	..	39	0
Do.	..	29	0	Store Keeper	..	35	0
Do.	..	26	0	Lampman	..	32	0
Do.	..	23	0	Fireman	..	30	0
Do.	..	14	0	2nd do.	..	24	0
Bhandary	..	34	0	Bhandary	..	34	0
Topass	..	30	0	Do. Mate	..	19	0
				C. T. Serang	..	50	0
				Coal Trimer	..	24	0

## PURSER'S OR SALOON DEPARTMENT.

	Rs.		Rs.
Head waiter	..	2nd Cook	.. 60—65
Pantryman	..	Curry Cook	..
Asstt. do.	..	Baker	.. 100
2nd do.	..	Do. Mate	.. 40
Gl. Servant	.. 25—40—45—60	Butcher Mate	.. 35
M. R. Boy	.. 40—45—50	Knifeman	.. 30
Asstt. do.	..	Iceman	.. 30
Laundryman	.. 40—45	Scullion	.. 30
Chief Cook	.. 150—200	Topass	.. 30
Ship Cook	..	Boys	.. 15
Fish Cook	.. 60—100		

**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 paces between the huts and arrangements for sweeping the intervening 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 perspiring 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 the honour to submit the following statement of my opinions on some of the subjects in the schedule of which I have some experience in the course of my duties.

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) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS (a) AT WORK PLACES.**

*(i) Latrines.*

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) Drinking water.*

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) Bathing and washing.*

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 roused by education and health propaganda.

**(29) DISEASE.**

*(i) Prevalance of industrial diseases.*

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 tables of sickness and mortality of different trades are available.

#### X. Special questions relating to women, young adults and children.

##### A. Factories.

###### (81) EFFECTS OF 1922 ACT ON EMPLOYMENT.

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
1924	..	..	..	836
1925	..	..	..	592
1926	..	..	..	306
1927	..	..	..	164
1928	..	..	..	122

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) SUITABILITY OF REGULATIONS AFFECTING CHILDREN.

- (i) Hours and intervals.
- (ii) Minimum and maximum ages.

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) DOUBLE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.

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.

I conclude my written statement and have the honour to inform you that if my oral evidence is necessary I shall appear in Bombay at your convenience.

**Mr. T. W. JOHNSTONE, M.B.E., Chief Inspector of  
Factories, Bombay.**

**II. Staff Organisation.**

**(13) RELATIONS BETWEEN STAFF AND RANK AND FILE.**

*(ii) 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 for more power than his capabilities warrant and he often abuses them.

**(14) TIMEKEEPING, PIECEWORK, CONTRACT AND ATTENDANCE  
REGISTERS.**

*(i) How and by whom kept and checked.*

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) How and by whom wages actually paid to workers.*

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) CONTRACTORS AS INTERMEDIARIES.**

*(i) Extent and character of work given on contract.*

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) *Control exercised over working conditions.*

Persons engaged by contractors in factories are subject to the restrictions of the Factories Act.

### III. Housing.

Information has been supplied—page 263 of the Government Memorandum.\*

#### (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 organisations interested in the provision of housing for the workers.

### IV. Health.

#### (20) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS, (A) AT WORK PLACES, (B) AT HOME.

##### (i) *Latrines (a) at work places.*

Information has been supplied—pages 46 and 47 of the Government Memorandum.\*

##### (ii) *Drinking water.*

The supply is legally governed by Rules 26, 27 and 28 of the Rules under the Indian Factories Act. These are as follows:—

**Rule 26.**—Drinking water shall in all cases be supplied to the employees free of cost.

\* Printed memo. from the Govt. of Bombay supplied to the Royal Commission on Labour.

*Rule 27.*—Wherever practicable, drinking water shall be supplied—

(a) from taps connected with any public water-supply from which a sufficient supply of water can at all times be drawn as required, or

(b) from a well or wells so situated as not to be polluted or contaminated with organic matter or impurities.

*Rule 28.*—If in any factory, it is not practicable to supply water in accordance with the methods prescribed by Rule 27, or if the public water-supply is intermittent, then there shall be provided a storage of water, fit for drinking, supplying at least as many gallons per day as there are persons employed in the factory.

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.

(28) SUITABILITY OF EXISTING FACTORIES AND MINES ACT AND RULES.

(i) *Control of temperature in factories.*

(ii) *Control of humidification in cotton mills.*

(a) Nature of action taken by Local Governments.

(b) Results.

Information has been supplied—pages 48 and 49 and Appendix III of the Government Memorandum.\*

(29) DISEASE.

(i) *Prevalence of industrial diseases.*

Information has been supplied—pages 49 and 50 of the Government Memorandum.\*

(32) WELFARE.

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.

\* *Vide* page 32.

## VII. Safety.

## (43) EXISTING REGULATIONS IN FACTORIES.

Information has been supplied—page 71 of the Government Memorandum.

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 18-A 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 18-A (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 18-A (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 33-A.*—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 33-A.”

*Modification in section 41 (j).*—This should read “any notice, return or the certificate of stability prescribed by section 33-A”.

*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 33-A.

#### (44) INCIDENCE OF ACCIDENTS IN FACTORIES.

Information has been supplied—page 72 of the Government Memorandum.\*

A comparison between the machinery cotton textile accident rate in Great Britain and in the Town and Island of Bombay is attached (Table III).

\* Vide page 32.

## (45) CAUSES OF ACCIDENTS.

Information has been supplied—page 72 of the Government Memorandum.\*

## (46) ACCIDENT PREVENTION (INCLUDING "SAFETY FIRST" PROPAGANDA).

Information has been supplied—pages 73 and 74 of the Government Memorandum.\*

## (48) FIRST-AID AND MEDICAL RELIEF.

Information has been supplied—page 74 of the Government Memorandum.\*

## (49) STRINGENCY OF INSPECTION AND ENFORCEMENT OF REGULATIONS.

Information has been supplied—page 75 of the Government Memorandum.\*

## (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.

(55) to (58) and (60).

Information has been supplied—pages 93 and 94 of the Government Memorandum.\*

## (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.

## (60) (iv) NUMBER OF HOLIDAYS GIVEN.

Government establishments, railways and some other establishments give Sundays as holidays in addition to the usual recognised Government holidays.

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\* Vide page 32.

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) ..	26	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	
Baral .. .. .	..	..	..	The mills generally observe Saturdays as the weekly holiday.
Gokak .. .. .	..	..	..	The mills generally observe Sundays as the weekly holiday.

#### (61) DAY OF REST.

##### (i) Existing practices.

Information has been supplied—page 95 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

\* Vide page 33.



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 3 days of the weekly bazaar-day generally observed in the seasonal factories where Sunday has no significance.

#### (62) EXEMPTING PROVISIONS AND THE USE MADE OF THEM.

Information has been supplied—page 95 of the Government Memorandum.\*

### X. Special Questions relating to Women, Young Adults and Children.

#### A. FACTORIES.

(81) TO (88).

Information has been supplied—pages 100 and 101 of the Government Memorandum.

#### (89) WORK OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN FACTORIES NOT SUBJECT TO THE ACT.

##### (i) *Use by Local Governments of section 2(3) (b).*

Information has been supplied—page 101 of the Government Memorandum.\*

##### (ii) *Advisability of extended application.*

The smaller factories are not at present under adequate inspection while employers have no responsibilities under the Workmen's Compensation Act. Workpeople 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.

\* *Vide* page 32 *ante*.

## 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
			Rs.	
A B C Spinning ..	Below Rs. 25	881	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	
Do. ..	26-50	50	10.06	C is a new mill.

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.

Information has been supplied—page 170 of the Government Memorandum.\*

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.

\* Vide page 32 ante.

## XVII. Administration.

### (138) ACQUAINTANCE OF WORKPEOPLE WITH FACTORY LEGISLATION.

Information has been supplied—page 250 of the Government Memorandum.\*

### (139) FACTORY INSPECTION.

Information has been supplied—pages 250 to 252 of the 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.

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\* *Vide page 32 ante.*

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.									Remarks
	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	113	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	33	53	31	58	27	27	46	57	57	Spinning Department include: Mixing, Blowing Card, Drawing, Frames, Spinning and Reeling Departments. Weaving Department include: Winding, Warping, Sizing, Weaving, Calendering, Folding and Baling Departments.
Do.	Weaving	19	23	40	29	36	27	32	31	38	38	
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.						
Great Britain.		Town and Island of Bombay.				Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	
Number of accidents involving 3 days incapacitation	Employees	Rate per 100 persons	Number of accidents involving 3 days incapacitation.	Employees	Rate per 100 persons	<p>Column (1) :—Figures from Chief Inspector of Factories Report, England (page 144, 1927).</p> <p>Column (2) :—Great Britain census of production figures, 1924 (1927 employment figures are probably less).</p> <p>Columns (4), (5) and (6) are figures for Bombay Town and Island, 1927.</p> <p>Working hours :—Great Britain 48½ hours per week, Bombay 60 hours per week.</p> <p>The principal numbers are the totals of fatal and non-fatal accidents.</p> <p>The small figures are those of fatal accidents only.</p> <p>An accident means an accident which is either fatal or disables the workman for more than 3 days.</p>
25,978	517,232	50	4,409	148,006	30	

Mrs. K. WAGH, Senior Lady Investigator, Labour Office,  
Bombay.

## Recruitment.

### (1) ORIGIN OF LABOUR.

#### (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 harvests 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 Mahars, 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.

**Gujarath.**—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 Telangu 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) CONTACT WITH VILLAGES.

(i) *Extent and frequency of return.*

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 congerial 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 upcountry 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) *Extent of permanent labour force.*

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) METHODS OF RECRUITMENT.

(i) *Existing methods.*

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 annas eight 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 *ganmwallas* (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 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' services 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) NATURE OF ACCOMMODATION PROVIDED IN EACH CLASS.

##### (i) *In relation to workers' demands.*

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 rents 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 *nhani* 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) RENT RATES IN VARIOUS CLASSES.

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 to 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' x 10' to 12' x 14'	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 6-8-0	10' x 12' each to 12' x 14' each	Rs. 10-8-0 to Rs. 12.
Private ..	8' x 8' to 10' x 14'	Rs. 4-8-0 to Rs. 7-8-0	8' x 8' each to 10' x 8'; 12' x 10'	Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12.
Bombay Improvement Trust. (Open for all.)	9' x 9'-6" to 11' x 11' with independent verandah 9'-6" x 4'-6". Verandah 11' x 5'	Rs. 4-15-0 to Rs. 9-8-0.		
Bombay Development Department.	16' x 10' with verandah 18' x 10'	Rs. 5 to Rs. 8. For corner rooms Rs. 9 are charged.		
Bombay Port Trust for Bombay Port Trust workers only.	10' x 10' with independent verandah 10' x 4'	Rs. 6-8-0 to Rs. 7-8-0 on percentage of wages.		

Agencies.	Approximate accommodation in one-room tenements.	Rent.	Approximate accommodation in two-room tenements.	Rent.
Municipal for Sweepers and Scavengers.	12' x 10'	Annas 10 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) GENERAL HEALTH CONDITIONS OF WORKERS.

##### (iv) Dietary.

The dietary of the Bombay working class varies according to the provinces from which they come. The Ghatias 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 Bhajas.

*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 *zunaka* (a paste-like preparation of gram floor 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 much 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.

## (23) GENERAL HEALTH CONDITIONS OF WORKERS.

(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 labour 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 shop-keepers 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 2 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 sun light 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-fourths 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 spend 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 5th or 6th day of her delivery and she has to look after the household duties if not to attend the mill work after the 11th 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 anæmic.

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) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS, (b) AT HOME.

(i) Latrines.

*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.cs. the same sanitary inconveniences are experienced as in the chawls where the old type (basket system) w.cs. 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.cs. 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.cs. Sometimes the dirty water from the w.cs. flows in front of the chawls emitting bad smell. In the monsoon all sorts of insects can be seen in the latrines. The scavengers never care to clean the w.cs. from inside.

Apart from the insanitary conditions of latrines in most of the chawls at least a few of the w.cs. 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.cs. leaks down to the lower floor w.cs.

*Latrines in millowners' chawls.*

The conditions of w.cs. in millowners' chawls are not far superior to the conditions of w.cs. in private chawls. In many chawls w.cs. on flushing system have been provided. Like the private chawls here also in some chawls w.cs. 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.cs. are far better in chawls provided by the above departments. Flushing system has been introduced in almost all the chawls. W.cs. 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.cs.

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 often 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 mill-owners 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 care-taker 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' x 2' 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 baths 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 8 or 10 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 wash stands for their tenants. Still in the B.D.D. and B.I.T. chawls where separate wash stands 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.cs. 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) INDEBTEDNESS.

(ii) *In industrial area.*

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, specially 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 money-lenders 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. 2-8-0 (anna 1 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 food stuffs. So when a worker goes to pay off his interest the shop-keeper first puts it down to his account of food stuffs and thus in some months even the interest remains unpaid.

The usual rate of interest charged by Pathans and Marwaris is from anna 1 to annas 2 per rupee per month without security and anna 1 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 annas 2 per rupee, he receives only Rs. 4-6-0 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 2 or 3 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 1 to 2 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) EXISTING STATISTICS.

#### (ii) *Method of collection.*

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 week days. 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 for 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) **ORIGIN OF LABOUR.**

(i) *Extent of migration.*

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 earthwork. 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) *Causes of particular streams of migration.*

(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 condition 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 other type 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) *Changes in recent years.*

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) CONTACT WITH VILLAGES.

### (i) *Extent and frequency of returns.*

#### (ii) *Extent of permanent labour force.*

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 *treks* across the desert by camel or on foot are very strong deterrants to frequent contact with the villages.

## (3) METHODS OF RECRUITMENT.

### (i) *Existing Methods.*

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) *Possible improvement.*

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 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) *Public Employment Agencies.*

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) UNEMPLOYMENT.

(i) *Extent of character.*

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.

*Sub-heads 7 (ii) and 7 (iii).*

These do not arise in view of the fact that there is no unemployment problem in Sind in general.

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*

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) LABOUR "TURNOVER."

(i) *Average duration of employment.*

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) *Extent of casual employment.*

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 Government to any considerable extent cease. The amount of permanent labour employed on open canals is almost negligible.

**II. Staff Organization.**

## (15) CONTRACTORS AS INTERMEDIARIES.

(i) *Extent and character of work given on contract.*

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 a 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 Government to give unsecured money advances to work people.

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) *Extent of Sub-contracting.*

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 Government pay under contract and the rates he pays to his sub-contractors or, more accurately, petty piece-workers.

(iii) *Control exercised over working conditions.*

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.

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) *Effects.*

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 hardships 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) EXTENT TO WHICH HOUSING IS PROVIDED BY GOVERNMENT.

Generally speaking, Government does not undertake to house contractors' labour.

On the Sukkur Barrage itself some provision has been made by Government for housing labour in that we have built certain blocks of cooly 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 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) EXTENT OF MEDICAL FACILITIES PROVIDED.

##### (i) *By Employers.*

Although contractors are in most cases the direct employers of labour on irrigation works, Government, on the Barrage and Canals works, make all main arrangements for medical facilities for labourers.

##### (ii) *By Government.*

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) EXTENT TO WHICH MEDICAL FACILITIES ARE UTILIZED.

##### (i) *Generally.*

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 now-a-days 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) *By Women.*

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) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS—(a) AT WORK PLACES, AND (b) AT HOME.

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) *Drinking-water.*

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 piped 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 Government agency.

## (29) DISEASE.

(ii) *Prevalence of cholera, malaria, hookworm and other tropical diseases.*

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 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.**(i) *Extent of use.*

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 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) COMPARATIVE CHANGES IN EFFICIENCY OF  
INDIAN WORKERS IN RECENT YEARS.

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) POSSIBLE METHODS OF SECURING INCREASED EFFICIENCY.**

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.**

(1) **ORIGIN OF LABOUR.**

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 the 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 827,412. 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 labourer 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) **CONTACT WITH VILLAGES.**

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 Divali 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 urbanisation.

#### (4) EXTENT AND EFFECTS OF THE DISTURBANCE OF FAMILY LIFE.

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 unmixed 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 4 as against 5 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 FOR ASSAM.

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) UNEMPLOYMENT.

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.

#### (16) HOUSING.

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.

#### (42) EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON STANDARD OF LIVING AND INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY OF WORKERS.

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, Ag. Certifying Surgeon, Ahmedabad.**

With reference to your circular quoted above, I have the honour to submit the information as noted below :—

### III. Housing.

(18) (ii) The types of accommodation supplied by the employers at Ahmedabad may be classified as below :—

1. Double-room tenements, pacca buildings.
2. Single-room tenements, pacca buildings.
3. Single-room tenements with back to back rooms, pacca buildings.
4. Single-room tenements, back to back rooms, semi-pacca 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' × 12', 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' × 12' and a back yard converted into a kitchen.

*The third type* is much commoner. It consists of a room 12' × 12', window and a verandah.

*The fourth type* is very common. It consists of a room size 12' × 12' 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' 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, 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) EXTENT OF MEDICAL FACILITIES PROVIDED.

##### (i) By employers.

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 out-door 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) SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS.

##### (a) At work places.

(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) NATURE OF OTHER WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

##### (a) By employers.

(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 tourniquates, 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.**

Considerable amount of literature and volume of evidence will no doubt be available to the Commission in connection with factories which come under the Factories Act from the Government Memorandum and the various Government offices such as Factory Inspection Office, Labour Office, Office of Registrar of Trade Unions, Office of Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation, etc., and private bodies like Employees' Associations, Social Service Leagues and Trade Unions, etc. But 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, Dhulia, Malegaon, Bhivandi, Ilkal 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. It is not one of their functions to collect statistics covering the information required under the various heads of the Commission's Questionnaire. Nevertheless, owing to the intimate contact of the staff with the hand weaving and dyeing industries it is possible to give information of a general character which may be of some interest to the Commission.

While, therefore, I will give information covering hand weaving and dyeing factories, it must not be taken that the Department of Industries is not interested in the labour problems of other industrial establishments, big or small. All measures which go to make workers healthier, more efficient and contented will have the hearty support of the Industries Department both on humanitarian and utilitarian grounds and in answering the Questionnaire. I have expressed my opinions in connection with possible amendments to such beneficial measures as the Factories Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act, etc.

In conclusion I would state that all opinions expressed are in my individual capacity and not on behalf of Government.

**I. Recruitment.**

**ORIGIN OF LABOUR.**

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 Surat 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.

#### *Contact with villages.*

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.

#### *Methods of recruitment.*

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.

#### *Public Employment Agencies.*

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.

#### *Unemployment.*

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.

*Labour "turnover."*

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.

*Absenteeism.*

In addition to the weekly day of bazar when work is suspended, some 30 to 45 days are taken off in connection with religious and social observances.

*Apprentices Act, 1859.*

The value of the Act has been negligible so far as small weaving factories or organised industries are concerned.

**II. Staff Organisation.**

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 per mensem. 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.

*Facilities for Training.*

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 organised in Sind) for the purpose of training hand loom weavers in the use of 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.

*Relations between staff and rank and file.*

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 organisation 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.

*Time-keeping.*

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.**

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 work room 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.**

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.

*Sanitary Arrangements.*

Latrines are usually provided in the factories. These are of primitive type and are insanitary.

Drinking water is generally always provided.

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.

### *Industrial Diseases.*

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.

There is considerable prevalence of other diseases, such as cholera, malaria, etc. Most of the weaving centres are visited by one disease the other almost every year.

### *Sickness insurance.*

I would welcome some measure of sickness insurance to cover as many organised factories as possible.

### **V. Welfare.**

There is no organised activity in regard to welfare in the small factories.

### *Educational Facilities.*

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.

### *Co-operation.*

Co-operation amongst hand-weavers employed in small organised factories is practically non-existent.

On the whole, there is very little organised welfare work in the factories, etc. I would welcome factories undertaking welfare activities deliberately directed towards the physical, mental and moral betterment of the workers.

### **VI. Education.**

#### *Facilities for industrial and vocational training.*

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 organised at Poona.

Hand weaving is also taught in some of the industrial school, 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.

#### *Effect of Vocational Training.*

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 organised 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. The Department of Industries was recently consulted in this connection by the Government of Bombay who have already addressed the Government of India, suggesting various modifications which will increase the scope of the Act.

#### **IX. Hours.**

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 six complete days in a week.

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.**

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.

There is practically no blind alley employment so far as the hand weavers in small factories are concerned.

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.**

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 Rs. 1-4-0 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.

Deductions from wages for bad work are frequently made and the fines levied go to the employer for his personal use.

##### *Periods of wage payment.*

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.

##### *Indebtedness.*

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.

##### *Bonus and profit sharing schemes.*

There are no bonus or profit sharing schemes.

*Leave.*

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.

Statutory establishment of minimum wages does not appear to be practicable at present.

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.

Legislation in connection with wage payments to regulate the periods or to prevent delay in payment does not seem to be necessary.

**XIII. No definite information is available.****XIV. Trade Combinations.**

Trade combinations do not exist to any extent so far as small factories specially handloom factories are concerned. In cities like Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Trade Combinations of Employers and Trade Unions covering various industries and public utilities, etc., have been organised. Total membership of Trade Unions is about 200,000 persons. Trade Unions have, no doubt, improved the position of the workers. These organisations generally limit their activities to getting the grievances of their members redressed. Very little is done in connection with welfare, education, etc., of members. Detailed information will, no doubt, be supplied to the Commission by the Labour Office.

**XV. Industrial disputes.**

Textile Industry has been subject to frequent, and of late, prolonged strikes. Millions of working days and crores of rupees in wages have been lost. Detailed figures will, no doubt, be supplied to the Commission by the Labour Office.

There can be little doubt that the prevailing habit of ill-considered lightning strikes, is doing great harm to both the workers and the Industry. Some means must be devised to restrict the activities of Unions like Girni Kamgar Union which has been condemned both by the recent Riots Enquiry Committee and the Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act, 1929. At the same time conciliation and arbitration machinery must be strengthened, and the formation of Works Committees, Works Councils and Industrial Councils, should be encouraged.

**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 organisations 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  $5\frac{1}{2}$  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 Ra. 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 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 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. 19 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 Currimbhoj 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 Saheb 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 organisation 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 organisations 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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**CREDIT SOCIETIES**

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## CREDIT

## (a) Credit Societies

Serial No.	Name of Society	Date of Registration	Number of members
1	2	3	4
1	Alexandra and E. D. Sassoon Mills Co-operative Credit Society.	12th December 1921.	147
2	Apollo Mills Co-operative Credit Society .. ..	14th October 1922	122
3	Bombay Tardeo Millhands' Co-operative Credit Society ..	2nd May 1918 ..	69
4	Bombay Woollen Mills Co-operative Credit Society ..	25th September 1924.	70
5	Crescent Mills Co-operative Credit Society .. ..	9th August 1918 ..	21
6	Crescent Mills Carding and Blowing Co-operative Credit Society.	19th December 1919.	
7	Crescent Mills Engine and Machine Department Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	37
8	Crescent Mills Folding Department Co-operative Credit Society.	7th June 1919 ..	24
9	Crescent Mills Frame Department Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	46
10	Crescent Mills Mule and Building .. ..	19th December 1919.	22
11	Crescent Mills Ring .. ..	22nd August 1919	75
12	Crescent Mills Warping, Sizing and Drawing Co-operative Credit Society.	19th December 1919.	38
13	Crescent Mills Weaving Department Co-operative Credit Society	7th June 1919 ..	59
14	Currimbhoy Mills Folding Department .. ..	23rd May 1918 ..	40
15	Currimbhoy Mills Ring Department .. ..	27th January 1920	68
16	Currimbhoy Mills Warping and Sizing .. ..	22nd August 1919	
17	David Mills Gadi (Mule) Department .. ..	3rd March 1919 ..	67
18	David Mills Mechanic Building Department Co-operative Credit Society.	3rd March 1919 ..	37
19	David Mills New Blowing, Carding Department Co-operative Credit Society.	3rd March 1919 ..	20
20	David Mills New Framing Co-operative Credit Society	3rd March 1919 ..	16
21	David Mills New Ring .. ..	30th April 1919 ..	62
22	David Mills Old Framing Department .. ..	3rd March 1919 ..	9
23	David Mills Old Ring Department .. ..	30th April 1919 ..	50
24	Edward David Sassoon Turkey Red Dye Works Co-operative Credit Society.	19th March 1926 ..	147
25	Edward Sassoon Mills Co-operative Credit Society	28th May 1919 ..	110
26	E. Pabaney Millhands' .. ..	3rd March 1919 ..	72
27	E. Pabaney Mills Weaving and Folding .. ..	1st March 1919 ..	39
28	Fazulbhoy Millhands' .. ..	21st June 1918 ..	73
29	Fazulbhoy Mills Weaving and Folding .. ..	3rd March 1919 ..	37

## SOCIETIES.

in Mills.

Loans due by individuals	Cost of management	Share Capital paid	Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund	Working Capital	Profit and loss for the year
			Members	Non-Members			
6	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
5,074	82	4,823	3,718	....	075	9,516	306
4,077	141	3,396	290	....	670	4,356	323
1,460	77	743	974	....	1,101	2,818	24
1,350	....	784	..	....	136	920	200
520	46	221	..	25	258	504	21
Non-working.				Non-working.			
1,091	....	381	65	477	123	1,046	11
....	....	232	17	280	110	639	..
974	58	453	23	74	448	908	26
474	....	220	10	313	52	595	..
1,730	56	731	73	750	336	1,800	4
759	....	376	44	400	239	1,059	2
1,090	57	580	23	325	271	1,199	18
805	59	430	51	....	237	718	42
1,451	17	675	65	807	117	1,664	14
Non-working.				Non-working.			
3,011	124	1,085	..	....	1,064	2,149	262
812	60	550	..	....	427	977	120
426	64	341	..	....	529	870	71
521	8	253	..	120	234	607	33
1,919	123	808	..	274	762	1,844	164
331	8	140	..	75	173	393	51
2,016	114	860	..	....	669	1,529	196
5,638	20	5,563	1,578	....	402	8,603	1,033
1,786	126	1,408	623	....	639	2,670	366
1,429	....	680	52	200	472	1,304	2
795	72	409	73	300	191	978	68
2,276	110	811	7	463	685	1,966	174
1,085	42	348	53	450	211	1,063	27

Serial No.	Name of Society	Date of Registration	Number of members
1	2	3	4
30	Indian Bleaching, Dyeing and Printing Works Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	85
31	Jacob Sassoon Mills Carding Department Co-operative Credit Society.	26th April 1921 ..	114
32	Jacob Sassoon Mills Engineering Department Co-operative Credit Society.	26th April 1921 ..	41
33	Jacob Sassoon Mills Folding Department Co-operative Credit Society.	26th April 1921 ..	57
34	Jacob Sassoon Mills Reeling Department Co-operative Credit Society.	23rd March 1926 .	22
35	Jacob Sassoon Mills Spinning Department Co-operative Credit Society.	26th April 1921 ..	45
36	Jacob Sassoon Mills Weaving Department Co-operative Credit Society.	26th April 1921 ..	62
37	Jacob Sassoon Mills Warping and Sizing Department Co-operative Credit Society.	....	
38	Jacob Sassoon Mills Mill Chawl Tenants' Co-operative Credit Society.	....	
39	Currimbhoy Mills Co-operative Credit Society.	20th March 1919 .	48
40	Kastoorchand Mills " " "	13th December 1921.	
41	Mahomedbhoy Mills Ring Dept. " " "	25th May 1918 ..	90
42	Mahomedbhoy Mule " " "	10th December 1919.	
43	Mahomedbhoy Rovine " " "	12th December 1919.	22
44	Morarji Gokuldas Millhands' " " "	18th March 1915 ..	479
45	Meyer Sassoon Mills " " "	2nd November 1921.	385
46	Pearl Millhands' " " "	2nd July 1918 ..	84
47	Pearl Mill Folding Department " " "	7th June 1919 ..	25
48	Pearl Mill Ring " " "	7th June 1919 ..	70
49	Pearl Mill Warping and Sizing " " "	7th June 1919 ..	23
50	Pearl Mill Women Servants' " " "	10th May 1921 ..	47
51	Premier Mill Weaving Side " " "	13th March 1922 .	33
52	Premier Mill Spinning " " "	13th March 1922 ..	39
53	Rachel Sassoon Mills " " "	14th October 1922.	106
54	Standard Mills Blowing and Carding Department Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	41
55	Standard Mills Dyeing and Bleaching Dept. Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	41
56	Standard Mills Electric and Mechanic " " "	4th February 1919.	56
57	Standard Mills Folding and Finishing " " "	4th February 1919.	33
58	Standard Mills Framing " " "	3rd March 1919 ..	67
59	Standard Mills Spinning " " "	28th July 1919 ..	71

Loans due by individuals	Cost of management	Share Capital paid	Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund	Working Capital	Profit and loss for the year
			Members	Non-Members			
₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹
1,542	95	852	44	209	502	1,598	71
5,843	156	3,749	109	....	1,140	4,090	315
2,433	103	1,791	5	....	682	2,473	239
2,479	5	1,555	250	....	418	2,223	233
75	7	137	..	....	26	213	4
1,498	121	890	..	....	690	1,579	42
3,715	45	2,855	21	....	640	3,516	216
Non-working.				Non-working.			
Non-working.				Non-working.			
1,190	46	423	24	300	224	1,011	21
Non-working.				Non-working.			
1,635	32	306	134	337	453	1,985	1
Non-working.				Non-working.			
470	5	279	38	19	151	419	4
16,005	423	6,790	4,205	2,264	6,633	19,952	1,266
6,719	301	2,894	164	....	1,601	9,659	776
765	67	370	..	....	361	732	59
410	....	227	5	....	193	425	5
1,752	32	307	144	509	342	1,693	-49
690	....	232	15	179	159	576	9
340	2	427	38	425	127	1,017	22
829	13	371	18	593	185	1,167	-63
985	3	390	279	515	98	1,030	17
4,513	439	4,012	205	....	697	4,914	376
652	5	313	204	209	186	903	5
390	5	490	306	....	324	1,039	2
1,598	5	521	325	509	305	1,681	15
840	....	319	98	200	295	912	..
1,304	7	653	336	....	413	1,402	2
1,249	....	547	199	390	359	1,316	..

Serial No.	Name of Society	Date of Registration	Number of members
1	2	3	4
60	Standard Mills Warping, Sizing, etc., Department Co-operative Credit Society.	4th February 1919.	39
61	Standard Mills Weaving Co-operative Credit Society ..	4th February 1919.	86
62	Tata Mills Bleaching, Dyeing Department Co-operative Credit Society.	2nd June 1919 ..	37
63	Tata Mills Co-operative Credit Society .. ..	4th February 1919.	66
64	Tata Mills Spinning Department Co-operative Credit Society ..	4th February 1919.	43
65	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Weaving Department Co-operative Credit Society.	2nd December 1919.	106
66	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Ring and Throstle Co-operative Credit Society.	2nd December 1919.	88
67	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Folding and Sizing Co-operative Credit Society.	22nd December 1919.	46
68	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Carding Co-operative Credit Society	22nd December 1919.	70
69	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Mechanical .. ..	30th January 1920.	34
70	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Dyeing and Bleaching Co-operative Credit Society.	30th January 1920.	39
71	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Reeling and Winding Co-operative Credit Society.	4th August 1921.	50
72	Kurla Swadeshi Mills Clerks Department Co-operative Credit Society.	5th January 1922.	30
Grand Total ..			4,406

Loans due by in- dividuals	Cost of management	Share Capital paid	Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund	Working Capital	Profit and loss for the year
			Members	Non- Members			
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
957	5	366	162	200	282	1,010	10
1,625	5	733	282	300	382	1,704	2
320	....	270	..	1,433	212	1,915	..
1,495	74	682	162	1,500	530	2,874	— 32
380	....	341	..	1,950	345	2,636	..
1,920	45	1,279	34	....	613	1,926	196
1,318	27	1,031	159	100	391	1,681	214
955	34	567	29	100	226	922	135
1,495	64	977	342	250	384	1,953	185
526	20	374	16	101	132	623	43
580	42	334	8	200	102	644	60
390	20	270	141	100	79	590	52
845	12	438	10	450	62	960	103
1,17,484	3,621	73,135	16,257	18,481	32,683	1,40,713	8,264

## (b) Credit Societies of Labouring Classes working

Serial No.	Name of Society	Date of Registration	Number of members
1	2	3	4
1	Abr Building Co-operative Credit Society .. ..	7th June 1919 ..	54
2	Bhivandkar Maratha .. ..	18th November 1920.	71
3	Bombay Soravadikar .. ..	20th January 1924.	33
4	Dadabhai Chawf .. ..	25th May 1920 ..	44
5	Dadar Stable .. ..	22nd October 1923.	121
6	Gas Workers' .. ..	5th January 1922.	268
7	Goa Kamagar .. ..	23rd September 1924.	66
8	Haji Kasam Chawf .. ..	6th April 1923 ..	36
9	Kamathipura Stables .. ..	24th May 1923 ..	33
10	Kowli Compound .. ..	10th August 1918 ..	33
11	Kumbhkar .. ..	22nd August 1919.	41
12	Natal .. ..	3rd January 1924.	100
13	Parel Kshatriya Kufotpanna Maratha Co-operative Credit Society.	25th January 1919.	113
14	Tardeo Petal Compound Co-operative Credit Society ..	4th May 1917 ..	53
15	Textile Mill Compound .. ..	May 1921 ..	40
16	Kshatriya Kufotpanna Maratha Vidyaprasarak Co-operative Credit Society.	20th September 1919.	60
17	Kshatriya Gadakar Maratha Co-operative Credit Society ..	7th August 1920 ..	147
18	Karuneshwar Prasadik .. ..	24th July 1914 ..	40
19	*Mazagaon Dock .. ..	1st August 1920 ..	889
20	Rohidas .. ..	3rd September 1920.	60
21	Rohidas Vidyavardhak Samaj .. ..	1st March 1921 ..	44
22	Shree Ramprasadik .. ..	Cancelled after March.	15
23	Wasad .. ..	16th October 1916.	97
24	Bombay Meghaval Co-operative Credit Society, Unlimited ..	19th August 1913.	68
25	Mitra Samaj Co-operative Credit Society, Unlimited ..	3rd July 1914 ..	21
26	Shree Sant Prasadik .. ..	4th May 1916 ..	16
27	Somavanshiya .. ..	15th December 1918.	27
28	Ferguson Road Co-operative Credit Society, Limited ..	27th February 1922.	50
29	Chinchpokli Road .. ..	5th January 1922 ..	29
30	Samaj Hitachintak Mandal .. ..	6th May 1920 ..	65
	Grand Total ..		3,729

\* The Society is open to all the Employees of the Dock, but

*in Mills, Municipalities and other places.*

Loans due by individuals	Cost of management	Share Capital paid	Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund	Working Capital	Profit and loss for the year
			Members	Non-Members			
5.	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
2,085	11	820	251	....	458	1,849	-21
2,247	29	1,750	133	....	800	2,188	185
1,140	5	390	230	....	46	866	134
969	11	502	69	....	205	776	4
5,098	82	2,458	5	811	....	8,749	1,411
8,784	417	4,720	1,925	50	767	7,468	1,315
1,747	71	1,155	47	....	87	1,709	26
805	55	380	5	....	194	559	58
1,286	74	935	10	....	....	1,445	19
907	51	565	81	....	529	1,175	32
1,140	38	568	95	3	354	990	35
4,802	246	2,397	774	....	800	4,896	101
1,948	26	1,166	189	....	724	2,079	327
1,053	29	530	160	....	452	1,142	165
684	9	440	20	5	219	678	2
995	8	484	29	200	214	927	228
3,501	56	2,930	421	....	568	3,019	480
1,021	81	400	206	37	524	1,167	117
80,468	360	86,330	21,195	....	5,025	1,12,550	7,518
2,525	110	1,073	211	2	926	2,405	291
1,987	34	788	33	....	363	1,614	72
660	....	171	2	167	363	766	-
4,859	278	2,037	2,834	288	849	5,983	335
8,250	389	491	..	2,200	8,722	11,413	109
2,114	....	188	..	1,500	620	2,808	44
1,811	....	226	..	1,215	368	1,809	21
4,521	7	703	422	2,714	1,705	5,544	47
1,043	28	709	3	....	117	1,039	161
775	....	508	..	....	115	623	7
2,499	27	970	1,025	....	446	2,441	346
1,51,644	2,491	1,16,764	80,346	9,167	26,054	1,86,567	18,549

the majority of the members are labourers.



Serial No.	Name of Society	Date of Registration	Number of members
1	2	3	4
	<i>Consumers' Society</i>		
1	Currimbhoy Ibrahim Co-operative Stores, Limited ..	8th September 1919,	257
	<i>Producers' Society</i>		
1	Sahakari Manoranjan Mandal, Limited .. ..	30th November 1925.	128
	<i>Mill-hands' Societies in Mofussil</i>		
1	Broach Fine Counts Mill Employees' Co-operative Credit Society.	1911 ..	23
2	Broach Whittle Spinning and Manufacturing Co. Spinning Department Co-operative Credit Society.	1920 ..	395
3	Pratap Millhands' Co-operative Urban Bank, Amalner ..	1916 ..	621
4	Pratap Millhands' Nutan Co-operative Credit Society, Amalner.	1924 ..	630
5	Dhulla New Pratap Mills Employees' Co-operative Credit Society.	1927 ..	85
	Grand Total ..		1,754
		<i>No.</i>	
	Millhands' Societies (Bombay and Suburbs) .. ..	72	4,406
	Co-operative Societies of Labouring Classes working in Mills, Municipality, etc.	30	2,729
	Consumers' Society for Millhands .. ..	1	257
	Producers' Society for Millhands .. ..	1	128
	Mill-hands' Societies (Mofussil) ..	5	1,754
	Grand Total ..	109	9,274

Loans due by individuals	Cost of management	Share Capital paid	Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from		Reserve Fund	Working Capital	Profit and loss for the year
			Members	Non- Members			
5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
....	1,426	322	....	3,375	409	4,106	1,250
493	483	647	....	....	....	647	--
2,877	....	1,140	568	162	5,220	7,090	--
3,306	....	2,655	56	393	709	3,813	--
1,42,921	....	18,005	1,08,799	19,502	8,910	1,67,211	--
81,855	....	6,410	31,411	1,686	880	40,387	--
2,140	....	846	4,378	....	66	5,390	--
1,88,099	....	29,156	1,45,212	21,743	15,785	2,23,891	--
1,17,434	3,521	73,135	16,257	18,481	32,683	1,40,713	8,264
1,51,644	2,491	1,16,764	30,346	9,167	26,054	1,86,587	13,549
....	1,426	322	....	3,375	409	4,106	1,250
493	483	647	....	....	....	647	--
1,88,099	....	29,156	1,45,212	21,743	15,785	2,23,891	--
4,52,670	7,021	2,20,024	1,91,815	52,766	74,931	5,55,924	23,063

**Mr. F. B. PNDARVES 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). 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 Government, to report on the reorganisation 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. 3,89,93,737	Rs. 2,00,29,462

The expenditure on Technical and Industrial Education is—

Total	From Provincial Funds
Rs. 5,20,478	Rs. 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 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 moulding, 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 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 from 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. It is hoped that none are inconsistent with official discipline and propriety, and are not intended to criticise the policy or decisions of the Secretary of State or any Government in British India whose policy and decisions on many matters are of course unknown to undersigned.

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) UTILISATION BY WORKERS OF ACCOMMODATION AVAILABLE.**

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	Chaws	Vacant	Men	Women	Children	Total	Persons per chawl
A .. ..	180	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
<b>Total ..</b>	<b>318</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>325</b>	<b>293</b>	<b>999</b>	<b>2.78</b>

**IV. Health.**

**(25) EXTENT TO WHICH MEDICAL FACILITIES ARE UTILISED.**

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 worst 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) EXISTING REGULATIONS.

The existing section 34 regarding accident reporting would appear to need amendment to include accidents to any person or child and not only 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	

## (45) CAUSES OF ACCIDENTS.

The following table and analysis accidents by causes :

Causes of accidents	1927				1928			
	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total
<b>1. Machinery—</b>								
(a) Prime Movers .. ..	..	9	7	16	..	5	3	8
(b) Transmission machinery—								
(1) Mill gearing, shaft pulleys ..	1	3	..	4	..	3	1	4
(2) Belts .. ..	2	10	6	18	1	15	7	25
(c) Lifting Machinery—								
(1) Hoists— .. ..	..	1	2	3	2	4	..	6
(2) Other lifting gear .. ..	..	2	1	3	..	1	1	2

45 CAUSES OF ACCIDENTS—*contd.*

Causes of accidents	1927				1928			
	Fatal	Seri- ous	Minor	Total	Fatal	Seri- ous	Minor	Total
<b>I. Machinery—<i>contd.</i></b>								
(d) Working Machinery—								
(1) Textile Machinery—								
(a) Blow room Machinery .. ..	..	22	6	28	1	20	5	26
(b) Carding room Machinery .. ..	1	33	13	47	1	33	10	44
(c) Drawing Machinery .. ..	..	5	4	9	..	8	4	12
(d) Speed frames .. ..	..	15	7	22	..	15	5	20
(e) Spinning Machinery .. ..	1	13	13	27	..	21	3	24
(f) Looms— .. ..	..	55	25	80	..	45	29	74
(g) Calenders .. ..	..	7	2	9	..	8	1	9
(h) Unclassified textile Machinery .. ..	..	26	16	42	1	33	16	50
(2) Machine Tools .. ..	1	14	6	21	..	13	10	23
(3) Miscellaneous unclassified Machinery .. ..	..	7	3	10	..	10	14	24
<b>II. Transport—</b>								
(a) Rolling stock on lines .. ..	..	11	9	20	..	11	4	15
(b) Rolling stock not on lines .. ..	..	1	..	1	..	2	1	3
<b>III. Persons falling—</b>								
(a) From altitudes .. ..	1	21	17	39	2	3	12	17
(b) Into excavations, pits, etc. .. ..	..	1	4	5	..	1	2	3
(c) On level .. ..	..	6	10	16	..	9	7	16
<b>IV. Falling objects—</b>								
(a) Handled by injured person .. ..	1	29	32	62	..	35	56	90
(b) Not handled by injured person .. ..	3	7	7	17	3	8	5	16
<b>V. Hand tools (including chips and particles set in motion by them)—</b>								
(a) In hands of injured persons .. ..	..	17	14	31	..	5	13	18
(b) In hands of other person .. ..	..	2	3	5	..	2	3	5
<b>VI. Electricity—</b>								
.. ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	3
<b>VII. Poisons, corrosive substances and occupational diseases.</b>	..	1	2	3	..	..	..	..
<b>VIII. Explosions and fires—</b>								
(a) Boilers and steam pressure equipment. .. ..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..
(b) Other explosions .. ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(c) Fires .. ..	3	5	2	10	1	..	3	4
(d) Hot substances and flames .. ..	1	6	8	15	1	10	6	17
<b>X. Miscellaneous—</b>								
(a) Heat prostration .. ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(b) Stepping on or striking objects .. ..	..	10	14	24	..	5	13	18
(c) Others .. ..	..	..	..	1	1	4	1	6
<b>Total</b> .. ..	15	321	234	570	14	349	236	599



## (46) ACCIDENT PREVENTION.

The majority of Ahmedabad Mills have posted Safety Posters and some have special safety rules of their own.

## (48) FIRST AID AND MEDICAL RELIEF.

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 following tables are of interest in connection with the question of the stringency of inspection.

## (1) Industry generally (Perennial factories).

Year.	Number of factories.	Inspections.				Uninspected.	Remarks.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than thrice.		
1926 ..	185	35	107	35	1	7	Full time staff only.
1927 ..	191	33	138	13	..	7	
1928 ..	198	47	126	10	..	15	

## (2) Seasonal Industries.

Year.	Number of factories.	Inspections.				Uninspected.	Remarks.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than thrice.		
1926 ..	321	284	11	3	..	23	Full time staff only.
1927 ..	338	288	14	..	..	36	
1928 ..	342	286	6	..	..	48	

The majority of these uninspected by full time staff were inspected by *ex-officio* officers.

In addition to the above the full time staff made 1751 special visits in 1926, 1556 in 1927 and 1266 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 ..	399	6,335	Full time staff only.
1927 ..	74	2,500	
1928 ..	111	5,435	

(50) EFFECT OF HOURS OF WORK ON SAFETY.

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 table in Appendix A shows the distribution of women and children in industries employing the majority and that more women are employed as children are reduced.

The tendency appears for women to be employed in increasing numbers and they form a large proportion of all persons as the following figures emphasise :—

Year.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1914 ..	28,667	4,593	5,029	38,299
	(74·8%)	(12·0%)	(13·2%)	
1928 ..	48,217	11,432	1,226	60,875
	(79·2%)	(18·8%)	(2·0%)	

## APPENDIX A

The following table shows the distribution of women and children in the Industries employing the majority :—

Year.	Women.					
	Gujarat.			Sind.		Total.
	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 ..	17,869	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	4,579	1,836	1,105	19,206
1928 ..	17,551	12,969	4,791	2,257	1,542	19,808

Year.	Children.					
	Gujarat.			Sind.		Total.
	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	706	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.

AGRICULTURAL LABOUR.

Only about 2/3rd 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, hands of able bodied husbandmen and field labourers (who belong chiefly to the Marathas, Kunbis and Mhars 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 firms, 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 Muhamadan 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.

I am not in possession of information on any other points.