



ROYAL COMMISSION  
ON  
LABOUR IN INDIA.

---

EVIDENCE.

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Vol. II.—Part 1.

PUNJAB, DELHI  
and  
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### NOTE TO PART I.

In this part is reproduced the bulk of the evidence submitted to the Commission in the form of written memoranda in reply to the list of subjects circulated in August 1929. In preparing this volume the Commission have sought to retain all matter likely to be of permanent interest to students of the subject, and not available elsewhere. Material supplied to the Commission which has already been printed and published elsewhere has in general not been reproduced. Where memoranda have been abridged all considerable omissions have been indicated in the text.

### 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.

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## LIST OF SUBJECTS.

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- (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.
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    - (b) Possibility of practical schemes.
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- (8) *Labour "turnover."\**
  - (i) Average duration of employment.
  - (ii) Extent of casual employment.
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    - (c) Time and wages lost.
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\* This word should be read as indicating generally the changes in composition of the labour staff of an undertaking.

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- (10) *Details of organisation, administrative and departmental.*
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42	Lieutenant-General Sir Edwin H. de V. Atkinson, K.C.B., K.B.E., C.M.G., C.I.E.	Master General of Ordnance in India.	145—147	236—242, B-3146.
43	Abdus Subhan ..	} Representatives of the workers in the Government of India Press, Delhi.	380—383	....
44	Abdur Rahman ..		383—387	....
45	Colonel J. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S.	Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India.  III.—AJMER-MERWARA.	388—391	243—248, B-3263.
46	The Chief Commissioner, Ajmer-Merwara.	..	Volume VIII, Part I, 432—437.	249—262, B-3335.
47	Mr. W. H. Abel ..	Inspector of Factories, Ajmer.	391—393	263—268, B-3544.
48	Raj Sahib Chandrika Prasad	Ajmer. ..	393—394	....
49	Miss J. E. Copeland, M.A.	Church of Scotland Mission House, Ajmer.	394—396	....
50	Mr. Kanhaiyalal Gargiya.	..	393—394	....
51	Lieutenant-Colonel G. M. Millar, O.B.E., I.M.S.	Chief Medical Officer in Rajputana and Civil Surgeon, Ajmer-Merwara.	394—396	....
52	Mr. E. C. Gibson, I.C.S.	Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Ajmer-Merwara.		

The evidence (written or oral or ~~of~~ of the ~~total~~ wing witnesses belonging to these provinces is printed in Volume VIII, Part I (Written) and II (Oral)—Railways.

Serial No.	Name.	Designation and/or address of witness.	Vol. VIII, Part I (Written evidence) pages.	Vol. VIII, Part II (Oral evidence) pages and Nos. of the first questions of the series.
1	Mr. Ladikram	Representatives of the North Western Railway Union.	359—397	2—14, K-1.
2	Mr. Shivram Das *Randeve			
3	Mr. M. A. Khan	President and General Secretary, General Workers' Union, North Western Railway.	397—427	14—32, K-121.
4	Mr. M. D. Akhtar			
5	Colonel C. S. M. C. Watson, D.S.O., O.B.E.	Chief Operating Superintendent, N. W. Railway.	1—358	32—77, K-334
6	Mr. A. K. Muirhead			
7	Mr. T. G. Russell	Deputy Agent (Personnel), N. W. Railway.	1—358	78—176, K-739.
8	Mr. A. A. L. Parsons, C.I.E., I.C.S.			
9	Mr. A. M. Hayman, O.B.E.	Member, Railway Board.	1—358	78—176, K-739.
10	Mr. H. A. M. Hannay			
11	Mr. J. A. Woodhead, I.C.S.	Representatives of the Government of India, Railway Department (Railway Board).	427—429	177—186, K-1509.
	Secretaries B. & C. I. Railway men's Federation			
	Apprentices' Mr. H. ...		429—432	
	Raj Sahil Prasada All-India ...		432—437	Volume II, Part II, pages 249—282, B-3335.
36	Mr. C. D. Didwani	Mr. H. Armi M.B.E., V.I.	1—358	187—223, K-1625.
37	The Delhi Municipal Committee			

Serial No.	Name.	Designation and/or address of witness.	Vol. VIII, Part I (Written evidence) pages.	Vol. VIII, Part II (Oral evidence) pages and Nos. of the first questions of the series.
15	Mr. E. C. H. Condon, V.D.	Engineer-in-Chief, B. B. & C. I. Railway (Metre Gauge), Ajmer.	} 1-358	187-223, K-1625.
16	Mr. C. G. Cotesworth, V.D.	Acting Locomotive Superintendent, B. B. & C. I. Railway (Metre Gauge), Ajmer.		
17	Colonel H. F. Hobbs, D.S.O., M.C.	Staff Officer, B. B. and C. I. Railway.		
18	Mr. A. Lyons ..	} Representatives of Anglo-Indian and Domiciled European Railway Employees on the B. B. and C. I. Railway, Ajmer.	618-634	223-231, K-2026.
19	Mr. N. T. Duffy ..			

## THE PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

### Introduction.

1. The Punjab motto "*crescat e fluvio*" is in itself an indication that the fortunes of the province stand mainly on agriculture, and a confession that of the three constituents of large scale industry, i.e., adjacent water, coal and iron, only one of these is abundantly available. With its Himalayan forests and its Himalayan water power the Punjab has a fair field for industrial development despite the handicap of its remoteness from seaports, but with agriculture as its supreme industry the concomitants of industrial activity, viz., specialization and urbanization have yet to make their appearance. The main class of Punjab factories, viz., the cotton ginning factories, are seasonal and spring from the cultivation and not the mining of the soil, and the process of production are complementary to agriculture and not linked in contiguity with other processes as in professional industry precipitating itself in urban agglomerations.

2. The following paragraphs from the memorandum prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission by the Government of the Punjab, Volume I, Part I.—Descriptive matter may be referred to for a description of the province:—Paragraphs 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 26.

3. The best comment on the present importance of the "field of industry" is the shortness of the paragraph devoted to it. The chief existing industries are weaving, dyeing, woodwork, ironwork and tanning. Among agricultural industries may be instanced oil-pressing, flour milling, cotton ginning, sugarcane crushing, rice hulling, and other processes in the preparation of raw produce for consumption. These are indigenous industries. As regards newer industries based on agriculture there should be mentioned sericulture and silk, the manufacture of paper from grass, fruit and its preservation and canning, lac, oil refining and hydrogenating. Examples of industries derived from agriculture are petroleum and its derivatives, cement, glass, and industries based on the utilization of forest products, i.e., turpentine and resin, and for this group both capital and trained skill are required.

### *Descriptive Matter.*

The following subjects with which the present enquiry is concerned are distributed under the portfolios mentioned:—

Portfolio of the Honourable Member for Revenue	.. Forests, irrigation, industrial matters (reserved), criminal tribes.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Agriculture..	Public works.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Education ..	Industries.
Portfolio of the Honourable Minister for Local Self-Government.	Medical and public health.

For a description of these subjects reference may be made to the following paragraphs in the Punjab Government's memorandum prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I (Description Matter):—

- Forests—paragraphs 90 and 91.
- Irrigation—paragraph 96.
- Industrial matters reserved—paragraphs 101–105.
- Criminal Tribes—paragraphs 107–113.
- Public Works—paragraphs 159–164 and 177–187.
- Industries—paragraphs 188–195.
- Medical—paragraphs 202–203.
- Public Health—paragraphs 217–231

### I.—Recruitment and Employment.

1. Agriculturally there is neither a shortage of labour, nor any superfluity. The Punjab colonies in their gradual development in the last 30 years have relieved the congestion in the thickly populated districts of the central Punjab, and the only mobility in agricultural labour is in this irregular trend to the colonies, and in the

seasonal influx of harvesters to the colonies either from adjoining dry Punjab districts or from arid Rajputana from where is also derived a considerable volume of migratory unskilled labour (including women) for building and construction work in the Province. This mobility, limited as it is, is automatic.

2. According to the census report of 1921, the total number of persons employed in 763 industrial establishments in the Punjab was 61,236, or about .25 per cent. of the total population of the province. It was then reported that 70 per cent. of the skilled labour and nearly 50 per cent. of the unskilled labour was recruited from the district of birth. According to the latest annual report on factories (1928), the total number of persons employed in all factories in the Punjab is 51,613, of which 43,296 are men, 7,534 women and 783 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 13,629, are employed in railway workshops, 4,743 in government factories such as military workshops, arsenals, etc., and 33,241 in all other factories.

Of the total number, 21,763 are employed on seasonal work, of which 21,335 are in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 428 in rice factories. Women are mostly employed in cotton ginning factories as unskilled workers, numbering 7,123 out of a total of 7,534 employed in all factories.

Of the total number of children, 93 are employed in textile mills, 246 in cotton ginning factories and 444 in other factories such as sports works, printing presses, match factories, cement factories and oil refineries.

Workers in factories other than those employed in railway workshops, textile mills and a few other engineering works belong mostly to the agricultural class and they seek employment in factories only with a view to fill in their time between harvests. The majority of skilled workers in railway and engineering works are imported from other provinces and having no interest in the land are keen upon improving themselves. Bombay and the United Provinces supply certain numbers of factory managers, engineers and head mstris, many of whom are Parsees. A fair number of engineers and boilermen are Sikhs.

The labour in factories is mostly unorganized, only the highly paid men holding positions of responsibility such as factory managers and engineers continue to remain in service for any length of time in the same factory. It is rare to find a worker earning less than Rs. 150 a month, who has been in the same factory for more than three or four years.

3. The development and maintenance of the Punjab Canals affords employment to a large body of workers. Table I contains a statement giving the gross area for each canal, or circle of superintendence. There is little, if any, migratory labour on open canals: local labour is obtained from neighbouring cultivators or village menials, who take up work on the canals where agricultural operations are slack.

As regards canals under construction, the chief engineers report that "the employment of 'local' or 'imported' labour depends on the conditions of the tract in which the canal is being constructed. In tracts thinly populated, practically all labour is 'imported', but there have been cases recently of new canals being constructed in tracts already poorly served by inundation canals in which 'local' labour was easy to get, in these, 'local' labour has been mainly employed.

"'Imported' labour comes from the north-west frontier province, Afghanistan, Bikaner State, and the dry districts of the Punjab where rainfall is scanty and conditions bordering on famine frequently prevail. Labour from the North-West Frontier Province and Afghanistan works only under contractors from its own tracts and always returns home for the hot weather; labour from Peshawar will sometimes remain throughout the hot weather, but only with great difficulty.

"The amount of 'imported' labour obtainable from the dry districts of the Punjab and Bikaner State depends almost entirely on the monsoon; if rainfall is good very little labour is obtainable in the following winter and then only at high wages.

"Statistics of labour employed on Open Canals are not maintained; statistics maintained on canals under construction show that: (a) in one circle the average number of men employed daily from 1st January, 1925, to 31st October, 1926, was 6,644, the maximum number was 12,414 in February, 1926, and the minimum 3,431 in October, 1925; (b) at a headworks, now nearing completion, the average number employed daily from beginning of November, 1926, to end of June, 1929, was 2,172 men, the maximum number being 5,448 in February, 1929, and the minimum 945 in August, 1927."

4. In the industrial field such migration of labour as there is tends towards (a) the canal colonies, (b) such business and industrial centres as Lahore, Amritsar, Ludhiana, Sialkot. The Director of Industries notes, "It was noted by the district census officer of Amritsar in 1921 that of 5,000 labourers at Amritsar in the busy season not more than 500 were permanent labourers. Most of these labourers

are drawn from the agricultural class. They frequently return to their villages at sowing and harvesting time or for ceremonial purposes. The labour employed in factories cannot be described as an industrial proletariat whose only source of livelihood is work in factories. On account of the development of agriculture in recent years the movement of labour towards the canal areas in Lyallpur, Montgomery and Multan has considerably increased. It may, however, be noted that most of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories in these areas is seasonal. It should also be stated in this connection that so far as the unskilled labour is concerned it is so plentiful that on no occasion has any difficulty been experienced in obtaining it." Skilled labourers, i.e., technical workers, foremen, mistries, have in the past been imported from the United Provinces, and from Bombay and Calcutta, but the growth of technical institutions in the Punjab in recent years is supplying the want in the way of qualified engineers, surveyors, draftsmen, mechanics and fitters. In areas where factories have been established a tendency is reported on the part of labour available in surrounding villages to take up factory work in preference to work on the field on account of its being more remunerative, but the volume of such work is small indeed, and the Punjabi, possibly from lack of sufficient opportunity, has still to take kindly to factory work.

5. As regards the method of recruitment, there is both direct recruitment, i.e., the applicant applies for employment usually in the evening for work on the next day, or the factory owner sends out agents to secure the labour he needs. The cotton ginning and baling factories usually employ a labour contractor who makes a daily payment to the labour he has recruited. In other industrial establishments labour is, as a rule, recruited directly. In the North-Western Railway workshops recruitment is now done through a labour bureau. On canal and construction works contractors have to look for their labour from the neighbourhood, and imported labour usually will not make a move till advances of money are given. In the Forest Department (felling and other work) labour is often nominally recruited by petty contractors, but actually cash advances against promises to work are made by the Forest Department on behalf of the contractors. Employment agencies and exchanges could perhaps be usefully employed with regard to the recruitment of skilled labour, but as regards unskilled labour, the present methods of recruitment work satisfactorily enough, and have the merit of being cheap.

6. *Unemployment.*—The Punjab Government in 1927 appointed a committee, whose terms of reference were:—"To investigate and report—(i) The extent of the existence of unemployment among (a) educated, and (b) the uneducated classes of the community in the Punjab; (ii) the causes of unemployment; and (iii) the possible remedies for unemployment."

The committee's report was published in pamphlet form in 1928. The committee came to the conclusion that there is no evidence of any serious and widespread unemployment among the uneducated classes, and such unemployment as did exist was voluntary rather than forced. The Director of Industries points out that in western countries where occupations are properly classified and where workers belong to sub-groups of a specialized trade, it is easy to determine the extent of unemployment, but in the Punjab where an ordinary mistry may take a job wherever he may get one without reference with any specialization on his part, it is by no means easy to appraise the quality and extent of unemployment. There is no such unemployment in the Punjab amongst skilled workers.

As regards the so-called unemployment among workers in cotton ginning factories the committee were of the view that "as the cotton ginning season only lasts for four or five months it would appear to be more correct to say that the cotton ginning season is the off-season for their other employment." In fact, such labourers as are not in any way connected with agriculture (and this proportion is very small) easily find other employment on the termination of the ginning season, in the building trade, with local grain dealers or as private servants.

There is then little, if any, unemployment in the Punjab as far as labour is concerned. The reason is that there have been no great material developments carried out under any industrial system of private enterprise, bank credit and the specialization of labour, and consequently there is as yet no price to pay for these developments in the way of unemployment. Normal periodical unemployment due to cyclical fluctuations of trade is negligible, but here and there may occasionally be found an instance of unemployment incidental to industrial change and growth, as for example, at the Khewra Salt Mine, where the introduction of up-to-date plant has decreased the demand for manual labour in an immobile professional population.

As the report of the committee on unemployment shows, the local government is greatly exercised about possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress among the educated youth of the country, but so far as industry is concerned, the

Punjab is not an industrialized province, and consequently the effects of maladjustments in industry are on the whole negligible, and, therefore, no unemployment insurance scheme is needed for individuals condemned in virtue of their specialized trades to involuntary unemployment. The unskilled labour is mainly casual, and neither asks for nor needs decasualization. As regards the applications of international conventions, the need thereof may be gauged from the following ambiguous approval of the Director of Industries :—" It appears that the Articles contained in the International Draft Conventions are indeed beneficial to the case of the working classes and may, therefore, be applied to the Punjab with certain modifications to suit the local conditions."

7. The Director of Industries' opinion is that for skilled labour the average duration of employment varies from four months to four years, and that of unskilled labour from two to three months. The Inspector of Factories would put the period of casual employment in factories from four to seven months, depending on the season; the remaining portions of the year are spent in working on the land. In the forest department, seven months is the average duration of employment in the case of extraction of timber from the hills and resin tapping. Mr. Charles, Superintendent, Central Workshops, Public Works Department, Amritsar, which employ 400 to 500 men, has supplied the following note on unemployment and labour turnover in his workshops :—

" *Skilled Men.*—That there must be a certain amount of unemployment among skilled men is indicated by the ease with which I can secure fresh men, but among skilled mechanics, etc., I do not think the matter is serious. I receive about six to eight applications for work in a month for skilled men.

" Apart from temporary labour to meet specially urgent work, only about four or five of my regular men leave me of their own accord in a year. Many of these are young men who, having been taught their trade and gained some experience at these works, are looking out for advancement.

" It is naturally my object to keep the labour turnover as small as possible and I have several men who have worked in these workshops for 15 years or more. These are mostly skilled men.

*Unskilled Men, Coolies, Menials, etc.*—In this case the matter is entirely different; there appears to be a lot of unemployment and the labour turnover is high. Many of them leave of their own accord, but there are plenty to fill their places. Half of those leaving go in order to try and get better pay. The remainder for no particular reason, for family reasons or merely for a change.

" Out of 97 coolies employed, 6 have been at these workshops over 10 years and 35 over 2 years. During the year 1928, 39 coolies left and others were engaged to fill their places. Approximately one-third of the coolies leave every year."

## II.—Staff Organization.

1. In large scale works, e.g., the Attock Oil Co., Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, the Portland Cement Works, the managing staff is recruited from abroad. The subordinate supervising staff is drawn from the province itself, but recruitment from among the operatives is rare. There is a wide gulf between skilled and unskilled labour. Workmen are usually illiterate, and an unskilled worker has no opportunity of qualifying himself as a skilled worker. There are no facilities for workmen corresponding to technical evening classes in England. Lack of education is likely to stand in the way of any forwarding of the purpose underlying works committees and the like.

2. The notable personage in India is the contractor. If a job has to be done, or things or men are to be got, you employ a contractor. No task is trivial and possibly no task is too big for an Indian " thekedar," who may be described as being a public utility undertaking, operating nearly always with profit to himself. Works committees, works councils, and the like all coalesce here in the contractor, and his universal function of a supplier of labour. In Government construction works " mistris " or men of little education, and mates—themselves of no education—super-vice work done by labour supplied by contractors. The pivot is the contractor. For example, though piece-work records are kept in the Forest Department by the subordinates of the department, wages are paid by contractors or their agents, and all felling, logging, sawing, carrying and floating of timber is given on contract.

3. The Inspector of Factories has supplied the following note :—  
" Wages are sometimes withheld for two or three months, and then the employer takes an opportunity to get rid of the worker."

4. Technical institutions in the province are proving increasingly useful in supplying subordinate supervising staff both in public concerns and in private enterprises.



**III.—Housing.**

As far as Government is concerned, a lively road policy is being pursued, but it is not an integral part of any deliberate housing scheme. No enquiry has been conducted into the housing conditions of labour in towns and municipalities or into facilities provided by employers for their operatives. Big towns like Lahore and Amritsar are badly congested. In Lahore an improvement trust has been established which works in conjunction with the municipality, but there is no labour tenement or particular area in Punjab cities. Housing finds no part in public utility undertakings, and there is practically no expenditure on housing out of rates.

2. In its own factories and undertakings, Government provides housing accommodation for both the supervising and subordinate staff. No rent is charged for occupation of quarters by menials, but in the case of subordinate and clerical staff a deduction of 10 per cent. by way of rent is usually made from salaries. For unskilled labour a quarter 10 ft. by 10 ft. with a verandah is the prevailing type.

3. In privately-owned factories of any size, quarters are provided for the permanent staff, and some of the bigger mills house a proportion of the entire staff within the factory at a nominal rent. In cotton ginning mills no accommodation is provided—workers return to their homes at night and this is the common rule. In canal colony areas, where villages and small towns are planned by the Colonization Officer in consultation with the Director of Public Health, space is allotted round the walls of a factory for workers who can build their own quarters or huts for themselves. Workers are only too glad to get any accommodation provided by the employer, but the need to provide accommodation is rare.

4. There is not in the Punjab any differentiation between the housing conditions of industrial workers and their neighbours in the same social grade. There are no industrial slums as such, or any peculiar urban inflammation due to the presence of agglomerations of factory or other workers, and the housing of labour is not to be differentiated from that of the ordinary poor citizen. The North-Western Railway has set up its own colony at Moghalpura, but it does not cater particularly for the labour employed in the workshops.

**IV.—Health.**

1. As regards the organization of the Department of Public Health, reference may be made to paragraphs 217–231 of the Punjab Government memorandum, prepared for the use of the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I, Descriptive Matter.

2. Labour, as regards health, groups itself under the following classes—mill and factory labour, industrial and artisan labour, certain classes of railway and public works labour, migrant labour, and labour under restriction in jails and criminal tribes settlements.

In the Punjab there is no Ministry of Labour with a health side. The Public Health Department works under the Ministry of Local Self-Government, while labour interests are looked after in a number of other portfolios, e.g. :—

Labour generally	..	..	..	H. M. R. portfolio.
Criminal tribes	..	..	..	..
Convict labour	..	..	..	H. M. F. "
Factories	..	..	..	H. M. E. "
Industries	..	..	..	..
P. W. D. labour	..	..	..	H. M. A. "

while railways are the concern of the Government of India. None of these departments have public health advisers of their own. The needs of labour are therefore not envisaged at first-hand with emphasis on its needs for public health and sanitation. The sanitation of the quarter of towns, in which industrial and artisan labour mainly live, is of course the direct concern of the Ministry of Local Self-Government, which also controls the Health Department, but here, too, there may be room for greater control of local bodies with a view to secure better housing and better health amenities for the poor.

3. As regards vital statistics in relation to labour, the Director of Public Health has supplied the following note :—

*Vital Statistics.*

1. *General population.*—The birth rate and death rate of the Punjab during the past sixty years is shown in the attached chart (Table II)\*. It will be seen that the death rate is extremely high. The mean death rate during the past five years was 33 per mille, or about 3 times the death rate of England and Wales. The most striking

\* Not printed.

feature, however, is the extreme variability of the death rate, which is attributable to the peculiar liability of this province to be the scene of virulent epidemics, and it is due to this circumstance that the death rate of the Punjab usually exceeds that of any other province of India and, indeed, of most other countries in the world.

2. The infantile mortality rate is likewise extremely high—approximately 200 per 1,000 births (as compared with 70 in England and Wales)—and as this rate is not greatly affected by epidemics (except malaria), it indicates the existence, apart from epidemics, of a low grade of health. A favourable and hopeful feature is the high birth rate—40 per mille as compared with about 20 per mille in England and Wales. That the province should exhibit a remarkably high birth rate, in spite of being constantly decimated by epidemics, indicates not only the high fertility, but also the great recuperative power, of its inhabitants. Given good health, the population should at least have doubled itself during the past 40 years, but as a matter of fact, instead of increasing by 100 per cent., it has only increased by some 3·7 millions or less than 20 per cent. during this period or a mean annual increase of about 100,000 as compared with 262,000 in England and Wales during the same period. Another striking feature of the vital statistics is the disparity between the sexes; the number of males exceeds the number of females by over 2 millions in a total population of 20·5 millions. This feature is mainly attributable to the fact that the female death rate under almost every head of mortality is invariably higher than the male death rate, whilst the contrary is the case in England and Wales, where the female death rate, after the first year of life, is lower than the male death rate at all age periods.

3. Of special interest from the point of view of labour is the fact that the urban death rate is relatively and absolutely high as compared with the rural death rate, which is indicative of the fact that the artificial conditions associated with an urban environment are peculiarly prejudicial to health.

The death rate under all heads of mortality, except malaria, which is essentially a disease of rural areas and the outskirts of towns, is appreciably higher in towns than in rural areas. The most striking feature is the high respiratory disease death rate of towns, which in 1928 was 5·79 per mille as compared with 2·18 per mille in rural areas. This feature is in large part due to the great prevalence of pulmonary tuberculosis in towns which is the outcome of neglect of sanitation, intense congestion, and bad housing, to which must be added such disgenic habits and customs as child marriage and the purdah.

The death rate from dysentery and diarrhoea in towns is also about three times higher than it is in rural areas, and this fact is attributable to the gravely insanitary conditions prevailing in urban areas.

4. *Labour*.—It is unfortunately impossible to quote any statistics bearing specially upon the health conditions of the labouring classes, and it is only possible to state in this regard that as for the most part the death rate increases *pari passu* with a decline of social status and as labour is almost solely drawn from the poorer classes the remarks made and the conclusions drawn in respect of the general population apply with special force to the hewers of wood and the drawers of water.

5. *Summary*.—This brief review of the vital statistics permits of the following conclusions:—

The Punjab is inhabited by a vigorous and prolific people, where "natural increase" is held in check by the high mortality occasioned by disease and pestilence. The low grade of health is indicated by the high death rate, apart from epidemics, the high infantile mortality rate and the high female death rate, all of which are characteristic of a society in an early phase of social, economic, and cultural development. The relatively high insalubrity of towns, where, owing to congestion of the population, the need of sanitary safeguards is infinitely greater than in villages, is a reflection of the low standard of municipal and domestic hygiene.

4. In discussions with the Director of Public Health the following weak points have been brought to notice by him:—

(a) While general health problems of the people as a whole as has been shown in the account of the organization of the department are dealt with by the Department of Public Health, the special problems of the health of labour are not specially or directly dealt with. This is mainly because labour questions, as has been shown above, are the direct concern of departments, who do not possess public health experts, and are dealt with, in the first instance, from an angle of view in which health is not necessarily a primary or prominent consideration.

(b) In his opinion the Public Health Department should advise (and their advice should be followed) in connection with large concentrations of labour employed by the Public Works Department or railway on works. Though after his advice adequate provision for the health of labour has now been made in one instance, i.e., in the Hydro-Electric Scheme, similar provision

on similar advice should be made in the case of all works. The difficulty of the problem is enhanced because much of the work is carried out by contractors and the labour works and is paid in the main not directly by Government departments but by the contractors.

(c) As regards factories, we may state his view that, in addition to the appointment of the Director of Public Health and the Assistant Directors of Public Health as additional inspectors of factories, district medical officers of health should also be appointed.

(d) The Director of Public Health should be concatenated with the Colonization Officer who founds new towns, and with the newly sanctioned town planning engineer to secure planning and building regulations on hygienic lines.

(e) The Director of Public Health should be more closely and continuously connected with planning and management of criminal tribes settlements.

(f) As regards municipal committees, notified area committees and small town committees, although many towns have now inaugurated a policy of better drainage and water supply and some have effective health officers and staff, many are still careless as regards sanitary and health measures generally, and pay much less attention to them than is required, particularly in the poorer quarter of the towns, where the industrial and artisan population mainly dwell. The question of giving a more effective voice to the expert opinion of the Director of Public Health and his officers in such matters is largely mixed up with the general control of the Ministry of Local Self-Government over municipalities and local bodies.

5. As regards medical facilities, reference is invited to the extracts previously quoted from the Punjab Government memorandum prepared for the Statutory Commission (paragraphs 202-203). The State provides necessary medical aid free of cost and workers are entitled to receive free medical attendance, free medicines, and free lying-in accommodation in hospitals and dispensaries maintained by Government and local bodies. There are in the Punjab 964 hospitals and dispensaries of all classes. . . . . Medical facilities are provided in some of the larger factories and undertakings, for example, in the Dhariwal Mills and Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wah, and a few factories have an arrangement under which a doctor pays a weekly visit. Mention should also be made of a private hospital—Sir Ganga Ram's hospital at Lahore—which gives free medical aid to all comers.

6. A great need in the province is the provision of medical aid for women by doctors of their own sex. Provision has been made in the scheme for expansion of medical relief for (a) the building of a hospital for women at the headquarters of each district; and (b) the addition of a female section to hospitals at the headquarters of selected tahsils. Women are trained at present at the Punjab Medical School, Ludhiana, and are now admitted to the King Edward Medical College, Lahore.

The untrained indigenous "dai" continues to ply her trade, and she is largely responsible for the high infant mortality. There are, however, now many centres in which modern training is being given to dais.

7. As regards official supervision, a properly qualified medical officer is in medical charge of every jail where convict labour is employed. With reference to factories, the Indian Factories Act provides for the appointment of certifying surgeons in all factories, but the functions they discharge are limited to certifying the age and physical fitness of persons seeking employment and do not extend to providing medical aid for factory employees.

8. To quote from paragraph 3 of the review of the latest annual report on Punjab factories :—

"The supply of water both for drinking purposes and for meeting the ordinary requirements of factories was adequate throughout the year. Lighting arrangements were on the whole satisfactory: almost all the perennial factories were fitted with electricity, while the newly erected factories provided ample light. The conditions in factories situated in congested city areas, however, are not quite satisfactory. Sanitary conditions were generally satisfactory. Ventilation in all the newly erected factories, particularly in perennial, showed a distinct improvement, and the Governor in Council is glad to note that the Bankteshwar Cotton Spinning and Weaving Mills, Amritsar, has given a good lead in this direction. The Government Demonstration Weaving Factory at Shahdara should serve as a model of the standard in this respect. Ventilation in cotton ginning factories is a difficult matter, but it is satisfactory to read that the palliative of having doors and windows open is generally observed. New rules with regard to the control of artificial humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills have since the close of the year been introduced, and it is hoped that they will ensure comparatively comfortable conditions for the workers."

These special rules for the control of temperature and humidity have been recently framed by the Punjab Government under Section 37 (2), Clause (g) of the Indian Factories Act for the control of temperature and humidity in cotton factories. There are three cotton spinning and weaving mills in which artificial humidity is a present being used affecting 750 operatives.

As regards the control of the construction of new factories, the Government of India was of opinion in 1926 that it is desirable that local governments should be vested with the power of controlling the construction of new factories. At the same time the Central Government held the view that the most that the Government of India could do would be to ask the Central Legislature to pass a measure giving powers to local Governments to adopt such methods for the control of factory construction as they considered suitable. Provincial Governments were accordingly asked to submit legislative proposals if they desired to proceed further in the matter. The Central Government has not as yet passed any enabling measure, nor has any province so far as it is known framed any rules except the United Provinces, which has framed some model bye-laws for the guidance of municipal and district boards for the purpose of regulating the construction and alteration of factory buildings in the province.

9. No industrial diseases have been reported in any of the factories in the Punjab, There is irritation, malaise, worry and monotony, and all the disadvantages of a larger labour turnover, and there is no due allotment of time between work and leisure.

10. The Draft Conventions and Recommendations concerning sickness insurance adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference, 1927, were placed before the Indian Legislature and the following resolution was adopted by the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly on the 20th and 27th March, 1928, respectively :—

“ That this Council Assembly having considered the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Tenth Labour Conference recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should not ratify the Draft Conventions, nor accept the recommendations.”

The Government of India, however, were of the opinion that the possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance required further examination, and requested that the question may be investigated by the local governments by a small and informal committee, including a few representatives of employers and employees.

Accordingly an informal provincial committee consisting of seven members, with the Director of Industries, Punjab, as chairman, met on the 12th February and 2nd March, 1929, to discuss the points mentioned in Government of India's letter No. L. 1518, dated the 20th September, 1928, which formed the agenda of the meeting.\*

11. The Punjab Government in submitting this report to the Government of India noted that inasmuch as the province is not the home of any such large scale industries the question of the introduction of sickness insurance is not of much practical importance for the present, and from a provincial point of view there is no need for any legislation, but should the Government of India decide to take up central legislation the local government will make no opposition, provided the legislation is made elastic enough to leave the province sufficient powers to adopt any such legislation to suit local conditions. The Punjab Government, while commending for consideration the recommendation of the committee that any scheme should be applicable to any permanently employed workers (which term should include within its scope the classes specified by the committee), suggested that a beginning should be made only with workers coming under the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Factories' Act, and the Indian Trades Union Act. Further, Government desired to dissociate itself from any acceptance of the suggestions in the committee's report defining the measures of State assistance which should be afforded, though liability for the cost of administration was accepted.

#### V.—Welfare (other than Health and Housing).

Such welfare work as there is in the province is paternalist. In the way of what is termed “ Rural Uplift ” on the part of the State, the district of Gurgaon, with which the name of Mr. F. L. Brayne will long be associated, has done pioneer work, but in towns and urban areas welfare work is confined to the ministrations of State departments such as Public Health (including health schools, health visitors, and municipal welfare centres), medical and education. Employers, speaking generally, are not interested in or alive to the need for welfare work, and the idea of a works

\* The report of this committee is not printed here, but is given in full in Appendix V to the memorandum of the Government of India.

committee has yet to form. The number of large establishments in the province is small, and the teaching of mutual responsibility has only occasional scope. Punjab labour is largely unorganized, partly migratory, illiterate and apt to return to the land. Employers have little money and no concern for benevolent activities, and too often are criminally indifferent to statutory rules. The vagaries of weather and markets occupy their attention. Recent enactments such as the Workmen's Compensation Act, Trades Union Act, Trades Disputes Act, and the protection afforded by these measures may herald the beginnings of some community spirit both among workers *inter se* and in the relations of employer and employee.

2. Some welfare work is attempted in a few important mills. At the New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal, playgrounds are provided by the mill authorities for the use of their operatives and are kept in good condition. An uplift club is also provided for the subordinate staff and a well run social club for the supervising staff. A hospital and a school both for boys and girls have also been started by this mill. The mill also runs a co-operative society for the benefit of the workers. In addition to this, two other factories, *viz.*, the Punjab Portland Cement Works at Wah and the Banktshwar Cotton Mills at Amritsar, have also evinced some interest in this direction in providing recreation grounds and clubs for the benefit of their employees. So far as the provision of educational facilities is concerned, Dhariwal Mills alone provide facilities for their workers. The Amritsar Carpet Manufacturers have been recently urged to provide half-time facilities for education of the children employed in the factories. They agreed, in theory, to the desirability but have afterwards professed inability to translate the suggestion into practice.

3. In the way of co-operation, factories are backward. At Dhariwal there is a flourishing co-operative society among the employees of the New Egerton Woollen Mills. This society does both supply and loan work, and is very keen on the improvement of its employees' conditions. There is also a large supply society at Moghalpura, whose members are employees of the railway workshops. The criminal tribes also have supply societies in their settlements and plantations.

4. The annual report of the Co-operative Department is also interesting in this connection. In 1928, the total number of non-agricultural societies in the Punjab was 2,616, with a membership of 88,613 and a working capital of over Rs. one crore. These societies include (a) credit, (b) purchase and sale, (c) production and labour, (d) production and sale and (e) thrift societies. Most of the credit societies consist mainly of Christians or menials. The menials' societies, particularly those of Chamars, are said to have worked very satisfactorily. Among Production and Labour Societies there are two presses in Lahore one of which is said to be doing well and the other badly. The number of Industrial Societies is 289, with a membership of 5,313 and working capital of Rs. 6 lakhs. Industrial societies include all kinds of artisans like weavers, woodworkers, shoemakers and goldsmiths, etc. Special mention may be made here of a few societies which are known as Better Living Societies. Their number is 231, with a membership of 8,665. The object behind the formation of these societies is to discourage expenditure on ceremonies and jewellery, etc. The remarkable success that has attended the co-operative movement in rural areas, though due undoubtedly to the heavy rural indebtedness which distinguishes the Punjab, would seem to indicate that its further infiltration into industrial spheres may in course of time stimulate team work on the part of workers themselves to speculate on questions affecting safety at work, improvements in environment, better cleanliness and air and recreation and the like.

## VI.—Education.

For a general description of the growth of facilities for general education reference is invited to Chapter VI of the Memorandum prepared for the Indian Statutory Commission, Volume I, Part I, descriptive matter. The marked progress of recent years is bound to be a potent factor in raising the standard of living.

2. Industrial areas being mainly in municipalities or small towns, children not in employment come under the control of the system of compulsory education covering the primary classes, but such compulsory education stops at the fourth primary class, *i.e.*, many years before the age of fifteen. No special arrangements exist for the education of children employed in factories. Indeed, such children are few, except in the carpet factories at Amritsar. A suggestion has been recently made to the carpet manufacturers that with the double object of restricting the hours of the children's labour and giving them the elements of education, half-time classes should be started either in the factory premises or by arrangements in neighbouring municipal schools. But the factory owners shelter themselves under the opposition of the master weavers to any such restriction of hours, and the children continue their blind alley occupation.

3. Facilities for the education of adults have been increasingly provided in recent years. There are now over 2,000 schools for adults maintained by local bodies with help of grants-in-aid from Government, with an enrolment of over 5,000 pupils. These schools, it has to be noted, are not confined to urban or industrial areas: they are mainly in the villages, and the establishment of village vernacular libraries in nearly 2,000 village schools is a benefit which only the rural classes enjoy. Some 35 small towns in the Punjab have attempts at libraries, but these libraries are in English and they suffer from lack of suitable accommodation and adequate funds. It is also only in the country that odd examples can be found of private employers maintaining schools for the benefit of their employees, *e.g.*, Major Vanrenan on his estate at Renala Khurd (Montgomery District) for the children of his tenants, and Rai Bahadur Ram Saran Das at Kot Mela Ram (Multan), for the same object. An organization like the Workers' Education Association, or any Institute of Adult Education for getting together a sufficiency of industrial workers for evening tutorial classes is yet to be born, and there are no indications that a Sir Ernest Cassel will appear in the Punjab.

4. On the other hand, industrial and vocational training under direct State guidance is making good headway. In 1912, an engineering school was established at Rasul to train sub-overseers for both branches of the Public Works Department. In 1923, the MacLagan College of Engineering was opened with the object of providing efficient and practical training for young men in mechanical and electrical engineering.

5. There are now over a score of industrial schools in the Province, and all the schools have recently been provincialized. These schools, with the exception of the Government Technical School in Lahore, are middle schools with nearly half the pupils coming from the artisan class. The main crafts taught are carpentry, metal work, weaving, lacquer turning, and copper smithy. A full-time inspector of Industrial schools was appointed in 1928, and in the current year a scheme of studies has been prepared for type I schools (middle), type II (high), and it is hoped in course of time to establish type III schools which will include in their curriculum, mechanical and electrical training and practice. The Government Technical School, Lahore, has an attendance of nearly 800 pupils, 86 per cent. being sons of artisans, and the progress of the school can be indicated by recent appointments to the staff, such as an electroplater, padder, polisher, smith and pattern maker. For technical institutes of various descriptions, reference may be made to the list in paragraph 192 of the Punjab Government memorandum for the Indian Statutory Commission and the reports of the Department of Industries, Punjab.

#### VII.—Safety.

As regards existing regulations, incidence of accidents in factories, causes, accident prevention, first-aid, medical relief and enforcement of regulations, see Memorandum of Inspector of Factories.

The complaint is general that courts take no notice of repetition of offences and inflict only small fines. A great deal of the Inspector's time is taken up in attending court often with little result.

The Punjab Government in 1928 issued directions that factory cases in four of the important industrial districts in the Punjab should be tried by a magistrate specially nominated for that purpose, and that the Local Government is alive to the need for more rigour in enforcing regulations will be apparent from the following two paragraphs from the last year's review (1929) on the working of the Indian Factories Act:—

"The number of accidents rose from 707 in 1927 to 1,019 in 1929 and an increase of 250 occurring in the railway workshops. In privately-owned factories the number remained the same. As will appear from the comparative statement below, there was an increase under all heads:—

Year.	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Average per 100 operatives employed.
1927 .. ..	16	14	677	1.4
1928 .. ..	29	36	954	1.97

"The railway workshops showed an increase of 4 fatal accidents as compared with last year, while the sudden collapse of the Verumal-Mula Mal Ginning Factory, Amritsar, accounts for 5 deaths and 7 injuries. The building of this factory was very old and the main girder collapsed as a result of the wall opening out at one end, probably due to weakness effected by rains and vibration. When the factory started working after having remained idle for 2½ years, the roof collapsed in a few hours. Government is considering what steps should be taken to prevent a recurrence of such accidents. Eight fatal accidents occurred to workers in the main shaft alley of cotton ginning factories. Serious accidents in the railway workshops increased from 5 to 18, of which 8 were injuries to eyes. There were also 151 minor injuries to eyes in the workshops. The use of eye protectors is being encouraged as a safeguard against such injuries.

"The number of prosecutions rose from 91 to 130, of which 108 resulted in conviction. This result is satisfactory, and no apology from the factory inspector is required. There were as many as 28 cases of overworking labour and children and 17 cases of illegal employment of women and children brought to court. Less satisfactory is the attitude of the magistracy in penalizing infringements of factory law, particularly in the matter of overworking employees and the illegal employment of women and children. The Governor in Council has recently observed with regret a statement from the Sheikhpura District in which fines of Rs. 15 or Rs. 10 were imposed for such offences where men were concerned, while for offences against women and children the offenders were 'warned.' It must be remembered that the operatives are seldom in a position, owing to poverty and migratory conditions, to move the civil law and secure damages for infringement of essential conditions of labour, and that the onus rests on the State to ensure that the employer in his relations to labour does not stray beyond the limits which the statutory law imposes on his treatment of labour."

2. The coal mines in the Punjab are not important. The supervising agency is that of the Chief Inspector and his Assistants. As regards the Provincial Government, the Director of Industries (except in the matter of checking concessionaries' accounts) and the Factory Inspector have no concern with the mines, and the District Magistrate, who by virtue of his office has most of the powers of an Inspector, is usually too busy with other duties to exercise any effective control.

3. As regards the effect upon safety of hours, health, light and working conditions generally it can only be broadly stated that fatigue is undoubtedly responsible for many accidents. The very notion of industrial psychology is unknown in either seasonal or regular factories, and while the Inspector must see to accident prevention, illumination, ventilation and the like, he is neither competent nor required to advise on problems like monotony, irritation, rest pauses and other concerns of an Industrial Fatigue Board.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

An increasing use is being made of the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act, as will be seen from the following table, which gives the number of cases accruing in factories which came within the purview of the Act :—

Year.	Accidents.	Number in which compensation was awarded.	Percentage.
1924 .. .. .	46	8	17
1925 .. .. .	458	392	86
1926 .. .. .	523	461	88
1927 .. .. .	376	340	90
1928 .. .. .	953	837	88

The provisions of the Act are now fairly well known, but illiterate workmen are still imperfectly posted in the procedure of making claims, and trade unions, speaking generally, do nothing to help them.

2. The following paragraphs from the review of the latest report (1929) on the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act may perhaps be appropriately included :—

" There has been a considerable increase in the number of accidents reported to have occurred in factories to which the Workmen's Compensation Act is applicable, and a much higher percentage of cases coming within the purview of the Act. The disparity in the years 1927 and 1928 is worth tabulating :—

Year.	Number of accidents reported.	Within purview of the Act.	Fatal.	Disablement.		Percentage of 2 on 1.	Cases in which compensation was paid.	Percentage.
				Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.			
1927	707	376	16	14	346	53	340	88
1928	1,019	950	29	36	888	94	376	90

" The increase in the number of accidents as reported is more a matter for regret than the increase in the number of cases brought within the Act is a source of satisfaction. Reporting has improved, and the figures afford ample testimony to an increasing familiarity on the part of operatives with the provisions of the Act, and credit seems due to the Factory Inspector and his staff for giving publicity to the method of presenting claims. Government, however, views with some alarm the increase in the number of accidents on the reasons for which the report is silent.

" Concurrent with the increase in the number of cases, there has been an unexplained decline in the amount of compensation awarded in the major cases. Suma paid for temporary disablements will always vary, but there has been a striking decline in 1928 in the average amounts paid for fatal accidents and permanent disablements, *i.s.* :—

	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Fatal accidents .. .. .	1,320	1,298	579
Permanent disablements .. .. .	722	787	398

" It may be that accidents have been more rife among the lower paid employees or it may be that insufficient amounts have been deposited by employers, or it may be that workmen have accepted whatever amount was offered rather than have recourse to Commissioners. There is perhaps some truth in the last view. It will be seen that, in spite of the big increase in the number of accidents and cases, the number of cases filed before the Commissioners for the Act was the same as in the previous year, *i.s.*, 86. The Commissioners disposed of 74 cases, 17 of which were contested, but in all cases the claim was finally allowed.

" It will be observed from the statement included in paragraph 4 of the report that in the matter of fatal accidents and permanent disablements considerable delay occurs in the settlement of claims. In fatal accidents, for example, only 9 cases reached a settlement out of the 29 that occurred during the year, and only 17 out of the 36 cases of permanent disablement. Reference to return A will show that Commissioners are responsible for the delay in the matter of fatal accidents, and employers as regards permanent disablements. The major accidents for which no compensation has been paid are in the main the concern of privately owned factories. Fatal accidents occurred in five cotton factories in 1928, and nothing in the way of compensation seems to have been paid. Government would be glad to have a further report on the matters referred to in this and the preceding paragraph.

" In the case of mines coming under the Indian Mines Act, there were 16 accidents against 21 in the previous year. The amount of compensation awarded for 7 cases was Rs. 2,536, as against Rs. 2,040 for 8 cases paid during the previous year."

3. The Punjab Government's opinion on the proposed amendments which the Government of India have in contemplation to the Workmen's Compensation Act will be found in its letter No. 3032-S. Rev., dated 16th July, 1929, to the address of the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour. Briefly, the gist of that opinion is as follows :—

(i) The scope of the Act should be extended to workers in all organized industries whether hazardous or not—at the same time the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries is not practicable till a scheme of compulsory insurance can be introduced. At the moment such introduction is so difficult as to be impracticable.



(ii) Pending the inclusion of unorganized industries within the scope of the Act an increase in the scale of compensation of 25 per cent. in respect of the more poorly paid workmen (say, earning an average wage of Rs. 25 per mensem), and 10 per cent. in respect of workmen paid more than Rs. 25 per mensem seems desirable—also the minimum scales of compensation might suitably be raised.

(iii) The waiting period should be reduced from 10 days to a week.

(iv) As regards "proof of dependence" it is suggested that provision should be made so as to enable a dependant who claims compensation to approach the Commissioner direct for the settlement of his claim without first applying to the employer—claimants then in the proceedings before the Commissioner may reasonably be required to submit "some proof of dependence" without this limited onus jeopardizing the claim for compensation as against the employer.

(v) Employers should be required to report fatal accidents at least within 15 days to the Commissioner who, when seized with a report of the accidents, should be empowered to set the machinery of the law into action.

4. As regards the machinery of administration, the Act is administered through Commissioners appointed under Punjab Government notification No. 905-G-2535, dated the 18th February, 1924. The Senior Sub-Judges of Ambala, Ferozepore, Lahore, Amritsar, Rawalpindi, Lyallpur and Multan, and the District Magistrates in the other districts of the province are the Commissioners under the Act for their respective districts.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

Reference may be made to the memorandum of the Inspector of Factories as regards the position in the Punjab:—

As far as seasonal factories are concerned, the time is not yet ripe for the establishment of the principle of the 48-hour week. Punctuality and steady work are not yet the rule among factory workers. A considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to the actual job and leaving it and, as things are, it is improbable that in a 10-hour day the average worker is on his job for more than 8½ hours.

### B.—Mines.

2. The Salt Mines at Khewra are a State concern, managed by the Imperial Government in the Salt Department.

3. There are coal mines privately owned in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Attock districts. In the Jhelum district (Dandot Chitidand and other collieries) the normal working hours are reported to be 36 underground and 48 above ground and no overtime is put in. Payment is by piece-work.

In the Shahpur district (Tajuwala colliery) the hours are reported to be in the mine 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week. Outside the mine 10 hours a day and 60 hours a week. There is no overtime. There are three shifts.

In the Mianwali district (Makkarwal colliery) the actual hours are, in the mine, 42 hours per week, outside the mine, 56 hours a week. The only interval in all these coal mines is the seventh day of rest.

### D.—Criminal Tribes Settlements.

4. One reformatory, 8 industrial settlements, 19 agricultural settlements and 3 reformatory schools, established so far in the Punjab, accommodate a total population of 10,839 souls, which consist of 3,659 males, 2,633 females and 4,547 children. Of the males, 1,521 hold tenancies in the agricultural settlements, where they reside with their families, and the rest are employed in the reformatory and industrial settlements.

In the reformatory settlement fresh arrivals are first employed in the factory attached to the settlement, and remain so employed till they are considered fit for outside employment. Other able-bodied men are employed outside the settlement on different paying jobs for which they are considered fit. Youths are trained in various industries such as carpentry, tailoring, shoe-making, weaving, etc.

In 5 out of the 8 industrial settlements the inmates are employed in forest plantation work, while those of the Palampur Settlement in the Kangra Valley are employed in the tea gardens. In the Moghalpura Industrial Settlement the labour is employed in the railway shops. In the Lyallpur Settlement men are employed on agricultural work as well as under different contractors.

In the industrial settlement the maximum working day is of 10 hours, though in railway shops and forest plantations the actual working day is shorter. In all settlements one holiday is allowed in a week to enable the workers to attend to their household affairs. In agricultural settlements no working hours are fixed as each tenant works according to the actual requirements of his holding.

5. As regards labour in jails, reference may be made to Chapter XXII (Labour and Jail Industries) of the Punjab Jail Manual. The main provision regulating the hours of labour are :—

(i) No criminal prisoner shall be "kept to labour" for more than 9 hours in any one day ;

(ii) Sundays and certain other days in addition are days on which convicts are exempt from labour ;

(iii) The class of labour to be performed is prescribed by the medical officer of the jail in accordance with the physique and capacity of the convict ;

(iv) There is a period of rest of 2 hours in the middle of the day ;

(v) Tasks are prescribed, the task for the adult female or juvenile not to exceed two-thirds of the maximum task for adult male convicts ;

(vi) The objects on which convict labour shall be employed are—*First*—The requirements of the jail and Jail Department ; *Secondly*—The requirements of Government in any other respect ; *Thirdly*—Other demands which the Inspector-General may from time to time approve.

With regard to the second item, the Lahore Jail does the bulk of the vernacular printing for Government (notably for the Department of Land Records). Modern lithographic plant has recently been installed.

6. In industrial establishments not coming under the Factories Act the normal customary hours of work are from sunrise to sunset—12 hours in summer and 10 hours in winter—with an interval of about one hour at midday for meals. Sunday (or Friday in places where Muslim labour predominates) is usually observed as a holiday, and work is also suspended on festivals and religious occasions ; and if permanent labour is required to work on holidays extra wages (usually  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the average wage) are paid. There is regular recourse to overtime when there is a rush of work. The important carpet factories at Amritsar are not on the factory register because they do not employ any motive power, and the attempt to apply to them some modification of working hours' legislation has met with strong opposition. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and the majority of them are boys between the ages of 9 and 15. In small workshops where daily wages are the rule work is carried on during all the seven days, the worker taking such holidays as he chooses.

In these unregulated establishments it doubtless is desirable to have some regulation, but practically the enforcement of any regulation, with opposition both from the employer and employee, would be surrounded with difficulties, though some kind of "Employment of Young Persons' Act" may eventually be found necessary. In forest work there is hardly any need of regulation of hours in view of the piece-work basis, and the leisurely nature of the labour.

## X.—Women, Young Adults and Children.

### A.—Factories.

The Punjab Government would again quote the Inspector of Factories :—

"The curtailing of the hours of work and prohibiting women and children from certain employment has had a good effect, though the argument is still occasionally used that restrictions placed on the employment of women and children have tended to place them at a disadvantage in the labour market. There is no doubt that the wages earned by women are low, but the restrictions placed by the amended Act are in my opinion justified.

"The admission of infants into factories is discouraged as far as practicable ; it is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers. In 1924 and 1926 I issued an order prohibiting infants from entering into cotton ginning rooms whilst ginning was in progress, as the atmosphere was laden with dust. There were many protests against this order, and after two years I found the order could not be enforced without hardship to parents, who must lose their employment in factories if infants were not allowed in, and the order had to be revoked.

"The present regulations with regard to the employment of women and children in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men, except that the former may not be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. This also applies to half-time workers, i.e., children between the ages of 12 and 15 years, whose hours of work are not to exceed six hours a day.

"I have seldom noticed the employment of children in two factories on the same day, but it is not improbable that many of them work at other occupations during the part of the day they are not employed in factories.

"The local government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as most of the factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 19, and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours. The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regularize the hours of employment of women and children—it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present."

2. There is good reason to suspect that in the busy time in ginning factories the practice is general of overworking women and children. While the rule prohibiting night shifts for women is generally observed, the infringement of regulations generally consists in the adding of an additional hour or two before the prescribed time in the morning and adding a like period after work should be over in the evening. As noted in the last review on factories: "When the woman only gets three-quarters of the man's pay on gins, the permission for night work or night shifts is bound, under present conditions, to infringe the rule prohibiting the employment of women and children at night." As it is the common lot of women to do the dirty work, and as in England at any rate it was the State regulations of the hours of labour with reference to women and children that brought about a limitation of the hours worked by men, the tightening of control over the labour of women and children seems the first desideratum—women in the ginning establishments and children in Amritsar—amenable and not discontent material, but to a liberal view "factory fodder" all the same.

There are hardly any opportunities of apprenticeship. There is no reluctance on the part of boys to take "blind-alley" jobs. The channel of apprenticeship needs widening.

3. The whole question of the employment of women in the salt mines at Khewra and elsewhere in the Salt Range is engaging the earnest attention of the Government of India. Women are still employed in the salt mines, working in conjunction with their men folk, but the number of them is being systematically reduced with a view to ultimate abolition. This reform does not appeal to their men folk.

In the coal mines under private management, women are not permitted to work underground, but women relatives of the permanent force of miners settled at the mines undertake light duties outside the mines, e.g., loading coal. It is, however, to be suspected that "juvenile" labour is not altogether excluded from underground working.

4. Women are at a premium in the Punjab, and the more their work is concentrated on the care of the rising generation, the better for the province.

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

This province is not concerned, though it may be noted parenthetically, that men from the Attock district in the far north find employment as stokers at sea.

#### **XII.—Wages.**

A periodical survey of wages has been carried out quinquennially since 1912. In Tables III and IV, figures are given showing the prevailing rates of wages in the factories of the Punjab at the four surveys since 1912, and also figures showing the average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour during the past eight years. Since 1912 the scale of wages paid in factories has risen a great deal and roughly speaking wages have nearly doubled.

The regular quinquennial survey deals with the wages of certain classes of workers in the three principal towns of Lahore, Amritsar and Multan, in selected villages unaffected by urban conditions, and also at certain railway stations to serve as a means of comparison with rural wages in the same neighbourhood. The classes of labour which come under scrutiny are as follows:—

1. *Urban Areas.*—(i) Workers in iron and hardware; (ii) brass, copper and bell metal workers; (iii) carpenters; (iv) Cotton weavers; (v) masons and builders; (vi) unskilled labourers.

2. *Rural Areas.*(i) Carpenters; (ii) blacksmiths; (iii) masons; (iv) ploughmen; (v) unskilled labourers.

3. *Railway Areas—Coolies.*—The survey does not deal with certain occupations which at any rate in the rural areas are governed by status rather than by contract. The Indian village is a self-contained unit, and it still maintains all the artisans which its simple agriculture and mode of life require—i.e., the carpenter, blacksmith, weaver, potter, and worker in leather, upon whom there is a customary obligation to render certain services to villagers in return for customary payments in kind at harvest or on certain occasions such as festivals, marriages, births and deaths in the families of their patrons. In addition to these agricultural "kamins," as they are called, there are domestic purveyors of services, i.e., barbers, cobblers, washermen, etc., whose remuneration is fixed by custom and status.

The last and fourth regular wages survey was held in December, 1927, in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan, and in 1,948 villages removed from urban influences.

1. *Urban Wages.*—Labourers of classes (i) to (vi) described above are paid by the day, except at Amritsar, where those falling under (i), (ii) and (iv) are paid by the job. The daily wages of these classes were found to work out as under in 1927 :—

Class.	Lahore.	Amritsar.	Multan.
	As.	As.	As.
Workers in iron and hardware .. ..	40	28 to 32	24
Brass, copper and bell metal workers ..	28	14 to 16	32
Carpenters .. .. .	36	28 to 32	26 to 32
Cotton weavers .. .. .	Nil	14 to 16	Nil
Masons and builders .. .. .	36	28 to 36	26 to 32
Unskilled labourers .. .. .	14 to 16	14 to 16	10

Amritsar and Multan are markets for iron and hardware. The brass and copperware industry in Amritsar has been badly hit by the rapid introduction of aluminium ware.

Lahore offers a big field for the employment of carpenters, masons, builders and unskilled labourers, both by reason of its size and its growth. Its trade in wood work makes a demand for a large number of carpenters. Wages are consequently higher than in Amritsar and Multan.

2. *Rural Wages.*—Workers in the rural areas can be classified under the following heads :—

(1) Whole time workers—(i) Carpenters; (ii) masons; (iii) ploughmen; and (iv) unskilled labourers.

(2) Part time or customary workers called kamins. (i) Carpenters; (ii) blacksmiths; (iii) cobblers; (iv) potters; and (v) barbers; ministering to the calls of their clientele at certain times and on certain occasions. It will be seen that carpenters fall under both heads.

The wages of these classes fall under four types :—(i) Purely cash wages; (ii) cash wages with supplements; (iii) purely grain wages; and (iv) wages other than in cash or grain.

The rates of wages, inclusive of money value of any supplements in kind found commonly prevalent at the survey of 1927, were as follows :—Carpenters, 16 to 32 annas a day; masons, 16 to 38 annas a day; unskilled labourers, 5½ to 16½ annas.

A table showing variation in the wages of unskilled labourers since 1909 is appended (Table V). It shows that wages varied between 2½ and 3½ annas in as many as 10 villages, between 3½ and 4½ annas in 87, and 4½ and 5½ annas in 102 villages in 1927. The average has risen considerably since 1909, though it has dropped since 1922. It was found to be lower in 1927 than in 1922, as a result of the return of more stable conditions after the war. The local variations of wages are due to the differences in the quality of the work and the local demand.

The enquiry into the earnings of the railway coolies was for the incidental purpose of finding a means to compare and verify the standard of wages earned by other labourers. Selected stations only were brought within the purview of the enquiry.

The returns show that the daily earning of the railway porters and coolies ranged between 8 annas at Jagadhri near United Provinces, and As. 12-6 pies in Pattoke, in the Lower Bari Doab Colony. As a class they are better off than the unskilled labourers of the same locality in the south-east and in the un-irrigated parts of north and north-west of the Punjab in the matter of daily earnings. They are slightly to the bad on account of having to conform to scheduled rates in the congested centre of the province near Batala and Wazirabad, where the local supply of labour is limited and fetches a higher value outside. In canal colonies they are on the same level as ordinary unskilled labourers.

2. On Government canals, labour is employed either on a monthly or daily wage. The present sanctioned monthly wage for unskilled labour is Rs. 13 per mensem, which is low. The daily wage demanded by unskilled labour varies from 8 annas to Re. 1 per diem with the time of year and the state of agricultural operations.

In regard to labour employed by contractors—labour employed on earthwork is usually paid on "piece work" that employed on masonry and other works is paid daily wages as above.

The common rate for daily unskilled labour in forest work is 8 annas a day.

3. The relation of wages to prices and cost of living has not been worked out. As regards prices reference may be made to two publications of the Board of Economic Enquiry No. 7, Sixty years of Punjab Food Prices (W. H. Myles), No. 13, Eighty years of Punjab Food Prices (Brij Narain).

4. Payment in kind is confined to rural areas. There are (a) purely grain wages, (b) supplements to cash wages, (c) wages other than (b) or (c). Purely grain wages as a form of remuneration for daily or monthly work are going out of vogue, and are mainly confined to carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers, barbers and potters, and for the performance of customary work in relation to agricultural operations.

They are paid in the form of sheaves of corn, reckoned according to the number of ploughs which were at work during the harvest.

Wages in kind in the case of shoemakers consist in some parts of the province, in the skins of dead cattle which are placed at their disposal on the understanding that new shoes will be supplied free.

The third type of wages in kind is in the nature of a retainer, intended to ensure the continued presence of the worker to be utilized as occasion may arise.

There are no payments in kind to industrial labour. In all factories wages are now strictly paid in cash.

5. In rural areas wages are, as a rule, regulated by contract except in the cases of labourers living among and dependent upon agricultural communities, especially carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers, potters, barbers, who are looked upon as Kamins or permanent servants. Even carpenters and blacksmiths received negotiated wages in rural areas, in respect of non-agricultural work. As a general rule, the wages of carpenters and blacksmiths for agricultural work and of cobblers, potters, and barbers are customary and non-competitive. These wages have relation to certain crops grown and go by a fixed number of sheaves of corn, usually the staple of each locality, after every plough working during the currency of the harvest. Customary wages are, however, entering on a competitive stage under the stress of changing conditions.

The scope for business has widened considerably in almost every direction and to that extent the scope of customary duties has contracted. Labour has become more mobile and can afford to defy the village communities by emigrating to the canal colonies, where there is much demand for it. In the case of several crafts, notably among carpenters, blacksmiths and cobblers, the customary has given place to the competitive wage. The advent of modern implements of agriculture and the replacement of wooden by steel gear for wells have a tendency to set the carpenters and blacksmiths free to shift to more prosperous centres and insist on cash payment in place of the deferred payment in kind. Similarly, the cobblers and shoemakers have developed a tendency to dispose of their wares in the open market. At all events, their ministrations to their sepidars or clientele are of a much more circumscribed character. In many instances, the supply of new shoes has come to be limited to shoes for the adolescent only.

6. In urban and industrial areas wages are fixed by the dictates of supply and demand at the locality, and are the result of direct negotiation between the employer and the employee. The employer, however, really dictates his own terms. There is no combination or coherence in labour for any bargaining. Variations are both seasonal and local. In the building trade, for example, wages are appreciably lower during the rainy season than at other times during the year. The mobility of labour

is determined by demand as well as the prevalent rate at which wages are paid. A large number of trans-frontier Pathans, Kashmiris and the inhabitants of Central India range over the province. The first two classes during the winter months only, and the last class at all seasons of the year in search of employment, and are attracted to "mandis" and factories mainly in colony areas. The pitch of wages paid in the Punjab would appear to be higher than in the United Provinces for example and this partly accounts for the influx of labour from Central India.

7. As regards the statutory establishment of minimum wages, the province can scarcely be said to have reached that state of industrial development to permit the introduction of any wage fixing legislation, the administration of which would be difficult and the results perhaps of dubious value. The development of agricultural areas is continually creating a demand for more labour.

8. The practice of inflicting fines on workmen is common enough in many factories for offences such as spoiling material or wasting time. The factory inspector notes that in one or two well run mills fines are credited to the employees' provident fund, but as a general rule fines go to the pockets of the factory management, and legislation is not likely to be of much use on account of the illiteracy of the average worker. There is no practice of fining labour on Government, *i.e.*, canal or forest work.

9. Wages to workers in regular factories are paid monthly from the 5th to the 20th of the following month. Casual workers in cotton ginning factories and coolie workers in other factories are paid at the end of the day through the labour contractor who usually settles his accounts with the factory owner monthly. Legislation to assure prompt payment to factory employees is needed. Employers too frequently obtain a hold on their workers by delaying payment, and the worker gets into the hand of his shopkeeper. With labour illiterate and unorganized, it should be made a penal offence to keep a man waiting for more than a week or 10 days for his previous month's wages. In a press at Amritsar in July this year there was a lightning strike ended in a day to protest against the non-payment of wages from the middle of May to the middle of July. In the coalmines in the Salt Range where miners are paid by piece-work, a miner earns from Re. 1 to Re. 1-8 annas per day, and the trolley coolies earn from annas 10 to Re. 1-4 annas per day. In both cases wages are paid weekly, and generally a week or more (extending up to two weeks) elapses before payment is made.

10. In rural areas the survey of 1927 disclosed that fact that wages were paid on the daily basis to carpenters in 89 per cent., blacksmiths in 15 per cent. and masons in 74 per cent. of the villages selected for the survey. The ploughman's wages were monthly in 49 per cent. of the villages. A substantial proportion of the earnings of the village artisans and ploughmen is paid by the harvest—without being really six monthly. In so far as it has reference to specific crops, *e.g.*, so many sheaves of chari, barley, wheat, sugarcane, etc., it is paid by instalments, as it were, and the worker is not made to wait for full six months.

The agricultural work of the village artisan is far from all absorbing. It occupies a small fraction of his time only and leaves him free to ply his trade for the general customer. The postponement of his dues therefore occasions no hardship. He receives various facilities at the hands of his clients and patrons in the form of fodder, firewood and other things and presents in clothes and money at marriages or other functions. The ploughman receiving his wages in cash or kind at harvest depends for his immediate needs upon his employer and occasionally receives an advance upon his wages before they actually fall due. There can be no delay in the nature of things in the payment of grain wages. As a rule, they are paid by sheaves of grain or by measure before the produce is allowed to leave the threshing floor.

11. In the matter of indebtedness, the rural Punjab is eminently a countryside of peasant proprietors, and the volume of indebtedness per head is greater than elsewhere in India. That is perhaps the main reason why the co-operative credit movement has made such marked headway in the province, though it has as yet only touched the fringe of the problem of indebtedness. The conquest of the wastes which has been going on for the last 30 years through the agency of canal irrigation has shifted the seat of wealth in the way of landed property from the central developed districts, where the Sikhs have their ancestral stronghold, to the newer colonies, bringing with it a notable change in the standard of living. The great war in more ways than one helped to raise that standard. High prices for agricultural produce at the end of the second decade and the beginning of the third decade of the present century promoted the scale of expenditure, and with the thriftlessness prevalent among the peasantry it is a general paradox that the wealthier a locality, the greater is the volume of indebtedness. The colonists in Lyallpur should be in a position to stand several lean years; yet the failure of

important crops which has occurred in the last two or three years seems to have put a definite and unexpected strain upon their capacity to meet their commitments. In dry areas, i.e., the south-west, south-east and north Punjab the standard of living is lower, though since the war it has risen though not to the same extent as in the wealthier "wet" areas.

In the south-western Punjab ten years ago there were localities in which Rs. 5 per mensem with a blanket and a pair of shoes at harvest was all that the agricultural labourer could expect. In the colonies wages are twice as high and the standard of living is much better. Generally speaking, there has been of recent years a considerable improvement in the condition of the agricultural labourer, both in apparel and food and possibly housing. He is invariably in debt, but in this respect he is little worse off than the peasant proprietor, who, however, is a landlord.

As regards urban and industrial labourers, no enquiry has been made as to the extent to which indebtedness prevails among them. Probably the range of solvency and insolvency varies according to localities. It may, however, be safely assumed that the great majority are in debt to their food suppliers.

12. In seasonal factories no question of leave arises. Work goes on for the season and then ends. In other factories leave is only taken for a religious festival or a domestic event, though managers in the bigger concerns usually get a month's leave during the slack season. As regards labourers the factory inspector notes with truth that "since they are not seriously concerned whether they get back to their previous jobs or not it is only a question of taking leave when an employer owes the least amount of pay for labour done."

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

The Director of Industries is of opinion that the efficiency of Indian workers has been increasing steadily in recent years. This he would attribute to the growth of industrial educational institutions, and also to the "central localization" of certain industries, e.g., the sports goods industry, steel trunk making and cutting industry in Sialkot, and woollen goods in Dhariwal. Factory owners are also endeavouring to expand the system of division of labour. In handicrafts, such as woodworking, the Punjabi, especially the Sikh, is a natural adept, and he is also a fair smith. The inspector of factories has supplied the following note :—

"I am of opinion that the efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased considerably during the past 5 or 6 years. The industrial educational institutions have to a great extent been responsible for this. But in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed: in fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in the factories. In recent years the tendency in this province has been to install small unit plants in factories, usually with an up-to-date oil engine of 10 to 40 horse power in preference to the old type of heavy steam engines and massive machinery: and the same men who used to operate the old machinery are put on the new and complicated machines. I have seen instances of accidents to workers on new type of machines in factories, which would never have occurred had the worker received a little training before being asked to work on it. On the other hand, new types of machines are made as fool-proof as possible, dangerous parts being guarded in where possible."

The Principal of the Mayo School of Arts, Lahore, who has had many years of experience with skilled craftsmen, both as teachers and workmen, sums up his experience of the Punjabi workman as follows :—

"The Punjabi workmen, the selected ones with whom I have to deal, are intelligent, strong, keen to learn, but like uneducated workmen in Europe slack except under supervision. Their predominant fault is that though quick to use new ideas they are quicker to forget and to revert to traditional methods. Their lack of education makes it almost impossible for them to grasp the meaning of scientific methods of work or the essential of accuracy of thinking and doing.

"I find that they show a marked intelligence in improvising tools or apparatus for a desired purpose, but an utter lack of ability to formulate a new idea, such as designing a joint for a special purpose or overcoming a difficulty by a better method of construction."

With factory and industrial labour so casual, seasonal and migratory, it is perhaps redundant to enlarge on the disadvantages under which workers labour owing to the absence of scientific management or any notion of industrial psychology. Employers would say that the reduction in the number of working hours from 12 in 1911 to 10 in 1922 has reduced the output *pro-tanto*. Housing is poor, dietary deficient, facilities for recreation nil, wages are low, dependants many, and climate, excepting the winter,

enervating. Ventilation and sanitary arrangements in factories are, however, receiving increased attention. Under Section 9 (1) (b) of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, such factories are now constructed in accordance with plans and specifications approved by the prescribed authority (in this province the Director of Agriculture). The rules and standard plan prescribed by the Director of Agriculture will be found in Appendix F. These rules are intended mainly to ensure the purity of cotton, and have no particular regard to the requirements of healthy conditions of work. Ginning factories put up since 1925 are consequently a decided improvement on previous ones. The employers' outlook, however, is very limited. They can appreciate rationalization, i.e., such co-ordination and regulation of production as will prevent wasteful cut-throat competition. There is a pool system among ginning factories in certain localities, but the consideration of conditions of work and life favourable to the development and preservation of the workers' personality are beyond the ken of the ordinary employer. As for possible means of securing increased efficiency, the main appeal to the worker can only reside in an improved method of remuneration which will give him a fair share in the increase of output. In the Forest Department a bonus on production is given in the case of resin tapping. The worker for his part will have to try not to change his occupation too often.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Trade unions are in their infancy: the Indian Trade Unions Act was only passed in the year 1926. The idea of a trade union as directed towards promoting " industrial prosperity and with it the progressive improvement of the standard of living of the population " has yet to take root. The Punjab has no heavy concentration of industrial labour, and consequently the extent of organization among both employers and employed is up to the present little in extent. Among the employed, however, a vague striving towards co-operation and combination is now being evidenced, revolving round the cardinal question of remuneration and the merits and demerits of strikes in the way of forwarding workers' claims. In the Punjab no communist influence is noticeable, and disputes have been due to the normal antagonism between employers and employed in the matter of pay. Contrast Calcutta, Bombay, Admadabad, Sholapur, Jamshedpur, and the continuous series of strikes during the past eighteen months.

2. The Indian Trades Union Act was brought into force on the 1st June, 1927. During the nine months of the financial year 1927-28, 10 applications were received for registration from various unions but only 6 could be registered. Three of these related to the workers in different departments of the North-Western Railway, one to the organization of homoeopathic doctors and two to workers engaged in public transport. The total number of members at the beginning of the year for these unions was 5,378 which rose to 5,799 at the close of the financial year.

Ten unions were registered during the year 1928-29 of which three are federations of trade unions and the remaining seven are unions of workers formed to protect their rights, to secure regulation of hours and wages and for settling disputes among members and employers. The total membership at the time of registration of these unions was 222.

3. It may be noted here that with the exception of one union at Dhariwal all other unions have head offices at Lahore. The professions and occupations in which the unions were formed during the year 1928-29 are given below.

- (1) The Textile Mill Workers Union, Dhariwal.
- (2) The Electric Supply Company, Limited (Lahore) Workers' Union.
- (3) Punjab Mechanical Engineers' Union, Lahore.
- (4) The Punjab Revenue Patwaris Union.
- (5) The Punjab Christian Labour Union.
- (6) The Scavengers Union.
- (7) The North-Western Railway Compilation Union (Union of Clerks).

There are no organizations of employers in this province. Sometimes, however, pools of employers are formed among owners of cotton ginning and ice factories which are usually short lived. Pools in cotton ginning factories are formed on account of shortage in cotton crop at the end of the season and in ice factories to force prices up by limiting supply. These pools, it must be stated, are not registered under trade unions, and should therefore be regarded as temporary trade combinations.

4. As regards the nature of the activities of the trade Unions hitherto formed, reference may be made to Appendix B, in which the aims and objects of four trade unions are set forth.



5. The following trade unions have so far been registered in the Punjab under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Their history is given in the statement below :—

Name of Union.	Date of registration.	Number of members at beginning of year.	Number of members at end of year.
1. The Punjab Motor Drivers' Union, Lahore.	28-8-1927	21	206
2. The Punjab Tonga Workers' Union, Lahore.	28-8-1927	—	239
3. The Upper India Homœopathic Association, Lahore.	24-10-1927	19	19
4. The North - Western Railway Union, Lahore.	1-1-1928	5,000	5,000
5. The North - Western Railway (Audit) Account Union, Lahore.	29-2-1928	323	320
6. The General Workers' Union, North-Western Railway, Lahore	31-3-1928	15	15
7. The Punjab Labour Board, Lahore	2-4-1928	Number of members at time of registration 9.	
8. The Textile Mill Workers' Union, Dhariwal.	18-8-1928	16	
9. The Electric Supply Company, Limited (Lahore) Workers' Union, Lahore.	28-7-1928	16	
10. The Punjab Mechanical Engineers' Union, Lahore.	15-9-1928	18	
11. The Punjab Provincial Trade Union Congress, Lahore.	10-10-1928	15	
12. The Punjab Revenue Patwaris' Union, Lahore.	7-11-1928	15	
13. The Punjab Christian Labour Union, Lahore.	9-11-1928	10	
14. The Central Labour Federation, Punjab, Lahore.	10-11-1928	8	
15. The Scavengers' Union, Lahore..	2-7-1929	17	
16. The North-Western Railway Compilation Union, Lahore.	20-3-1929	98	

With no big scale industry, saving the North-Western Railway workshops at Lahore trade unionism is likely to make slow headway, but its inception on however small a scale is bound to result in a steady pressure for increased wages, and that in its turn will stimulate management to improve its efficiency.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

Out of fifteen strikes reported since 19th August, 1921, only eight occurred in industrial establishments, while the remaining seven occurred among workers in various trades and professions. A great majority of strikes have taken place in industrial centres such as Amritsar and Lahore and in the woollen mills at Dhariwal. Industrial unrest in other parts of the province is as yet unknown, and such strikes as have occurred in industrial establishments relate only to those concerns which are the largest organized employers of labour.

It is also worth noting that in no case the strike was complete, and in all the bigger strikes workers had to surrender unconditionally. In the railway workshops strikes and the strikes at Dhariwal, those who refused to return to work by a specified date were replaced by fresh recruitment, and the majority of the strikers lost their employment. The vocalization of the desire for a "square deal" has, however, come to stay.

2. No official or non-official conciliation or arbitration machinery for the adjustment of disputes between the employers and the employees exists in this province. The parties concerned enter into their own direct negotiations.

The Trades Disputes Act came into force on 8th May, 1929. No use has yet been made of it.

3. The Punjab Government has no hesitation in admitting that in industries on any considerable scale trade unionism and combinations are indispensable as a means of ensuring that the reasonable demands of workers are brought to notice and their angle of view is impressed on the employers.

4. In industrial disputes there are standing orders that the industrial surveyors should promptly report to the local government the existence of a strike, its causes, progress and extent, and the Director of Industries is expected to keep himself in touch with the situation, and if required to lend his offices in explaining the position of the two parties to each other, with a view to removing possible misunderstandings.

5. The Government of India have recently suggested to local governments that they consider the desirability of appointing a Labour Commissioner to help in the settlement of industrial disputes. So far as the Punjab is concerned, the need for any such appointment is not evident. In the Dhariwal strike at the beginning of 1928, the employers and operatives came to terms themselves and the only action taken by Government apart from the "interpretation" enquiries of the Department of Industries, was to send a few police to watch the situation and to deal with intimidation and sabotage if it arose. On the railway a strike is always a serious thing, and from time to time there are manifestations of unrest in the Lahore workshops. During the early part of the present summer there has been some unrest—mainly owing to a change in the method of paying for work done. The North-Western Railway have now appointed a special labour officer who deals with the recruitment and grievances of labour. This appointment has been all to the good, and is likely to mitigate lightning strikes, and will tend to remove misunderstandings. Works councils enjoying participation in the framing of factory rules securing protection against arbitrary dismissal, and discussing short time working, for example, should have their niche in trade and workshop disputes, but workers have not yet had either the coaching or the opportunity of forming ideals to light up their path, or even realizing some of the implications behind the slogan of the Central Labour Federation, Punjab (membership 8), which is "Workers of the world unite."

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

Contractors on Government works (e.g., canals) are frequently under the compulsion to give labour advances to induce men to recruit. While the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act was in force advances were freely given, and the crop of cases for recoveries was always heavy. The effect of the repeal has been wholly to the good. Contractors have to exercise more caution and show more indulgence in their treatment of labour, and incidentally the magistracy have been released from attempts to extend the scope of the Act to spheres for which it was never intended. The problem of advances is, however, a real problem not only for contractors, but also for Government, which in the matter of forest fellings is often hard put to it to recover advances to contractors.

#### XVII.—Administration.

The constitutional position of the Central and Local Governments with respect to labour matters has been noted in the chapter on the machinery of the Executive Government, and in that chapter mention has also been made of the administrative authorities concerned with labour in the Provincial Government. The Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all acts of the legislature concerned with labour. In recent years the Government of India have directed the attention of the Punjab Government to the conditions under which child labour is employed in the carpet factories in Amritsar and have asked the local Government to ameliorate those conditions, with no result up to the present. On the other hand, the local government has recently suggested to the central Government that forest work, fellings and the like, should be scheduled as hazardous occupations for the purposes of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Central Government, however, did not see its way to fall in with the suggestion. Claims for compensation are, however, adjudicated following the scales in the Workmen's Compensation Act, and it may perhaps be noted that awards based on the Act are two or three times the amount which would satisfy those concerned.

2. There is no labour office or officer in the Punjab. The consequence is that the body of statistical material in regard to labour is very meagre and uncorrelated.

5. In this province the factory inspection staff consists of one full-time inspector, five industrial surveyors under the control of the Director of Industries, who are notified as additional inspectors under certain sections of the Act, and one personal assistant to the inspector, who is also notified as additional inspector under certain sections of the Act.

The total number of factories in the province at present is 602.

Besides the Punjab, the full-time inspector has got jurisdiction over three other provinces, namely, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, making a total of 725 factories in his jurisdiction. In the case of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara the full-time inspector is assisted by another industrial surveyor stationed at Delhi, who, like those in the Punjab, is also notified as additional inspector under certain sections of the Act.

The above arrangement will cease from 1st April, 1930, from which date the local Government proposes to sanction the appointment of one full-time inspector, withdrawing the powers conferred on the industrial surveyors under the Act. Thus, from 1st April next there will be one chief inspector and one inspector to administer the Indian Factories Act in all the four provinces with 725 factories to inspect.

7. The Punjab Factory Rules will be found on pages 130-168 of T. C. Ray's Indian Factories Act (1928).

8. As regards mines, the Mines Act of 1923 applies only to coal and salt mines in the Punjab. Other mines in the province consist of open excavations where the safety of workers is not endangered. The provincial rules under the Act of 1923 will be found in Punjab Government's notification No. 3224 D—Industries, dated 14th July, 1927, reproduced in Appendix D.\* There is no provincial mining board. The Chief Inspector of Mines or his assistant makes periodical inspections, and the district magistrate of the district has the powers of an inspector. The district magistrate's attention is, however, mainly directed to the control of prospecting licences and mining leases. The accounts of concessionaries are checked by the Director of Industries, who for the rest has no concern with the working of the Indian Mines Act and the rules made thereunder.

It must be confessed that the local Government has little knowledge of the working of supervising agency. The Punjab coal mines are comparatively unimportant, and, moreover, far distant from areas on which the chief inspector and his assistant must necessarily concentrate their attention, and prosecutions are rare.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

Statistics relating to the administration of the Indian Factories Act are compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, and are shown at the end of the annual report. Statistics relating to the number of operatives, hours of work and wages are supplied by the factory occupiers in response to circular letters issued by the factory inspector.

Statistics relating to trade unions are collected by the Registrar of Trade Unions (Director of Industries) at the time of the registration of the trade unions, and also at the end of the financial year. A six-monthly statement of the number of members is also called for. The general secretary of the union is responsible for the supply of these figures. The figures supplied are presumably accurate and are published at the end of the annual report on the working of the Trades Unions Act. Statistics relating to the Workmen's Compensation Act are collected from the following agencies:—(1) Employers under the Workmen's Compensation Act, (2) Factory occupiers under the Indian Factories Act, (3) Insurance Companies with whom the factory owners have insured their labour, (4) Commissioners appointed under the Workmen's Compensation Act in all districts.

3. There are six industrial surveyors in the province, a part of whose work is to make enquiries into the position of various industries, and to collect statistics relating to them. But only one monograph has as yet been published—on the textile trade. No enquiry into labour conditions has yet been thought of.

The Director of Industries notes:—

"At the present moment only such statistics are collected as are required either by the local Government or by the Government of India. The scope of these statistics could be very usefully widened and information on many interesting subjects relating to labour could be collected by this department, provided a suitable agency could be established. This province has no labour office. The entire work is done by a small section of the Director of Industries' office."

On this statement the comment is necessary that the small section at headquarters with the six industrial surveyors in the field under the supervision of a gazetted officer in the person of the touring assistant to the director should not be entirely inadequate for intelligence work as regards provincial labour, but not, of course, for comprehensive commercial intelligence, in which sphere the Director of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, has an organization to be drawn upon.

4. The Board of Economic Enquiry, Punjab, has conducted a series of investigations and has published twenty monographs in its rural section publications. The only urban sections publication is a study made by Mrs. Caleb in 1920 on the family

\* Not printed.

budgets of low-paid clerks, i.e., on salaries of Rs. 50 per mensem or less—a valuable study, now out of print. The rural bias of the Punjab outlook could hardly have a better illustration.

Table I.

Serial No.	Name of Circle.	Gross area commanded in square miles.	Engineering Staff.				
			Superintending Engineers.	Executive Engineers.	Assistant Engineers.	Subordinates.	
1	Western Jumna Canal ..	4,413	1	4	12	53	
2	Sirhind Canal { British ..	3,766	}	1	4	12	59
3	Derajat { States ..	3,054					
4	Upper Bari Doab Canal ..	3,550	1	3	9	46	
5	Lower Bari Doab Canal ..	2,562	1	4	10	52	
6	Upper Chenab Canal ..	2,779	1	4	11	47	
7	Lower Chenab Canal (West and East).	2,416	1	4	11	55	
8	Upper Jhelum Canal ..	5,650	2	7	20	97	
9	Lower Jhelum Canal ..	915	1	3	10	40	
10	1st British { British ..	2,295	}	1	5	12	61
11	2nd British { Bahawalpur ..	2,206					
12	3rd British ..	145	1	4	12	72	
13	1st Bahawalpur ..	2,138	1	4	11	66	
14	2nd Bahawalpur ..	1,250	1	3	7	42	
15	3rd Bahawalpur ..	2,390	1	4	17	102	
		2,219	1	4	12	72	
		2,274	1	5	21	126	

Table III.

Rates of wages in Punjab factories for the years noted below :—

—	1927.	1922.	1917.	1912.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<i>Average per month—</i>				
(i) Skilled labour—				
Engine driver ..	44	35	20 to 30	18 to 34
Boilerman ..	32	25	20 to 30	18 to 26
Blacksmith ..	44	35	25 to 40	20 to 30
Fitter ..	62	50	40 to 60	30 to 55
Carpenter ..	45	40	25 to 40	21 to 30
Oilman ..	27	25	11 to 15	10 to 15
Mochi ..	45	30	30	—
Spinner ..	25	25	18 to 20	18 to 20
Weaver ..	40	35	30	—
Dyer ..	22	22	30	—
Reeler (woman) ..	22	20	10 to 18	—
Press compositor ..	44	40	15 to 30	—
Press distributor ..	22	18	10 to 15	—
<i>Average per day—</i>				
(ii) Unskilled labour—	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Coolie (opener) ..	1 0 0	1 0 0	10 0 to 12 0 0	6 6 to 8 6
Coolie (man) on gins	0 8 0	0 8 0	7 0 to 8 0 0	4 6 to 5 6
Coolie (woman) on gins	0 6 0	0 6 0	5 0 to 7 0 0	3 6 to 5 0

For the statement of wages most commonly paid to certain classes of labour please see table A (pages ii-v) of the "Report on the Fourth Regular Wages Survey of the Punjab" taken in December, 1927.

Table IV.

Average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour for the past 8 years.

Classification of labour.	Average per month.							
	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
I.—Skilled :—								
Engine driver .. ..	30	35	38	40	43	44	44	43
Boilerman .. ..	25	25	25	28	30	33	32	32
Blacksmith .. ..	35	35	36	40	44	44	44	45
Fitter .. ..	50	50	50	55	60	64	62	63
Carpenter .. ..	35	40	40	42	45	46	45	45
Oilman .. ..	20	25	25	24	27	27	27	25
Mochi .. ..	30	30	32	35	40	45	45	46
Spinner .. ..	20	25	25	28	25	25	25	27
Weaver .. ..	40	35	35	40	40	41	40	38
Dyer .. ..	30	22	22	20	22	22	22	23
Reeler (woman) .. ..	15	20	20	22	22	22	22	22
Press compositor .. ..	25	40	40	36	40	43	44	43
Press distributor .. ..	5	18	18	18	20	22	22	22

Average per day.

	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
II.—Unskilled :—								
Coolie (opener) .. ..	0 15	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Coolie (man) on gins ..	0 9	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8
Coolie (woman) on gins	0 7	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6

Table V.

Wages of unskilled labourers in the Punjab between 1909 and 1927.

Range of rates.	Number of Villages in				
	1909.	1912.	1917.	1922.	1927
<i>Annas.</i>					
0-6 to 1-6 .. ..	2	—	—	—	—
1-6 to 2-6 .. ..	156	53	23	5	—
2-6 to 3-6 .. ..	377	94	68	6	10
3-6 to 4-6 .. ..	1,060	297	219	62	87
4-6 to 5-6 .. ..	934	401	206	92	102
5-6 to 6-6 .. ..	1,012	360	270	164	145
6-6 to 7-6 .. ..	339	171	172	83	56
7-6 to 8-6 .. ..	357	184	504	363	448
8-6 to 9-6 .. ..	80	37	79	105	139
9-6 to 10-6 .. ..	71	14	135	227	323
10-6 to 11-6 .. ..	11	6	33	74	95
11-6 to 12-6 .. ..	—	—	15	389	318
12-6 to 13-6 .. ..	—	—	—	56	42
13-6 to 14-6 .. ..	—	—	1	81	24
14-6 to 15-6 .. ..	—	—	1	15	9
15-6 to 16-6 .. ..	—	—	—	108	50
16-6 to 17-6 .. ..	—	—	—	5	3
17-6 to 18-6 .. ..	—	—	—	9	2
18-6 to 19-6 .. ..	—	—	—	6	—
19-6 to 20-6 .. ..	—	—	—	2	1
20-6 to 21-6 .. ..	—	—	—	—	1
21-6 to 22-6 .. ..	—	—	—	3	—
22-6 to 23-6 .. ..	—	—	—	2	—
	4,399	1,617	1,726	1,857	1,855

## APPENDIX B.

*Aims and Objects of Certain Trade Unions.*1.—*The Punjab Labour Board, Lahore.*

*Aims and objects.*—(a) To organize trade unions and labour associations of different classes of workers in the Punjab in accordance with the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) To strengthen, improve, help, advise and put on a right footing the various trade unions and labour organizations in the province.

(c) To control, direct, supervise and develop the various trade unions and labour organizations in the province, and the labour movement in general.

(d) To centralize and co-ordinate the activities of various trade unions and labour organizations and those of the different labour workers, organizations and sympathizers.

(e) To improve, develop and further the interests of the labouring and depressed classes in general, and those of the labour movement in particular, in all matters affecting it legally, economically, socially, politically or otherwise.

(f) To better, improve, ameliorate, advocate and further the cause of labourers and workmen, whether skilled or unskilled, literate or illiterate, organized or unorganized, whether in service or out of service, or otherwise.

(g) To better the relations of employees and employers, and to act as arbitrators in disputes between them.

(h) To advocate the legal, economic, social and political cause of labour in the province, and to co-operate with similar boards or organizations existing elsewhere in India, or out of India.

(i) To carry on labour propaganda in the province by all legitimate means and spread labour ideas among the masses and infuse a labour spirit in them.

(j) To collect, arrange and disseminate information about labour and the trade unions movement in the province and act as the Labour Information Bureau in the Punjab.

(k) To affiliate, with or without fees, trade unions and labour organizations in the province, whether registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act or not, or whether recognized by the employer or employers or not.

(l) To act as a labour party in the province and to carry on all sorts of activities, whether of a political character or not, as labour parties in other countries act and carry on.

(m) To represent the grievances and demands of labourers and workmen in general and those of the members of trade unions and labour organizations affiliated with it in particular.

(n) To convene and hold mass labour meetings from time to time and hold a Punjab Labour Conference once a year or so.

(o) To obtain adequate franchise for labour as such and adequate representation in the various legislatures dealing with the Punjab, local bodies, national organizations, and so forth.

(p) To run labour members in elections for the legislatures, local bodies and other national, educational, social and political organizations.

(q) To start, maintain, manage and utilize a general fund and a political fund in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(r) To publish an organ or organs in any language understood in the province, to foster and further the cause of labour in the country and create consciousness among the workers in general.

(s) To do all or any of the above objects or any other not mentioned above which may be deemed most beneficial for the cause of labour in the province in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act.

2.—*North-Western Railway Union.*

The objects of the union shall be to secure the complete organization of all workers (manual and mental, including mechanical labour) employed in any division or shops or at any other place over the North-Western Railway.

(a) To improve the conditions and protect the interest of its members, to obtain and maintain reasonable hours of duty, rates of wages, adequate retiring allowances and other conditions of labour, to settle disputes between its members and their employers and to regulate the relations between them by collective withholding of labour or otherwise.

(b) To further, if and when and so far as the same shall be or become a lawful object of the trade union, the interest of members by representation to the railway authorities, in the local legislature and in the Legislative Assembly, and to employ the funds of the union in procuring such representations.

(c) To regulate the relations between this union and its members and to settle disputes between the union and any member or members or between any member or members and any officer or officers of the union-by way of appeal as provided in these rules.

(d) To provide temporary assistance to members when out of employment through causes over which they have no control, or through unjust treatment or through any dispute existing between the employer and a member or members of the union.

(e) To provide legal or other assistance when necessary in matters pertaining to the employment of the members or for securing compensation for members who suffer injury by accidents in their employments; also to use every effort to provide for the safety of railway work and of railway travelling.

(f) To make grants to deserving railway employees and members or officers of the union in order to improve their future knowledge and prospects to educate and get training in the social, political, economic, and in the industrial life of the labour movements in India and abroad.

(g) To provide donations to any institutions from which members may derive benefit to have power to render, as occasion may arise, assistance to other trade unions and other lawful purposes, also to enable such members as voluntarily desire it to provide funds for their relief in sickness or temporary disablement and for their retirement and also to aid the young orphan children or widows of members, to provide accident benefit to members who may have met with accident whilst following their employment.

(h) To provide a grant of money to members of the disablement fund when permanently disabled, or when by reason of old age they cannot follow their regular employment, or to their representative in case of death or accidents, or otherwise.

(i) To carry on all business, within the meaning of assurance fund, unemployment fund, death benefit, sick benefit, and mutual assurance benefit as provided for in Appendix A to these rules.

### 3.—*The Textile Mill Workers' Union, Dhariwal.*

#### *Aims and Objects.*

To improve the conditions and to protect the rights of its members to obtain reasonable hours of duty, rates of wages, retiring allowances, and other conditions of labour. To settle disputes between the members and the employers and to represent the interests of its members to the employers in the legislature (local and provincial) and to utilize the fund in furthering the cause of the union and its members.

### 4.—*The North-Western Railway Compilation Union.*

#### *Objects.*

(a) To encourage the spirit of co-operation amongst employees of the Compilation Section.

(b) To devise means whereby the status of the clerical line is improved.

(c) To deal with questions affecting the common rights and privileges of the members and get grievances, if any, removed by constitutional methods.

## APPENDIX F.

### \* *Rules prescribed by the Director of Agriculture under Section 9 (i) (b) of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act.*

(1) Kapas shall enter at centre of the factory and shall be carried by broad stairs shown at the points marked A, B and C, D in the rough sketch plan T annexed hereto, on to the gin platform direct.

(2) A door at each end of the cotton (rui) platform for the carriage of cotton (rui) shall be provided at the points marked E, F and G, H in the aforesaid sketch plan.

(3) Width of kapas platform shall be 10 feet from shaft to inner surface of the wall making the minimum width of the factory 32 feet.

(4) There shall be an iron sheet shield not less than 1 foot high fitted on knife rail in front of a gin to prevent kapas and cotton seeds from passing over the knife rail of the gin and getting mixed with the cotton (ru). This shield shall be made in order to compensate for the wear and tear of the ginning roller.

(5) The belting on centre of cotton platforms shall be covered entirely to a height of 18 inches above ground to prevent cotton getting mixed with oil.

(6) There shall be a movable frame 2 feet 4 inches by 2 feet 4 inches by 2 inches to receive cotton (ru) coming through gins and keep it off floor. The frame shall be removable at will.

(7) The space for drying platform shall be at the rate of 1,000 square feet per 10 single roller gins or their equivalent. There shall be minimum of two platforms in each factory, and these shall be separated by a pathway at least 15 feet wide.

(8) There shall be easy means of ingress to and egress from factory compound, in order to prevent congestion of traffic.

(9) The area for a cotton ginning factory containing 32 single roller gins or their equivalent shall be a minimum of 4 acres and for a factory with larger number of such gins the area shall be increased at the rate of one acre for every 10 single roller gins or their equivalent to a maximum of 8 acres, except in special cases.

(10) Sufficient godowns for storing cotton and kapas shall be provided and different varieties of cottons shall be kept in separate godowns.

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Mr. A. L. HOYLE, COMMISSIONER, NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE DEPARTMENT.

*Preliminary.*

The Royal Commission's schedule of subjects reached me at the end of August. My evidence, which is to be submitted through the Central Board of Revenue, has to reach the Royal Commission not later than the 25th September, 1929. This is the budget season, and this year fortuitous circumstances have conspired to render it a peculiarly busy season in every direction. It will therefore be understood that it has been impossible to deal in any sense adequately with the Commission's questionnaire in the time at my disposal.

2. Excluding the Kohat Mines Division, where the salt is the property of local quarry owners and the function of Government is mainly to see that the excise duty is collected, the Northern India Salt Revenue Department is concerned with two salt producing areas, the Rajputana Salt Sources Division and the Salt Range Division in the Punjab. I deal below with each area separately. The serial numbers correspond with the headings in the Schedule.

*A.—The Rajputana Salt Sources Division.*

This division includes the three salt sources of Sambhar, Didwana, and Pachbadra. At the two latter the salt is extracted by, and purchased by Government from, the local owners of the pits, and Government is only indirectly concerned with the labour employed, much of which is supplied by the families of the pit owners. The Royal Commission will therefore, I think, not wish to receive any evidence in connection with these two sources. Sambhar Lake, the most important of the three salt sources in this Division, with an average output for the last five official years of approximately 73 lakhs of maunds of salt, is held under agreement with the Jaipur and Jodhpur States within whose territories it lies, by which the right of manufacturing and selling salt are leased to the Government of India.

*I.—Recruitment.*

1 to 3. The work of extracting and storing salt is given out by the Northern India Salt Revenue Department on contract. The contract for this work at Sambhar, Gudha, and Jhapog at the eastern end of the lake has since the year 1922-23 been in the hands of the Gudha Co-operative Society which recruits its labour from 12 neighbouring villages, known as Bara Gaon, within the jurisdiction of the Jaipur and Jodhpur Darbars. At Nawa, 15 miles distant from Sambhar toward the western end of the lake, the contract is in the hands of a private firm which recruits its labour from Nawa and the neighbouring villages. Both these agencies engage their labour through mates employed on commission. To encourage recruitment the contractors pay advances recoverable in instalments from the labourers' wages at the time of extraction.



7 and 8. The employment of extracting and storing salt is seasonal. Its duration is ordinarily not longer than four months in the year, and may be as little as two and a half months. The labourers are of the agricultural class, and when not employed under the department are engaged in their fields. Some employment is also offered by the department during the period from November to March when works of various kinds are under construction. The labour for these purposes is recruited from the town of Sambhar by the contractors engaged on the works.

### II.—Staff Organization.

10. The work of extracting and storing salt is done by contractors (including the co-operative society). Works of construction are partly done by contractors and partly departmentally; workshop labour is departmentally employed. The labour that is departmentally employed on construction is controlled by inspectors assisted by peons of various grades, and in charge of each work, or group of works, is a superintendent who is a gazetted officer. The work of the superintendents again is supervised by the general manager and assistant general manager. Workshop labour is under the control of the engineer (mechanical and electrical), assisted by certain technically trained subordinates. The engineer himself is under the control of the general manager.

11 and 12. The departmental superior staff is recruited by selection and competitive examination. The inferior staff is recruited from local men and to some extent from candidates from the United Provinces.

13. Relations between staff and rank and file are cordial.

14. As an employer of labour, Government is concerned here mainly with the workshop staff, who have recently been put on daily wages. Attendance registers are kept by a clerk who also acts as time-keeper. Wages are paid by the engineer.

15. (i) As already stated, the work of extracting and storing salt and some of the construction work are given on contract. These represent the most important activities of the department.

(ii) Sub-contracting does not exist,

(iii) The terms upon which the contractors employ their labour (which is not regularly employed but which finds casual and temporary occupation here during a limited season) are not controlled by the departmental officers. As is stated in later paragraphs, the department assists in the provision of certain amenities, e.g., housing and medical aid.

### III.—Housing.

16 to 22. The labour, as has been seen, is mainly local, and ordinarily lives at home. Government however, provides grass shelters during the extraction season for the housing of labourers from the more distant villages, and has also erected two model barracks at Gudha and one at Jhapog. These barracks are divided into rooms 12 feet by 12 feet, and have a verandah running along the front. Water is supplied by Government from a well worked by an electric motor. There are no conservancy arrangements. These barracks have proved fairly popular with the labouring community. A nominal rent is realized at 4 annas a month per room. The labourers are frugal and industrious by habit, and no moral improvement as the result of this accommodation is noticeable or was desired. The workshop employees are provided with rent-free quarters.

### IV.—Health.

23. No statistics are available. The physique of the workers is not remarkable, but in general they keep very fair health, though during the extraction season malaria is common and is probably stimulated to some extent by the nature of the work, which consists largely of wading in the salt pans.

24 and 25. The department maintains a dispensary to which a fair number of labourers have recourse for treatment of minor maladies and injuries, such as sores.

26. (i) Latrines are not provided, but sweepers are employed for the removal of night-soil.

(ii) Drinking water is provided by the contractors, who transport it to the works by rail or on camels.

29. (i) No statistics are available.

(ii) Malaria is widely prevalent. Cholera is rare. Hookworm has not come under notice.

**VI.—Education.**

40 to 42. The Jodhpur and Jaipur States provide both primary and secondary education, but it is not compulsory.

**VII.—Safety.**

43 to 50. Accidents are of very rare occurrence and no special safeguards appear to be necessary.

**IX.—Hours.**

55. (i) The hours of work for the seasonal labour on extraction, etc., are not regulated. In the workshop, pump house, etc., the hours of work are 48 per week and 8 per day.

(ii) Drivers and firemen employed on locomotives used for extraction, work sometimes for 12 hours. Overtime is paid.

(iii) The only class of workmen who are liable to call to duty at any hour are fitters. These are only eight in number.

60. The workshop workmen are given an hour off duty for meals. These men being employed on a variety of jobs are not subject to the same degree of fatigue that specialized labour induces.

61. Sunday is observed as a day of rest except during the extraction season when all concerned with extraction are expected to work daily to ensure harvesting all the salt.

**XII.—Wages.**

96. (i) In the workshop the average wages are Re. 1-0-6 pies per day. Labourers employed on extraction can earn 10 annas a day for a full day's work.

(ii) In the surrounding agricultural areas, men earn 7 annas and women 6 annas a day.

97. Wages in recent years have increased. This is due to the demand created by construction work on railways, irrigation works in the States and the building of New Delhi. The index of cost of living is not available for the locality.

100. Payment through contractors appears generally to work satisfactorily, though at times the contractors are inclined to strike a hard bargain at the expense of the labourers.

101. Wages are fixed in the case of labourers employed by contractors on harvesting salt by agreement between contractors and labour, and in the case of workshop hands with reference to rates obtaining in the railway workshops at Ajmer and Phulera.

102. Overtime pay for workshop hands is on a scale based on wages. It ranges from one anna per hour in excess of eight for workmen on 15 annas a day to three annas for workmen on Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 2-6 annas.

103. Standardization does not exist, since the workshop is small and jobs of varied kinds.

106. Fines are imposed on factory workmen for offences such as negligence rather than for inferior work. They are infrequent.

107. (i) The workshop hands are mostly on daily wages. Labourers on extraction are paid by the week.

(ii) Two weeks.

(iii) No action necessary.

(iv) Cases of unclaimed wages are very rare.

108. Among extraction labourers the extent of indebtedness is not known. The workshop labourers appear to be free from debt.

109. There are no bonus or profit-sharing schemes.

110. Men on monthly wages earn leave under the Civil Service Regulations. Workers on daily wages earn no leave.

**XVII.—Administration.**

137. The Workmen's Compensation Act being inoperative there is no employers liability in cases of accident; otherwise conditions are much the same as in British India. Relations with the local civil authorities are cordial.

### B. Salt Range Division.

The department works three mines at Khewra, Warcha and Kalabagh. Khewra, with an average annual output of 28½ lakhs of maunds of salt, is the most important. Except where otherwise indicated, my replies are applicable to all three mines.

#### I. Recruitment.

1. Excluding ticket-of-leave men employed on loading trucks in the depot, there are four classes of labour :—(a) The hereditary local miner caste, who have worked in the salt mines of the Salt Range for centuries and now work almost exclusively underground. (b) Workshop and power-house labour recruited from the blacksmith and carpenter classes of Khewra and neighbouring villages. (c) Semi-permanent labour employed on loading and unloading trucks and working mechanical drills underground, recruited in neighbouring villages from agricultural classes originally employed on collecting stone, wood and gypsum. (d) Casual labour, semi skilled or unskilled, employed on construction and repair work, recruited from the same class as (c).

There is practically no migration among the miner class; none among the engineering class, while the semi-permanent labour tends to leave the mine at harvest season.

2. (i) The miners live at Khewra itself. The workshop and the semi-permanent labour pay weekly, fortnightly, or occasionally monthly visits to their villages.

(ii) The total permanent labour force including miners, workshop hands and some of the semi-permanent labour is about 1,100 (including women) at Khewra, 250 at Warcha and 200 at Kalabagh.

(iii) No special methods of recruitment are in force, there being no scarcity of labour.

7. There is a certain amount of unemployment among the miners because the demand for rock salt is much in defect of the available supply. The best method of alleviating this unemployment would be to secure an increased demand. Endeavours are at present being made (though for reasons not connected with unemployment) to stimulate the demand by securing reduction in railway freights. The introduction of machinery has to some extent created unemployment, but this cause is less serious than the other. The general disinclination of the mining community to take up other work at casual labour rates, suggests that unemployment does not cause them very serious distress, though some of the community are endeavouring to secure land from the Punjab Government at concession rates as an alternative means of employment. An annual two months' holiday taken by the miners in August and September produces unemployment to the extent of 40 to 80 per cent. during those months for the workshop and casual labour classes.

8. (i) The average duration of employment, except for the permanent Government staff and the more skilled and essential of the workshop labour, is 10 months only, the miners being on vacation for two months annually.

(ii) The extent of casual employment varies very widely according to the amount of construction work in hand.

(iii) There is no serious absenteeism, except during good harvest season, when 30 to 40 per cent. of the semi-permanent labour may be absent. Figures of time or wages lost are not available. At Kalabagh casual labour tends to migrate to Afghanistan during the hot months.

#### II. Staff Organization.

10. The staff consists of a general manager, a superintending electrical and mechanical engineer, assistant commissioner or manager in charge of Khewra mine, assistant commissioner in charge of Khewra depot and preventive work and superintendents in charge of Warcha and Kalabagh mines. These are assisted by junior superintendents (gazetted) and inspectors (non-gazetted). The mine manager at Khewra is assisted by two superintendents and four inspectors, two of whom work as surveyors.

11. The general manager and the superintending engineer are specially recruited technical men. The remainder of the staff are officers of the Salt Department. The miners themselves work under gangmen, who are ordinarily hereditary leaders of the gangs.

12. (i) See (11) above. As far as possible, departmental officers with aptitude for mining work are selected. Junior superintendents in special cases are sent to the Dhanbad School of Mines for training.

(ii) There are no special facilities for training miners. The majority are illiterate.

13. (i) Relations generally are satisfactory. The miners have no hesitation in bringing any grievances to the notice of the mine manager or general manager. Questions affecting the well-being of the mining community as a whole are discussed by the general manager at conferences with the gangmen and the more intelligent miners.

(ii) Jobbers are not employed.

(iii) and (iv) There are no regular works committees, councils or industria councils. The gangmen, 41 in number, elect annually a *panchayat* or committee to deal with small local disputes. Their decisions are ordinarily accepted by the miners without question.

14. (i) Attendance of all labour is checked and registers kept in accordance with the Mines Act. In the case of the miners, attendance is taken from slips submitted by gangmen, in the case of labour on contract from the contractors' figures, and in the case of workshop and semi-permanent labour from the inspectors' or clerks' figures.

(ii) Wages are invariably paid by a gazetted officer.

15. (i) The bulk of the construction and repair work is given out on contract. Other work is done departmentally.

(ii) There is no sub-contracting, except a little on loading and unloading.

(iii) Control over work on contract is practically the same as over that done departmentally. Contractors are kept to the specified hours prescribed by the Mines Act.

(iv) The contract system has saved Government money, and does not appear to have affected working conditions adversely.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) and (ii) The workshop and some of the semi-permanent and casual labour are housed by Government, which is the employer.

(iii) Practically no housing is provided by private landlords.

(iv) The mining community build their own houses. At Khewra each miner has two houses, one in Khewra village and another for the vacation on the Salt Range.

17. The Department own considerable areas near Khewra and Warcha villages, and acquisition is unnecessary.

18. (i) The accommodation provided by Government for the workshop labour is at least as good as, or better than that which the labour would provide for itself. The accommodation provided for other labour consists of reasonably comfortable barracks.

(ii) High compound walls for privacy are provided in accordance with Punjab custom. Whether this practice is altogether healthy is open to question.

(iii) Most of the Government quarters at Khewra are provided with electric light, and at Khewra and Warcha there is an excellent supply of drinking water. Four sweepers are employed for conservancy in Khewra village, but there is some room for improvement here.

19. All accommodation provided is utilized.

22. The present housing conditions appear to have no bad moral effect. The people are conservative, and it would be difficult to persuade them to make any changes.

### IV.—Health.

23. (i) and (ii) Statistics are not available up to date. Births and deaths are registered by a chowkidar employed by the district authorities.

(iii) (a) The working conditions underground as regards ventilation and lighting are generally very good. (b) Conditions at home are fair. The situation of the mining villages on the slopes of the hills makes to some extent for cleanliness.

(iv) The staple food of the community as a whole is ground unrefined grain, which costs normally about one anna per pound. Meat is obtainable at a fixed price of seven annas per seer. Vegetables are scarce, which appears to conduce to anæmia.

(v) The physique of the mining community as a whole is somewhat below that of agricultural labour in Punjab.

24. (i) and (ii) The Department maintains hospitals at Khewra and Warcha, and there is also a hospital in Kalabagh city which is used by the mining community.

(iv) A midwife is attached to the Khewra hospital, and the appointment of a health visitor at this place is under consideration.

25. Below are statistics for three years showing attendance at the hospitals :—

Year.	Males.		Females.	
	In patients.	Out patients.	In patients.	Out patients.
1926 .. .. .	31	8,288	2	3,663
1927 .. .. .	79	11,215	27	5,222
1928 .. .. .	88	13,245	16	6,360

26. (i) Latrines are provided under ground, but usually not in the villages.

(ii) Ample drinking water is provided from standpipes at Khewra and Warcha.

(iii) Khewra has special tanks for bathing and washing.

29. (i) No industrial diseases are prevalent. Conjunctivitis and granular lids are not uncommon, but this is the case in all Salt Range villages, whether mining or otherwise.

(ii) Cholera and hookworm are unknown. Statistics for malaria are as under : 1926, 983 ; 1927, 628 ; 1928, 770. Goitre is endemic, and was formerly serious but has declined, possibly as the result of the supply of a better quality of drinking water.

30. The work people as a whole do not favour sickness insurance. They are very conservative, and it probably would be unwise to enforce any such system on them. Western medicine is not unacceptable in the mining areas when it has been tested and found to be of benefit.

#### V.—Welfare.

31 to 35. There are no maternity or welfare activities in this area.

36. The department does not provide educational facilities. There are district board schools.

37. The miners contribute one pie per rupee of their wages towards a pension fund, and fines recovered from them are also paid into this fund. The recipients are chosen by the gangmen and lambardars in consultation. The awards seem to be reasonably just. The usual rate of pension is Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 monthly.

38. A co-operative supply shop was started at Khewra, but failed because the shareholders took no interest in its progress. At Warcha the Superintendent of the Mine kept the working of the shop almost in his own hands, and achieved somewhat better results, but this is not co-operation.

#### VI.—Education.

40. There are district board infant and primary schools at Khewra, and an infant school at Warcha. The attendance last year averaged about 240, composed entirely of children not in employment. Children under 13 years of age are not employed in the mine or workshop. There are no educational facilities for older children or adults.

41. There are no facilities for industrial or vocational training.

42. Education in this area dates from only the last ten years, and cannot yet be expected to have had any marked effect on the standard of living or industrial efficiency of workers.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. Conditions are regulated by the Mines Act No. IV of 1923, and the accompanying Regulations for Metalliferous Mines.

44. The rate of accidents for the past three years is—Fatal, 1 per 1,000 ; serious, 4.7 per 1,000. An accident which keeps a workman absent from work for 21 days is classed as serious, and this classification includes a number of accidents involving relatively minor injuries, such as loss of a finger.

45. The most common accidents are haulage accidents, i.e., persons knocked down or run over by mine trucks. Only one death in the last ten years was due to a fall of roof. A number of simple accidents are due to women while carrying salt dropping it on their feet or other parts of their body.

46. Precautions are taken—(a) by arranging safe travelling ways to and from the working places ; (b) by closing off all dangerous parts of the mine ; (c) two whole-time permanent overseers are employed on regular inspection of the mine roofs, and (d) by careful fencing and guarding of all machinery.

48. The hospitals are situated as close as possible to the mines, and a number of men are trained in first-aid.

49. The mines are inspected annually by the mines inspector and periodically by the electrical inspector, deputy commissioner, health and other district officials. The superintendents and inspectors make tours of inspection writing up the results in a book.

50. The hours of work are not long, and conditions generally are good. These factors inevitably conduce to safety.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) and (ii) The advantages of the Workmen's Compensation Act were not at first fully understood by the work people. They now understand them, and claim compensation whenever it is due. Six claims were paid in the last three years.

(iv) and (v) There are no insurance facilities. Compulsory insurance does not seem necessary where accidents are so relatively uncommon.

53. The scales of compensation allowed by the Act appear to be adequate without being so liberal as to induce workers to shirk returning to work for the sake of drawing compensation. Payment by instalments seems preferable to payment of lump sums. The conditions under which compensation is granted are just and call for no alteration.

54. I do not consider that such legislation as is indicated is necessary.

#### IX.—Hours.

63. (i) Nine hours for surface and ten hours for underground labour with the exception of female labour which works from four to six hours daily.

(ii) Actual working hours correspond very closely to normal working hours as practically no over-time is worked.

(iii) Surface labour breaks off about mid-day for two hours' rest in the hot weather making a total working day of 11 hours of which 9 are actually working hours.

64. There are six working days in the week. Sunday is a holiday at Khewra and Warcha, and Friday at Kalabagh.

65. The hours of work per week were always under 60 hours before the 60 hours' restriction was introduced. The restriction has therefore had no effect.

66. Work is not ordinarily at very high pressure, therefore it seems unnecessary that the maxima should be reduced.

67. The shift system would be of no advantage, since the working hours are already well under the maximum, and therefore do not need to be divided between two or more shifts of workers. The mining community resent strongly any interference with their immemorial habits, and would object to the enforcement of the shift system. From the Department's point of view there is no objection except that shifts would involve some increase in expenditure on supervision.

68. I do not consider that any limitation is desirable. The daily work is well within the miners' physical capacity, and as already indicated they are not appreciative of artificial restrictions.

69. (i) and (ii) Miners usually take from half to one hour's interval daily according to their own wishes. Workshop labour is allowed one hour's interval in the cold weather and two hours in the hot weather. The intervals correspond with the workers' meal time, and are not fixed with any relation to fatigue.

(iii) Including the miners' two months vacation the number of holidays per year—is 132.

70. See serial No. 64, regarding weekly holidays. Only urgent repair work to machinery, permanent way, etc., is carried out on these days.

71. All workers get much more rest than is provided by law. Obviously no further provision is necessary.

#### X.—Special Questions.

91. A period of ten years has been accepted by Government as the period within which women are to be excluded from the mine. The miners will object since this involves interference with their immemorial habits and will reduce their earnings. The effect on the industry, so far as I can at present foresee, is likely to be negligible, since the community as a whole is not at present fully employed.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. (i) The average income of Khewra miners during the last three months was Rs. 39 per head, per memsem. Output increases in the winter and the average for the year will probably approximate to Rs. 50 per memsem. The rate at Kalabagh is about the same as at Khewra, and at Warcha the average is about Rs. 35. Rates paid to workshop labour vary from ten annas per day for unskilled labour to about

Rs. 3 for highly skilled workmen, but the average is about Re. 1-12 annas per head. Wages on loading and unloading trucks vary from nine annas to Re. 1 per day, and on construction from nine annas to twelve annas per day, the lowest rate being paid only to very young or very old workers.

(ii) In the surrounding agricultural areas rates vary from ten annas to Re. 1-8 annas or Rs. 2 per day, the higher figure being only paid during harvest season.

(iii) Where free quarters are provided the concession may be taken to be worth Re. 1 to Rs. 5 monthly.

97. (i) Wages rose very considerably between 1914 and 1922. Since then there has been no marked fluctuation.

(ii) The increase would appear to be due to the general increase in industry in the Punjab as a whole.

(iii) Analysis of the cost of living of a family consisting of two parents and three children seems to show that the cost is about Rs. 35 per mensem. This, however, pre-supposes that the worker buys all his supplies in the bazaar. Actually a large number of workers buy food-stuffs direct from the farmers, and it appears that a family can live on Rs. 16 to Rs. 18 per mensem.

100. The contract system seems to work satisfactorily. There are practically no complaints from labourers against the contractors.

101. Wages have generally been fixed in relation to prevailing rates in the district.

102. No special rates are paid for overtime or Sunday work.

104. Changes in wages have little effect on labour supply in the case of miners, as they are not readily attracted to other work. With the other classes increased wages generally attract more labour and decreased wages make it difficult to obtain labour. Over a certain point, however, which may tentatively be fixed as that which gives a workman 25 per cent. profit on his earnings, increased wages appear to conduce to slackness and absenteeism.

105. Since the miners are paid on out-turn, the introduction of a minimum wage would be both difficult and probably not advisable.

106. (i) The percentage of fines recovered to total wages paid during the past year was 0.7 per cent.

(ii) Other deductions are made on account of the cost of blasting powder and hire of drilling machines, and a voluntary contribution fund is levied at the rate of one pie per rupee.

(iii) The fine fund plus the voluntary contribution fund forms, as already noted, a pension fund for the old and infirm people of the village.

107. (i) Wages are paid in some cases weekly, in others fortnightly and in others monthly. This has been arranged after consulting the wishes of the different sections of labour.

(ii) The normal period elapsing before payment varies from 1 to 14 days. In exceptional cases, periods of three weeks to one month have elapsed.

(iii) So far as the mines under my control are concerned no legislation is required.

(iv) Unclaimed wages are usually kept for about three months, but a claim for wages not previously claimed is always considered, no matter how long the claim may have been delayed.

108. (i) and (ii) The whole community is usually in debt to some small extent to the shopkeepers, but the debt in most cases is not more than the debtor could pay very quickly if he wished. In the case of about 10 to 15 per cent. of the community the debt is beyond the capacity of the debtor to repay except in instalments extending over two or three years.

109. There are no bonus or profit sharing schemes.

110 (i) and (ii) As already noted, the miners take two months' vacation annually, thus enforcing a similar vacation on the majority of the other workers. There are also about 25 religious holidays during the year. Except in cases of extreme urgency (for example during the war) the vacation is invariably granted, since it appears to be beneficial to the miners' health and efficiency.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. There has been little marked change in the general efficiency of workers in the past ten years, though it may perhaps be said that the mechanical skill of the blacksmith and carpenter classes is slowly improving.

113 The comparison of the efficiency of Indian and foreign workers (a term covering a very wide field) is difficult. Loading work affords a rough test. A Khewra labourer will load from ten to fifteen tons daily, a European labourer from 20 to 25 tons, and an American labourer (judging by figures which the general manager

has obtained) up to 30 tons. It may be stated with reservation that the ordinary Punjab labour is physically about 60 per cent. as efficient as ordinary European labour. Compared with African labour (of which the present general manager has experience) it may be taken to be 80 to 90 per cent. as efficient physically, though very much more efficient mentally. A good skilled Indian labourer appears to be about equal to a semi-skilled European workman.

114. The comparisons given above are affected chiefly by climate, lack of opportunities for education and physique. The plant used in the Salt Range is relatively fairly efficient, but the overall standard of management is less efficient than could be desired.

115. Improvement in dietary (alone among the subheads under this serial number) might render the workers capable of increased production, but as already stated the mining community as a whole is not at present worked up to its full physical capacity.

116. Extended use of electricity is expected to make the working of the mine as a whole more efficient. Such extension is under consideration.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. (i) During the last forty years there has been only one strike. This occurred at Khewra mine in 1921, and was attributable mainly to the low rate of wages then paid.

(ii) It lasted for three months, and was conducted peacefully.

(iii) Government made no concession. The workers returned of their own free will.

(iv) The workers are estimated to have lost roughly about Rs. 60,000 in wages. There was no particular loss to industry.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. Statistics of attendance, wages paid, etc., are kept in the ordinary mine records which are very reasonably reliable. Statistics of health, disease, etc., are kept in the hospitals, but are less accurate, since a number of the community do not attend hospital, and thus numerous cases of illness presumably go unrecorded. Statistics of the cost of living are difficult to obtain.

145 No special investigations have been conducted regarding conditions in this area, except one investigation into the health of the Khewra miners conducted about 1922 by Dr. Gill of the Punjab. Dr. Gill's report unfortunately seems to have been eliminated from our records.

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#### MINERS OF KHEWRA.

We, the undersigned miners of Khewra, venture to approach and lay before you the following lines for your kind perusal and favourable consideration.

The village of Khewra is inhabited chiefly by Moghals, Awans, Khokhars and Janjuas, who depend upon mining for their living. Our ancestors were the original owners of the mines in the Salt Range, and they owned and profited by the mines exactly in the same way as an agriculturist owns and makes use of his land. The mine was considered the owner's property. This fact is borne out by the oral traditions handed down from generation to generation and by the fact that persons of the same tribes are owners of lands in the district. During the Moghal and the Sikh rules our forefathers used to work out the salt from the mines themselves and realized the profits solely for their own benefit without any interference on the part of the then Governments. Since the advent of the benign British rule these mines have become State property and we, who were once the owners, cannot count ourselves in the category of even ordinary labourers.

2. Before the advent, and in the beginning of the British rule, the salt mine was situate at a distance of half a mile from the village and salt was worked out therefrom. However, since about thirty years a new tunnel was prepared and the mine went direct underneath the village. The result was that the old Khewra and the Mohallah Maswari were endangered. The officials paid no heed to this alarm and consequently half of the village was utterly destroyed, and thousands of the inhabitants were rendered homeless with irreparable loss of property in spite of the repeated requests and supplications from the villagers. This was the reward bestowed by the officers upon us for the services rendered so faithfully with the sweat of brow to fill the coffers of the Government Treasury. The benign Government has rendered



all possible aid to the sufferers during the recent floods, and it is beyond comprehension why we should be deprived of any such assistance from the Government, having become homeless, as we are. We have been crying during the last year for help, but the salt authorities would not allow our voice to be heard. Now that we have had the honour of the visit of the Labour Commission to this unfortunate village of ours we have found an opportunity to lay bare our heart and we earnestly pray that the site of the village may be shifted to some safer place, and we may be financed for building upon those sites or the Government may get us houses prepared under its own control and cost.

3. Our ancestors were the full owners of the houses occupied by them, and no Government ever claimed any right over them. Since about eight or nine years the general manager, Salt Mines, Khewra, has issued a queer order that no house should be rebuilt or repaired without a stamped deed being executed by the owner thereof in favour of the Salt Department, with the stipulation that the occupiers will be liable to be evicted if he cannot work satisfactorily according to the wishes of the Salt Department. This was the type of help rendered to the homeless during the calamity mentioned above, which also was the doing of the Salt Department itself. Thus we who once were the owners of the salt range and the houses are now required to seek permission to reside and to touch the homes of our forefathers. If we had our own homes without any interference or control we could leave the mine if not agreeable and still occupy our houses. On the other hand, if the execution of deeds continues the displeasure of the salt officers would mean exile from the village. We, therefore, request that this unwholesome practice be given stop to, and in our humble opinion you alone can give us salvation from this curse of stamp deeds, which has rendered our living worse than death, because on the face of it it is disgraceful to ask permission to live in one's own cottage.

4. We now draw your kind attention to the vital aspect of our labour that is the income of a miner. We may briefly state that previous to the year before last payment was made according to the measurements of space worked out by the miner. Since a year the system has been changed. Now the payment is made according to the number of trucks of salt a miner can supply during a certain period. Each miner is supplied with a notebook and the number of trucks supplied by him are entered in the book. The miner is paid at the rate of Rs. 3-6 per truck load of salt. On the average the daily output to the market from the mine is 10,000 maunds of salt, and this is conveyed by 250 trucks, each carrying 40 maunds. Thus the total number of trucks supplied per mensem is 6,250; 613 miners have been supplied with such notebooks. Thus, taking out the monthly average each holder of such book supplied 6,250/613, i.e., 10 trucks. The Government rate per truck is Rs. 3-6, but the expenses of gunpowder used in digging the salt and of oil incurred amount to 14 annas per truck. Deducting this actual cost the net price comes to Rs. 2-8 per truck. Thus the total average income of a bookholding miner is Rs. 25 per mensem. The miners, however, actually work for ten months during the year, it being impossible to work for the two rainy months, when the mine becomes dangerous. Making this allowance for two months a net average income of a miner comes to Rs. 20-13-4 pies per mensem. This is the only source of a miner's income. Now let us calculate the expenses. The total number of miners working is 2,677, and the number of books given is 613. Thus the number of persons depending on one book is 4½. To make the calculation easier we shall take the round figure of 4 for 4½. The monthly expenses of 4 men is as follows:—

	Price.		
	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Floor, 6 chhks per head; total, 90 seers at the rate of 6 seers for one rupee .. .. .	15	0	0
2. Ghee, ¾ chhks per head meal; total, 90 chhks at the rate of 8 chhks per rupee .. .. .	11	4	0
3. Meat, 10 seers; every third day a seer at the rate of 7 annas per seer .. .. .	4	6	0
4. Vegetables, pulses, etc. .. .. .	3	0	0
5. Salt, spices, etc. .. .. .	1	0	0
6. Fuel .. .. .	2	0	0
7. Clothes, shoes, etc. .. .. .	10	0	0
8. Barber, 8 annas; soap, Rs. 1-8.. .. .	2	0	0
9. Tobacco, 4 annas per head .. .. .	1	0	0
Total .. .. .	49	10	0

Total annual expenses, Rs. 595-8.

*Annual Necessary Expenses.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Repairs of the houses .. .. .	50	0	0
2. Marriage and death expenses, etc. .. .. .	50	0	0
3. Fine .. .. .	24	0	0
4. Pie fund .. .. .	3	0	0
5. Income tax .. .. .	4	0	0
6. Illness, doctor, etc. .. .. .	10	0	0
7. Chaukidar .. .. .	1	0	0
8. Maulvi sahib and water for the mosque .. .. .	6	0	0
Total .. .. .	148	0	0
Total annual expenses .. .. .	595	8	0
	148	0	0
	743	8	0
Average monthly expenses .. .. .	61	15	4
The average monthly income is .. .. .	20	13	4

Thus the average debt is Rs. 4-2 per mensem and the average annual debt is Rs. 493-8 annas, i.e., about Rs. 500. Assuming the above figures, we can say emphatically that the poorest of human souls cannot incur lesser expenses. The bahis of the Shahukars of Khewra are a living testimony of our debts. We therefore pray that some method be devised to ameliorate our wretched condition, one way being to grant lands to some of the miners elsewhere.

5. The solution to the difficulties mentioned above in para. No. 4 is found out by carefully examining the following :—The salt dealer has to pay Re. 1-9 annas per maund. Out of it Re. 1-4 annas goes to the Government Treasury as salt duty. The remaining 5 annas are charged by way of expenses incurred by the Government for labour spent in the supply of salt.

*Statement A.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Wages of the labourers at the rate of Rs. 3-2 annas per truck weighing 40 maunds .. .. .	0	1	3
2. Expenses per maund for putting in trucks and carrying to the market .. .. .	0	0	3
3. Workshop expenses per truck repairs .. .. .	0	0	6
4. Expenses in the market for sewing bags and loading wagons .. .. .	0	1	0
Total, per maund .. .. .	0	3	0

*Statement B.*

	Rs.	a.	p.
1. Loading per truck .. .. .	0	4	0
2. Pulling of the truck by mules .. .. .	0	2	0
3. Engine expenses per truck .. .. .	0	3	0
4. Unloading, per truck .. .. .	0	1	6
Total .. .. .	0	10	6

*Notes.*—The carrying capacity of a truck is 40 maunds, and in statement B the expenses per truck are mentioned. Therefore the expenses per truck amount to 3 pies. This is shown in Statement A (2). It is clear from the Statements A and B that the Government expenses amount to 3 annas per maund per labour, etc. The question arises as to what use is made of 2 annas thus realized from the salt purchasers. We pray that the said sum of 2 annas above-mentioned be paid to the miners, and the rate per truck be increased to Rs. 8-2 annas from Rs. 3-2 annas per truck load for the miners. In this way the monthly income will come to Rs. 81-4 annas. If this is done the income will be more than the expenses, and we will be relieved of all anxiety and trouble and our labour will be a source of respectable living.

6. We further beg to request that some provision be made for the old and disabled miner. On account of working in a mine a miner becomes useless at an earlier age than usual, and is more often disabled on account of accidents breaking his leg or arm. Like other departments, the salt department should make some arrangement for the labourer in the form of bonus, pension or provident fund.

7. The system in vogue a year back was that the wages were paid according to the measurements of the space. The details are as follows:—1 anna 9 pies per cubic foot up to 10 ft. below the surface of the line of salt trucks, 2 annas per cubic foot from 10 ft. to 20 ft. below, 2 annas 3 pies per cubic foot from 30 ft. to 60 ft., 2 annas 9 pies per cubic foot from 60 ft. downward. The salt dust was included in the measurement. According to the present arrangement no allowance is given for the salt dust. The officers more often than once, on mere examination, declare the trucks to be lesser in weight, and thus fine the miner accordingly without getting the truck actually weighed. This is a great hardship to the miners. If the miners object that the weight is not less and pray to the superior officer for the remission of the fine, they are threatened with expulsion from the mine and the poor miner has then to content himself with his fate like dumb cattle. We therefore pray that the Salt Department be ordered to actually weigh the trucks before any deduction is made.

8. In other parts of the province committees are constituted to look after the various arrangements of the locality. A committee of four members is in existence here as well. The object of establishing this committee is to look after the sanitation, to settle disputes concerned with houses and sites. But the members of the committee are either Lumberdars or contractors who are afraid of the officers without any reasonable ground. They cannot consequently properly perform their duties. The grievances of the residents cannot reach the officers' ears because a committee exists in name only. It is therefore prayed that the members of the committee be elected and not selected.

9. The following are the general miscellaneous grievances which require redress:—

(a) The Government Salt Digging is carried on by contractors at fixed rates. The contractor Lumberdar allots different works to the miners under his control and for any damage such miners are not paid any wages although they have worked. On the other hand they are penalized to surrender their books.

(b) There is scarcity of water for the miners, the pipes being available to the public for half an hour only. The water is stored in water tanks at a distance of half a mile from the village. The water is to be brought through difficult hilly paths in hot weather from such a long distance and considerable difficulty is felt. This hot boiling water in summer is available to the few miners who have the chance to reach it first. The others are at the mercy of the clerks, who may allow them water from the pipes in their houses after great entreaties. On the other hand, the pipes in the houses of clerks are running for 24 hours. Will the honourable members do something to alleviate our trouble.

(c) A pie per rupee is deducted from our income on account of charges for repairs from the Government workshops. These workshops are opened during fixed hours when we are working in the mine. On Sundays these are closed, so we have no time to have our instruments repaired. Either the Government shops be closed or be opened at proper intervals.

(d) The Government had assigned different plots of land to several miners for maintenance. The miners prepared these lands after great labour. These lands are now being taken away from lessees for petty faults and handed over to others. We pray that either the original occupiers should not be ejected from such lands, and if they are ejected reasonable compensation should be awarded to those ejected.

(e) A pie per rupee is deducted from our income for giving pensions to old disabled and injured persons. Similarly Income Tax is being deducted but our incomes were never assessable. A penal post is being ordered at Khewra and we shall have to bear the cost. We may be saved from the extra expenses.

(f) Outsiders are employed as labourers in the electric machines and workshops. Will it not be fair that this labour should also be performed by miners so that those who cannot get sufficient work in the mines should be able to earn their livelihood in these places.

(g) According to the order of the General Manager no miner is allowed to work for more than eight hours in the mine. The machines work throughout the day till 4 p.m. The order, moreover, is that unless the chamber is clean machines won't begin to work. The miner is in a very difficult and odd position. If he does not

clean the place for the machines to work his whole day is lost; if he works after the usual allotted hours he is punished for the breach of order. Some solution may be found out for this.

(h) All the miners have equal rights in the mine without distinction. Every Lumbardar or Gangman is allotted a certain number of trucks to be supplied per month. The Lumbardar or Gangman does not divide equally the trucks allotted to him to the different miners under him. He supplies as many trucks himself as he can and in several cases supplies all the trucks allotted to him. The miners working under him are thus left without any work to do and have to starve. The system involved previously was that the Salt Officers used to divide the salt chambers themselves amongst the miners. It is requested that the same system should be introduced now so that the Lumberdars or Gangmen may not have undue advantage over the other miners.

(i) In cases of conviction, a miner after undergoing sentence of imprisonment is not allowed to work in the mine. Even in cases of Challan cases after discharge or acquittal he is considered a condemned man and a criminal although there is a judicial pronouncement in his favour. It means thus in some cases forfeiture of his property (right to work in the mine and ejection from his house). In cases of all other subjects of His Majesty no person incurs forfeiture of his property unless there is a specific order by some judicial authority. It is therefore prayed that this practice should be put an end to at an early date.

10. We have briefly laid before you a few out of many grievances with a strong belief that you will kindly spare some of your valuable time in devising some means for the amelioration of our condition. We are convinced that you have by this time fully grasped the situation and have examined the conditions under which we are working and the miserable plight we are living in. It may not be futile to say that our living is very wretched, our incomes too poor to maintain our families, and our status much lower than our agricultural brotherhood in the same locality. As compared to other countries the conditions of labour in this country are bad and we can boldly say that our lot is the worst. We are the faithful and loyal subjects of His Majesty and we have been rendering all possible assistance in times of need. As misfortune would have it, our rights have never found favour with the officers concerned, and we have always been looked down upon as mean labourers of no respect. Your visit as President of the Labour Commission to this unfortunate village of ours is a God-sent gift and we pray and hope that you will consider our grievances with kind favour.

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#### LABOURERS OF KHEWRA SALT MINES.

We, the labourers of Khewra Salt Mines, Engineering Section, most respectfully beg to lay the following grievances before you for your kind consideration :—

1. That since the mines were started men used to work on all days of the year except public holidays. On the recent introduction of the Indian Mines Act, we work only 20 or 22 days or so in the month, all Sundays and local and gazetted holidays being observed. Also, we are given leave for two months the mine is closed during the rainy season. In short, we work only seven months in a year. It is a well-known fact that the cost of living is getting higher and higher every day. This reduction in our income is telling very badly on our condition and most of us are getting into debt.

2. That like other departments, e.g., railways, we are made to work under all the usual limitations. But we are not granted any privilege like them. They work eight hours a day while we work 9 hours a day except those employed underground. They are allowed 15 days' leave on full pay in a year and receive their full pay on all gazetted holidays. At the time of cessation of their services they are given gratuity. The right to such privileges commences after one year's service. We have amongst us people who have been working for more than 8 to 10 years and who receive no consideration of the sort whatsoever.

3. In the railway department all employees are given due increments at the end of every year without the asking. We get increments at a very meagre rate at the end of four years, and that, too, is not granted to all of the men.

4. That we should be put on monthly wages instead of daily. Or our rate of pay be increased and we should be paid on all holidays. This is possibly the only way to better our condition.

5. That our previous difficulties have been multiplied by the Hasiyat Tax being levied by the District Board. We are already poor, ill-paid men, living from hand to mouth. We cannot pay this tax. If this tax is made compulsory, we will be actually starving.

6. That we are very badly in need of proper and enough accommodation at Khewra. The number of quarters is much too small for our number and we have to live several men in a small room. That one room serves the purpose of our kitchen, bathroom, store-room and sleeping-room. This condition is the most insanitary imaginable. We need quarters to accommodate all men with special regard to health, sanitation and reasonable comfort. It will not be out of place to state that many men are obliged to live in their villages and to walk to and from work three or four miles every day under all conditions of weather.

7. That we have only one vernacular primary school and there is no provision even for ordinary education. After our children have passed 4th primary it is impossible for them to learn more because (1) we have no means to send them away to read in a town; (2) in the latter case they lose their character, being out of our supervision. This tells horribly on our future generation. Our children are denied the benefit of education. We require at least one high school here.

Lastly, we beseech your kind honour to look into our troubles sympathetically and help to redress them as far as is in your power.

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Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES, PUNJAB.

*Labour in Factories in the Punjab.*

According to the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in the Punjab is 51,613, of which 43,296 are men, 7,534 women and 783 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 13,629 are employed in the railway workshops, 4,743 in the Government factories such as military workshops, arsenals, etc., and 33,241 in all other factories.

Of the total number, 21,763 are employed on seasonal work, of which 21,335 are in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 428 in ice factories. Women are mostly employed in cotton ginning factories as unskilled workers, numbering 7,123 out of a total of 7,534 employed in all factories.

Of the total number of children, 93 are employed in the textile mills, 246 in cotton ginning factories and 444 in other factories such as sports works, printing presses, match factories, cement factories and oil refineries.

Workers in factories other than those employed in the railway workshops, textile mills and few other engineering works belong mostly to the agricultural class, and they seek employment in factories only with a view to fill in their time between the harvest. The majority of skilled workers in railway and engineering works are imported from other provinces and having no interest in the land are keen to improve their knowledge of factory conditions and work up to high positions. Bombay and the United Provinces supply certain number of factory managers, engineers and head mistris, many of whom are Parsees. A fair number of engineers and boilermen are Sikhs.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. (i) When new factories are opened most of the skilled labour required is imported chiefly from places where similar concerns are already in progress. Unskilled labour is readily obtainable from villages surrounding the industry: they being land workers are attracted by a slightly higher wage. Further, when their land requires attention they leave the factory for their homes. Unskilled labour is generally plentiful in the Punjab and seldom does an occasion arise when higher wages have to be paid owing to the scarcity of workers when they return to their land during the harvest time.

In bigger concerns such as the Dhariwal Mills (employing 886 operatives) skilled labour was imported in the first instance from Bombay and United Provinces, and it is still drawn from those provinces as vacancies occur. Those living in villages near the mills have to some extent taken up employment in the mills in preference to land work. This was evident during the labour trouble of 1927, when the mill authorities were able to recruit a sufficient number of semi-skilled workers from the neighbouring villages and managed to keep the mills running.

A recently opened paper mills at Jagadhri—an entirely new industry in the Punjab—drew up to 60 per cent. of its skilled workers from the United Provinces, where paper mills had already been in progress several years. In seasonal factories, of which cotton ginning and pressing form the major portion, four-fifths of the labour is local. The period of work in these factories extends from October to April, a time which fits in fairly well with the requirements of attending to the land, and such workers are able to carry on by existing on the land during the months April to October, when the next cotton ginning season would start.

(iii) The only change noticeable during recent years is the gradual inclination on the part of the labour to take up factory work: this is probably due to the rise in wages paid by the employers: the change is, however, very slow.

3. (i) Recruitment to all centres is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who remains in touch with contractors in other industrial centres, and can usually meet the supply. Much recruitment is also made by personal acquaintances—most of the permanent workers such as engineers, mechanics and other skilled workers appear to have friends or relations looking for an improvement on their own job—and references relating to ability and certificates not being of great value, changes of service frequently occur.

Unskilled and casual labour is recruited through the labour contractor, and mostly paid by him at the end of the day. There is no guarantee given by the contractor that work will be forthcoming the following day, as it all depends on the amount of work that will be available.

(ii) I do not know of any improvement which could be effected with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour: the existing method is simple and effective. Labour being illiterate would look with suspicion upon any change that is contemplated in the present system.

8. (i) The average duration of employment is difficult to determine. I know of cases where men have worked for 30 years, but such cases are very rare—the average being nearer 20 years.

(ii) Casual employment in factories extends from 4 to 7 months during the year, depending upon the duration of the cotton ginning season: the remaining portion of the year or some part of it is spent in working on the land.

## II.—Staff Organization.

12. Subordinate supervising staff is to some extent supplied from the various industrial and technical institutions in the province. It is also imported from United Provinces and Bombay. There is a marked difference between the unskilled and skilled workers, the former seldom if ever attaining position of skilled workers or supervisors.

13. (i) In well established factories, particularly those run by responsible companies, the relations between the employer and employed are good and compare favourably with other countries from what I have seen. In smaller factories difficulties occasionally arise amongst the proprietors, managers, and workers chiefly on account of non-payment of wages and alleged ill-treatment, as a result of which numerous applications are received at my office from the workers who complain of being dismissed without having been paid their dues.

(iii) Works Committees have not yet been established in this province.

15. (i) Recruitment to all centres is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who is in touch with the contractors in other industrial centres and can usually meet the demand.

(ii) It is difficult to say to what extent sub-contracting is carried on, but since the labour contractor usually lives near the factory area, and seldom undertakes to contract for more than two or three factories, it is unlikely that he would resort to sub-contracting.

(iii) The contractor has little or nothing to do with the working conditions of the labour he supplies: his duty finishes when he has supplied labour up to the extent required by the factory manager.

(iv) The employment of labour through the agency of the labour contractor has on occasions resulted in the abuse of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to hours of work and employment of children. I have had cases when a labour contractor having supplied under-aged workers to a factory, has been held responsible by the factory owner, who, when prosecuted by this department, has tried to push the responsibility for illegal employment on to a contractor.

#### IV.—Health.

26. Latrines are provided for work people in factories according to rules laid down in the Punjab Factory Rules, except in such circumstances where the factories are open to the country on three sides. Although latrines are provided it is only in big mills and towns where they are made use of. When factory owners are taken to task for not keeping the factory latrines up to the standard laid down by the Factory Law, they frequently say "what is the good when the workmen do not use them."

(ii) The supply of drinking water is generally satisfactory in factories. In towns, where there are municipal waterworks, factories receive their water supply from municipal taps, which have proved quite sufficient to meet the demands of the operatives. In rural areas most of the factories have their own wells, and a man is employed permanently for supplying drinking water to the operatives.

(iii) No special arrangements have been made in factories to meet the needs of the operatives in this behalf. However, the factory managers do not object if the operatives make use of the tank or the well of the factory for their bathing and washing purposes.

28. (i) *Control of temperature in factories.*—Exhaust and overhead fans are fitted in work rooms of well-organized factories, and workers themselves frequently fit up fans working from a pulley of the power shaft. Stoves are provided in Government factories during the winter months, but factories are usually kept warm enough by the power plant. Apart from this little attempt is made to control the temperature of factory rooms.

(ii) *Control of humidification in cotton mills.*—Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity came into force only last year. There are only three cotton spinning and weaving mills in the Punjab in which artificial humidity is being used at present affecting about 750 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage, and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29. (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has come to light in registered factories in this province. Woollen mills and presses report that no case of anthrax has ever come to their notice. Regarding lead poisoning, three printing presses only do their own lead melting, and these have up-to-date stoves fitted with exhausts to carry away fumes. Compositors in printing presses like the *Civil and Military Gazette*, Lahore, have been doing the same work for many years without showing any signs of ill effects.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of workers. Apart from this every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the Factory Law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention. When these regulations are persistently violated, prosecutions are instituted against the offenders. During 1928, 32 cases were made against factory occupiers and managers for failing to protect their workers from the dangers of machinery.

44. A reference to annual reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act in the Punjab will show that accidents have increased considerably during the last 10 or 12 years. The increase is out of proportion to the increased number of operatives.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes:—

(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners due to some extent to the strict administration of Factory Law.

(b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the Factory Inspector's office.

(c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting accidents they might get compensation.

(d) Another reason is that since the war up-to-date machinery of entirely new patterns has been introduced into the country whilst the workmen have not had the proper training to keep pace with the new type of machinery. It is noticeable that accidents increase with the introduction of new type of machines.

(e) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers still take frightful and unnecessary risks. Reference to the causes of fatal and serious accidents shows that carelessness on the part of the worker is responsible to a great extent for accidents. Such instances as "a boiler attendant fell over the safety valve arm of a boiler when walking over the top of it, instead of going round, causing steam to escape which burnt him to death." "An engineer went to turn off an electric switch situated on the other side of the engine, to save walking round the engine, a distance of 20 yards in climbing over the rails guarding a main rope drive caught his foot in the rope and was instantaneously killed."

(f) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

(g) Investigations into the causes of serious and fatal accidents to workers on dangerous duties such as maintaining of pulleys in order, oiling of bearings, etc., show that underpaid and unskilled workers are put on jobs of which they have no experience. There is no definitely laid down standard of a "skilled worker" and it is, therefore, impossible to bring home to the employer his responsibility in this respect. I have heard it argued by some employers that since they insure their labour against accidents under the Workmen's Compensation Act, there is no object in employing expensive and skilled workers on dangerous jobs, as in the event of accidents the insurance company will pay. A definitely laid down standard of efficiency amongst skilled workers along with it, if possible, a wages standard would be extremely useful. Trade Unions could possibly assist in this respect.

46. The railway workshops are the only factories to take up safety first measures seriously. Posters showing dangers and calling upon workers to be careful for their own sake are exhibited in conspicuous places. Other factories have not shown an inclination to take up the matter seriously.

Existing factory rules made under the Indian Factories Act cover safety first measures, such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly-fitting clothes, to prohibit children from entering into certain parts of factories, etc., but no serious attempt has yet been made in the shape of a safety first campaign amongst factory workers.

48. First-aid boxes are provided and kept in readiness in all factories where 500 or more operatives are employed.

One mill only has its whole-time doctor always in attendance: he attends the workers and their families free of charge. A few of the bigger factories have a working arrangement with the local doctor, who visits their factories once or twice a week according to the terms of contract, but on the whole workers and their families seek relief from Government dispensaries.

49. (i) During the year 1928, 667 inspections were made, resulting in 130 prosecutions to enforce factory regulations.

The bigger and well-organised mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules and make an effort to do so.

(ii) The seasonal factories particularly work against regulations and have little regard for factory legislation. The nature of the staple industry of the province (cotton ginning and pressing) makes it necessary to work hard whilst the season is on, also weather conditions have a considerable effect. As a result when the raw cotton comes into the factory, it is dealt with right away and regular working hours are to a great extent ignored.

As 90 per cent. of the labour in the seasonal factories is unskilled and contracted for daily, the employer has little regard for its comfort, and long hours are indulged in. As this goes on for four to six months during the year, the workers suffer hardships, as although they work longer hours, their daily wages remain the same. Prosecutions are launched against offending factory managers for this overworking. Thirty-eight cases were instituted in 1928, but the inspector's difficulties are many in bringing the offenders to book. It is well known that a reward is paid to anyone in the factory centre or villages, giving information about the inspector's arrival: chowkidars are also kept on the railway stations by factory owners with a view to obtaining timely information about the inspector's visit. False registers are maintained and no factory worker would dare give evidence against his employer.

One of the chief difficulties in enforcing factory regulations is that adequate punishments cannot be obtained in courts for offences under the Act. It, therefore, becomes a sound business proposition for a factory occupier to work his employees overtime and risk being detected by the inspector: if he is taken to court, the fine will be anything from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50, and that amount is made up by one hour's illegal work and it is fairly safe to presume that the inspector cannot turn up more



than once a month. The method of adjudging cases under the Indian Factories Act is to my mind unsatisfactory. I doubt if the prosecuting agency or the Court realize the serious nature of infringements of rules and very often when the hearing comes on, the Factory Inspection Department is not informed of the date of hearing. The accused pleads guilty, pays his small fine into court and returns to his factory to carry on as before. There is nothing in the Act, which provides for an enhanced sentence for the repetition of an offence: hence no mention of the offence having been committed before, is legally permissible in the complaint. I give below one instance in which the accused was made to pay a small fine in spite of the fact that he was prosecuted by me for the fifth time:—

(1) After having issued several warnings to the occupier of Khalsa Cotton Factory, Jaranwala, I prosecuted him for the first time in 1925 for—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley, and (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday.

In each of these cases the occupier was fined Rs. 45.

(2) For the second time I prosecuted the occupier of the said factory in 1926 for—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley; (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday; (c) for illegal employment of children; and (d) for working his factory without sending a notice of occupation.

In the first two cases he was fined Rs. 15 each and in the remaining two, Rs. 10 each.

(3) For the third time I prosecuted the occupier of the said factory in 1927 for:—(a) not completely guarding the main line shaft alley; (b) employing persons on Sunday without giving a substituted holiday; (c) illegal employment of children (3 cases); (d) for working his factory without sending a notice of occupation; (e) for not maintaining inspection book, and (f) for not submitting the monthly holiday returns.

In all these cases the accused was fined Rs. 1,250, but on an appeal preferred by him, the District and Sessions Judge reduced the amount of fine to Rs. 400.

(4) For the fourth time I prosecuted the same occupier in 1928 for—(a) allowing persons to work on transmission machinery whilst wearing loose clothes; and (b) illegal employment of children.

In one case he was fined Rs. 20 and in the other Rs. 10.

(5) For the fifth time I prosecuted the same occupier in 1929 for—(a) overworking labour; and (b) illegal employment of children—2 cases.

In each of these cases he was fined Rs. 25.

From the above it is evident that the courts take no notice of the repetition of offences under the Act and inflict only small fines. Further, when the inspector is required to appear in court as a witness, the cases which are written down to be tried summarily are sometimes delayed—the accused is either not served, or his witnesses are not available, or the Public Prosecutor is busy in another court, or the Magistrate is busy with other cases.

It is not unusual for an inspector to appear in a court, possibly 100 miles away from the headquarters, four or five times in each case, every hearing taking up a whole day, and the result is that the accused is finally let off with a warning, or fined Rs. 10 or 20. If a provision is made in the Act so that enhanced punishment could be awarded in case of a repetition of an offence, and that all factory cases to be tried summarily (by summary procedure) and if it were possible to have a Public Prosecutor attached to this department, such difficulties will be greatly minimized.

50. There are no statistics to show exactly how far reasonable working hours do keep down accidents, but undoubtedly fatigue is responsible for many accidents, and the more conditions of work are improved generally, the less will be the number of accidents.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act.*—This department is only concerned in collecting returns under the Act relating to factories and mines. As, however, factory workers know that the factory inspector has something to do with accidents, many reports are made to this office, the workmen sometimes appearing in person, seeking for help in obtaining the compensation due. Every year 30 to 40 injured persons or their dependants call at this office for help in this respect. Advice is always given as to the procedure which should be followed by them, and where necessary help is given to them in filling in the claim forms merely upon compassionate grounds.

If some scheme could be devised whereby claims be in simpler form and payments could be made more promptly, the claimants would be benefited. One case came

to my notice of a claimant at Sheikhpura being paid his claim in the shape of a cheque on a Calcutta bank by the insurance company, but as he could neither read nor write, the cheque was quite useless, and it took him more than six months to realize the amount.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. Factory legislation permits working 11 hours a day, but not exceeding 60 hours a week. In perennial factories other than railway workshops, this is taken full advantage of. In flour and oil mills, where continuous production is necessary, the method is to employ one shift of workers by day and one by night; arrangements being made for each worker to be off duty two hours during his period of 12 hours of duty. During the day, the worker usually takes advantage of his rest period to go out of the mill, but during the night he prefers to stay in the mill for rest.

The operatives of many factories prefer to take half-an-hour's rest at mid-day instead of one hour; this is permitted where the total daily working hours do not exceed 8½. Railway workshops have a fixed week of 48 hours, after which overtime pay is given up to 60 hours per week.

Seasonal factories apparently accept the 60 hours' week, showing a 10-hour day for six days a week; timings are usually shown from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with two hours' rest. These hours of work are not strictly adhered to, especially in the case of cotton ginning factories, which are notorious in overworking their labour beyond the prescribed hours.

The method adopted by the unscrupulous factory owners who deliberately overwork their labour longer hours than is permitted under the Act is as follows:—

A factory's working hours are registered as from 6 a.m. to 12 a.m. and from 2 p.m. to 6 p.m., with rest interval from 12 a.m. to 2 p.m. Their hours are recorded on the factory notice board and a copy of it is sent to the factory inspector. If the factory manager wants to start earlier he puts up a piece of paper on the notice board showing that the factory will start that day at 5 a.m. or 5.30 a.m. Should an inspector visit the factory at that time, working hours are in order, since the notice board is correct, and provided the manager sends a notice to the inspector within 36 hours of the change of working hours as required by Section 36 (3) of the Act, there is no offence. The daily attendance register is seldom written up for the first hour or more, so that by 7 a.m., if an inspector has not called at the factory, the manager can safely change the piece of paper already posted up on the notice board, substituting it for one reading "Factory works to-day from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.": if an inspector visits the factory after 6 p.m., all that the manager has got to do is to send off a postcard within 36 hours of the change to the factory inspector and he is in order. The same tactics are adopted to dispense with the rest interval. A rest interval timed from 12 noon to 2 p.m. is evaded by a notice posted up reading: "Owing to engine breakdown between 10 a.m. and 12 noon, rest interval is changed from 12 a.m. to 2 p.m. to 10 to 12 a.m." If an inspector does not visit the factory until after 2 p.m. that day, the notice is taken down and workers are given about 10 minutes to take their meals once or twice during the day only.

From the above it is evident that it is not difficult for unscrupulous factory occupiers to work their labour 12 or 14 hours a day with little risk of being brought to book. I am of the opinion that sub-section (3) of Section 36 of the Indian Factories Act is defective and leaves a loophole which is taken advantage of by factory occupiers. If this sub-section were to require a factory occupier to give notice of the change of working hours before the change actually takes place, the abuse quoted above could be more effectively dealt with.

The abuse noted above is to a very great extent encouraged by the awarding of light punishments, such as a fine of Rs. 5, 10, or 20 in each case by the trying magistrates, some of whom up to this time have not realized the gravity of the offence of overworking labour.

56. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday or a substituted day, is observed as a complete holiday.

57. (i) So far as workers are concerned, they have welcomed the 60-hour week, since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

(ii) The introduction of the 60-hour week was at first resented by the factory owners and opposed strenuously, but, however, it has since been accepted and the factories that their output has not suffered to any great extent by the reduction in working hours.

58. The effect of the daily limit has proved wholesome, as it has shortened the hours of work of the operatives without materially affecting the output.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable, especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers in this province. Few factories have yet adopted the clocking in and out system, as a result a considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to and from the actual job; it is improbable that in a 10-hour day the average worker is on his job more than 8½ hours.

60. (i) (a) The break after putting in six hours' work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue. (b) The break after six hours' work is utilized chiefly as a rest. The workers do not generally take their meals at this time, their meal hour being earlier in the morning from 9 to 10 and again after their work in the evening.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

(iii) Hours of work at present in force are suitable during the hot months. Hours are frequently changed so that a long break is given during the heat of the day. Hours occasionally have to be curtailed during the extreme cold days as it is too cold to start work early in the morning.

(iv) Ample holidays are given or taken by workers apart from the weekly holidays, there are many public holidays which are mostly given to workers, either extra holidays or substituted for the weekly holidays.

61. (i) The day of rest is usually Sunday, except in the case of Muhammadan factories, which observe Friday as their day of rest. It is, however, possible to change the weekly rest day at any time by giving previous notice to the inspector, and this is done whenever the necessity arises. Public holidays are often substituted for Sundays.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

62. When the amended Factory Act came into force in 1922, it was necessary to grant exemption from regulations regarding working hours fairly freely, and up to this time exemptions are still granted occasionally; the tendency during the past years has been to grant exemptions sparingly and no serious objection has been raised to tightening up of working hours' conditions. When exemption to work more than 60 hours is granted, the overtime rule of payment of one and a quarter times the normal pay comes into force, and this has had the effect of reducing applications for exemption.

#### C.—Railways.

73. Railway workshops have a uniform 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week, after which overtime is paid.

74. Railway workshops work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

76. Rest interval and weekly holidays are observed like other factories.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

78. *Hours Worked per Week and per Day.*—In establishments other than registered factories, carpet manufacturing factories are the only concerns about which I have experience. At present, carpet factories in this province are not on the factory register, because they do not employ any motive power, and the attempt to apply to them some of the working hours' legislation has met with strenuous opposition.

80. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and most of them being boys of very tender age (between 9 and 15) I think control is very sadly needed in this behalf.

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

#### A.—Factories.

81. The curtailing of the hours of work and prohibiting women and children from certain employment has had a good effect; it is argued in some cases that restriction placed on the employment of women and children have tended to place them at a disadvantage in the labour market. There is no doubt that the wages earned by women are low but the restrictions placed by the amended Act are in my opinion justified.

82. The admission of infants into factories is discouraged as far as practicable; it is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers. In 1924 and 1926 I issued an order prohibiting infants from entering into cotton ginning rooms whilst ginning was in progress,

as the atmosphere was laden with dust. There were many protests against this order, and after two years I found the order could not be enforced without hardship to parents, who must lose their employment in factories if infants were not allowed in and the order had to be revoked.

83. The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men, except that the former cannot be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m.

84. The present law with regard to the employment of children is also suitable. Their hours of employment are the same as for women, except that their hours of work are not to exceed six hours a day.

85. I have seldom noticed the employment of children in two factories on the same day, but it is not improbable that many of them work at other occupations during the part of the day they are not employed in factories.

89. (i) Local government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as most of these factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 19 and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours.

(ii) The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regularize the hours of employment of women and children; it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present.

## XII. Wages.

96. (i) Wages have shown a steady rise during the past ten years, due to the increased cost of living. A statement showing average wages earned by skilled and unskilled labour for the past eight years is given in the local government's memorandum.

106. (i) Fines are inflicted on workers in many factories for offences such as spoiling of material and loss of time, but to what extent is not known.

(iii) In one or two well run mills it is known that fines are utilized towards the employees' provident fund, otherwise fines ordinarily go to the factory management.

(iv) Legislation to cope with this would be difficult, as the average worker would be unable to prove his case, the deduction would be made on pay day and probably the worker fined would be required to sign for full pay.

107. (ii) The periods elapsing before payment of wages varies from 10 to 20 days in the case of monthly paid workers and up to 15 days for piece workers. Daily casual workers get their dues at the end of the day's work.

(iii) The legislation to assure prompt payment of wages would certainly be a great boon to workers who by reason of their having to wait for several weeks before they receive their pay are usually in the hands of their food suppliers and are at a great disadvantage.

It is suggested that legislation be made making it an offence to keep a worker waiting more than 5 days for his previous month's wages.

(iv) Unclaimed wages generally lapse to the employers except in the case of bigger mills which pass them on to the relatives of the workers, if any.

108. (ii) The extent of indebtedness is difficult to define; there are instances where an employer has taken over the debts of a good worker in order to secure his services: this is not unusual in the case of skilled mechanics. The workers are often indebted to their food supplier, to give an instance I would quote the case of workers employed in the Banktेशwar Cotton Mills, Bhiwani, which was closed down in April, 1928, and the workers were dismissed. A petition was put forward for immediate payment of wages, as until the workers had made some settlement with the "bania" to whom they owed money for food, they were not allowed to leave for their homes.

110. (i) Leave is seldom taken at regular intervals other than festivals except by supervising staff. Departmental managers in well organized factories usually get one month's leave per year during the slack season. Labourers mostly take leave when they require it and that for a few days at a time, and since they are not seriously concerned whether they get back to their previous job or not, it is only a question of taking leave when an

employer owes the least amount of pay for work done. In seasonal factories, both supervising staff and labourers work when the season is on; hence the question of leave does not arise.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. The difference in law administered in British India and the Indian States has considerable effect on the administration of Factory Law, particularly near the borders where the two territories join. Factory owners in British India who purchase their raw material from the same markets as those of Indian States, are generally found complaining to the effect that it is unfair to apply working hours limit and other restrictions to them alone, while their neighbouring factories situated in Indian States at a distance of not more than four or five miles have got no such restrictions placed upon them; under the circumstances it becomes very difficult for them to compete with their neighbouring factories. It would not be out of place to mention here that several cotton ginning factories have in recent years removed their plants to the States territory for this very reason.

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the Rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to get to know what the posters really mean. The worker in a town factory has a slightly better knowledge of the Factory Law and by virtue of his being a little literate takes more interest in rules which govern his working conditions. We occasionally receive complaints from such workers that the factory in which they are employed is working illegally, a fact which shows that the worker is not altogether ignorant of Factory Law.

139. (i) With regard to the adequacy or otherwise of the inspection staff it is yet too early to say, until I have gained an experience for some time, of the actual working of the new scheme which comes into force on 1st April next. But as the subjects to be dealt with by the factory inspector are continuously increasing, I doubt if the proposed staff would be sufficient to cope with this ever increasing work.

At present, Government are considering to make rules whereby prospective factory builders must get plans of their factories approved before the buildings are erected. This, if brought into force, will place additional work on the inspector who will then have to undertake the examination of passing of plans for all new buildings and alterations in the existing buildings.

(ii) As far as possible, administration of Factory Law is uniform in all the provinces in India. The inspectors keep in touch with each other and frequently exchange views on subjects connected with the administration of the Factory Law.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of Factory Law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results: but in the latter case the difficulty is that adequate punishments are not awarded and unless the prosecutions are followed by adequate punishments it is difficult to achieve the objects of Factory Law. A clause providing for enhanced punishment in the case of a repetition of offence of a similar nature is most necessary and I would suggest that punishment for offences such as employing under-aged children and overworking women and children should be more severe than at present.

(iv) During the year 1928, 130 cases under the Indian Factories Act were instituted against the occupiers and managers of 41 factories. Of the total number of cases, 108 resulted in conviction, in 8 cases the accused were acquitted, 11 cases were withdrawn whilst 3 cases were pending trial at the end of the year 1928.

#### XVII.—Intelligence.

143. *Existing Statistics.*—(iii) *Degree of accuracy.*—The returns are fairly accurate with regard to numbers of operatives and hours of work, but statistics showing average wages earned are somewhat misleading. Wages differ in various parts of the province, also during certain periods of the year and amongst different types of workers.

##### *Note on Carpet Factories in Amritsar.*

The chief carpet making factories in Amritsar are as under:—

- (1) Devi Sahai Chamba Mal, inside Hall Gate;
- (2) Sh. Ghulam Hussain & Sons;
- (3) Ishar Das & Sons, Oriental Rug Manufacturers, Katra Ram Gharian.
- (4) Ishar Das & Sons, Oriental Rug Manufacturers, Sultanwind Gate.

Nos. (1) and (2) are amongst the biggest, employing from 80 to 120 boys. In addition to the above, there is one factory under the Indian Factories Act—namely the Oriental Carpet Manufacturing Co.—in this factory the carpets are washed, cleaned and packed; woollen blankets are also manufactured here. No carpets are actually made in this factory.

Carpet making factories are situated in long sheds open at one side for light: the sheds are in long lines, looms being so arranged that light can be obtained on every loom.

Usually four to eight boys are engaged on a loom according to the size of the carpet to be made, one weaving master calls the counts and the work proceeds under his instructions.

Hours of work are not regular, only during good natural light can work be done. Holidays are taken according to local festivals and pressure of work.

The weaving master is responsible for the child worker, engages him and pays him—the contract for the carpet being between the factory owner, who supplies wool, loom and accommodation, and the contractor, who provides the labour.

Boys probably between the ages of 7 to 15 are employed, no girls work in the factories.

Food is brought into the factory premises by some person especially told off for that purpose, and the workers break off for food at a convenient time.

All work is piece-work, and the weaving master arranges both time of work and payment for it.

An investigation into the conditions of work in carpet factories was made under Government instructions on 18th January, 1924, and since then references have been made by Government of India to the local government on the subject of legislation to control the work in these factories.

## Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES, NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

### *Labour in Factories in the North-West Frontier Province.*

According to the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in the North-West Frontier Province is 854, of which 834 are men and 20 women. Child labour in factories is conspicuous by its absence.

Of the total number 673 are employed in the Crown factories such as ordnance factories, electric generating stations, printing presses, water pumping stations, etc., 95 in cotton ginning and pressing factories and 86 in all other factories.

Of the total number 163 are employed on seasonal work such as cotton ginning, pressing and ice factories.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. The majority of workers in factories in the North-West Frontier Province are under military control, and are subject to military discipline.

The method adopted for the recruitment of labour by factories owned by private enterprise is frequently that of taking a man for a week or a month, during which period wages are not always paid. A worker in search of employment hears through his friends or relations or goes from factory to factory making enquiries—this applies chiefly to permanent and superior staff.

Unskilled and casual labour is readily obtainable from the surrounding villages.

### II.—Staff Organization.

11. Managing staff in the case of privately-owned factories consists mostly of the proprietors themselves or their sons or near relations, as the factories are not big enough to warrant the employment of well-paid and experienced managers.

13. In the Government factories the relations between the employer and the employed are cordial. In smaller privately-owned concerns difficulties occasionally occur on account of non-payment of wages.

**III.—Housing.**

16. (i) In the privately-owned factories the permanent staff is provided with quarters during the season the factory works.

(ii) Quarters are provided for the majority of operatives in the Crown factories.

**IV.—Health.**

23. Health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good. No case of an epidemic is reported to have occurred in any factory, nor is any case of an occupational disease brought to light.

24. (i) Medical facilities are not provided in the case of the privately-owned factories—workers and their families in these factories depend upon Government dispensaries, which treat them free of charge.

(ii) Government hospitals treat patients from factories free of charge.

25. (i) Medical facilities, where provided, are readily taken advantage of by the workers and their families.

26. (a) (i) Latrines are provided for workers in factories according to rules laid down in the North-West Frontier Province Factory Rules, except in such circumstances where the factories are open to the country on three sides.

(ii) There is an adequate provision for drinking water in factories. The water supplied to the workers is good and pure.

**VII.—Safety.**

43. Regulations with regard to workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act, and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety of the workers is posted up at the main entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of the workers. Apart from this every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the factory law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention.

44. Very few accidents are reported, and it is probable that few really occur.

Privately-owned factories are mostly seasonal, working not more than two to three months during the year, and no privately-owned factory is fitted with high speed or complicated machinery.

The machinery in the case of Government factories is extremely well guarded, and the workers in these factories are highly skilled; as a result few accidents occur.

46. Existing factory rules made under the Indian Factories Act cover safety first measures, such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly fitting clothes, prohibiting children from entering into certain dangerous parts of factories, etc., but no serious attempt has yet been made in the shape of a safety first campaign, namely, "exhibiting posters and calling upon workers to be careful."

49. (i) All factories are inspected once or twice annually, and factory regulations are enforced.

The necessity to overwork does not exist, and no difficulty is experienced in getting the rules observed.

Factory rules are regularly complied with in Government factories. Whenever an inspector suggests any alterations either in the working conditions of the factory or in the matter of the fixing of the safety devices, his orders are promptly complied with.

**IX.—Hours.****A.—Factories.**

55. Factory law permits 11 hours a day but not exceeding 60 hours a week, which is readily taken full advantage of by the privately-owned factories during the busy season. At other times these factories work for 10 hours a day from 2 to 3 days a week.

Government factories usually work not more than 48 hours a week at the uniform rate of 8 hours a day.

61. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

## XII.—Wages.

96. (i) *In industry.*—Wages of workers in factories for the past four years are given below. The average is much higher in the case of skilled workers in the province than in the Punjab owing to the majority of them being highly skilled, and frequently imported by the army authorities for special work :—

Classification of labour.	Average per Month.			
	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
<b>1. Skilled labour—</b>				
Engine driver ..	62 0 0	65 0 0	65 0 0	65 0 0
Fitter .. ..	82 0 0	80 0 0	80 0 0	80 0 0
Fireman .. ..	33 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0	35 0 0
Oilman .. ..	25 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0
Blacksmith ..	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0
Carpenter .. ..	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0	60 0 0
Mochi .. ..	45 0 0	46 0 0	46 0 0	46 0 0
Turner .. ..	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0
Moulder .. ..	120 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0
<b>2. Unskilled labour—</b>				
	Average per Day.			
Coolie (man) ..	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0
Coolie (woman) ..	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0

## XVII.—Administration.

138. The average workman in the case of privately-owned factories has little knowledge of factory legislation, although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of the workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an attempt to get to know what these posters really mean.

A worker in a Government factory has got a good knowledge of the factory law, and takes much interest in rules which govern his working conditions.

139. (i) In this province which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction the factory inspection staff consists of—(1) Full-time Inspector. The total number of registered factories in this province at present is 24. The present staff is adequate.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of factory law depends upon the frequency of inspections and the issue of instructions.

## XVIII.—Intelligence.

143. The statistics collected by this department are shown at the back of the annual reports. The reports are distributed and sold, and it is not possible to say to what extent they are made use of.

(ii) Statistics are supplied by the factory occupiers in response to circular letters issued annually by this department. The statistics when received are checked by office records where possible.

(iii) The returns supplied by the factories are fairly accurate.

## THE DIRECTOR OF INDUSTRIES, PUNJAB.

[A certain amount of the material contained in this memorandum has been incorporated in the Punjab Government's memorandum and is not reprinted here.]



### I.—Recruitment.

1. According to the Census Reports of 1921 the total number of persons employed in 763 industrial establishments in the province was 61,236, which is only about 25 per cent. of the total population of the Punjab (25,101,060). It is further clear from the figures given in this very Census Report that of 24,664 male and 542 female skilled employees the birth place of 17,491 males and 229 females was their district of employment; in the case of unskilled labourers of 21,042 males and 2,780 females, 11,130 males and 1,426 females were born in their district of employment. It will be evident from these figures that the greater proportion of the labour employed in the factories of the Punjab was then drawn from the local sources. It is believed that recent years do not show any marked change in this tendency.

It is very difficult to say as to whether the number of immigrants exceeds that of emigrants. The largest number of labourers attracted by the Punjab are those from the Rajputana Agency, the United Provinces, Kashmir and the North-West Frontier Province. An appreciable portion of the workers employed in factories other than the railway workshops, textile mills and a few other engineering works are drawn from the agricultural class of the province. They seek employment in these factories with a view to supplementing their income during the off-season when the land does not require their services. So far as skilled labour is concerned, we have in the past resorted to importing technical people like engineers, foremen and mistris, etc., from the United Provinces and even from Bombay and Calcutta, although this tendency has received a check on account of certain conditions which have been discussed hereafter. There is also, in fact, a considerable exodus of Punjabi skilled labour to Jamshedpur and other industrial centres in India.

Within the province itself there is a movement of the population to drift towards (a) the canal colonies of Montgomery and Lyallpur and (b) such business centres as Lahore, Amritsar, Ludhiana, Sialkot, etc. Movement towards Lahore and Amritsar can easily be explained by the concentration of the largest number of industrial establishments in these two districts. There is no doubt that a great part of the labour employed in Lahore and Amritsar is of a non-permanent character. It was noted by the district census officer of Amritsar in 1921 that of 5,000 labourers at Amritsar in the busy season not more than 500 were permanent labourers. Most of these labourers are drawn from the agricultural class. They frequently return to their villages at sowing and harvesting time or for ceremonial purposes. The labour employed in our factories cannot be described as an industrial proletariat whose only source of livelihood is work in factories. On account of the development of agriculture in recent years the movement of labour towards the canal areas in Lyallpur, Montgomery and Multan has considerably increased. It may however be noted that most of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories in these areas is seasonal. It should also be stated in this connection that so far as the unskilled labour is concerned it is so plentiful that on no occasion has any difficulty been experienced in obtaining it. With regard to skilled labour mention was made in the first paragraph that there was a gradual decrease in the import of this type of labour from other provinces. This is due to an appreciable extent to the growth of industrial and technical institutions in the Punjab which turn out qualified engineers, surveyors, draughtsmen, mechanics and fitters. It has also been noticed in areas where large scale industries have been firmly established for a number of years that the labour available in the surrounding villages has taken up factory work in preference to work in the field; the former being more remunerative than the latter. In these centres labour on account of the prevalence of industries has become so to say semi-skilled and also skilled in certain spheres of industrial activity. This tendency was observed when a labour strike broke out in the Dhariwal mills in 1927, and the mill authorities were able to keep their mill running by recruiting a sufficient number of semi-skilled labourers from the neighbouring villages.

2. The facts and figures given in the first paragraph clearly indicate that the villages surrounding the centre of an industry are the most important sources of the supply of labour. The tendency on the part of the workers to return to their villages at the end of the seasonal work is very strong. As a matter of fact, so far as unskilled labour is concerned it has been noticed that as soon as they can save sufficient money they generally take a holiday to their villages and return to work again when that money is spent. In the absence of any statistics it is impossible to gauge the extent and frequency of the return of this type of labour to factory work or to the field from the factory. It is, however, an established fact that the unskilled labourer goes away from his work as often as he likes. So far as permanent and skilled labour is concerned they remain from two to four weeks away from factory work in a year.

3. *Methods of recruitment.*—In the absence of highly organized industrial structure in the Punjab the existing methods of recruitment appear to be simple and effective from the employer's point of view ; but in the interest of labour, public employment agencies could usefully be started, with a view to offering suitable opportunities for employment to the unemployed workers.

4. The Punjab is predominantly a rural province, and the extent to which family life is disturbed by the employment of workers in industrial establishments in the province as a whole is very small. Figures have already been given in one of the preceding paragraphs to show that the majority of the labour generally finds employment in the district to which it belongs. It has also been noticed in one of the foregoing paragraphs that the labour thus employed in these factories returns to the land or to the home as frequently as occasion arises. In view of these facts it would appear that the family life of these labourers is not disturbed to any appreciable extent.

7. The problem of unemployment may be regarded as a mystery. There is obviously a certain amount of misunderstanding regarding the exact position of unemployment in the Punjab amongst the industrial workers. In western countries where occupations are properly classified and where workers belong to sub-groups of a specialized trade, it is easy to determine the extent of unemployment ; but in the Punjab, where an ordinary mistri may take a job wherever he gets one, regardless of his specialization, it is exceedingly difficult to determine the exact nature and extent of unemployment. It is, however, maintained by some authorities that unemployment to some extent does exist among the labouring classes, but such of it which does exist is purely voluntary. The Department of Industries has been in direct touch with the mechanical workers who are ordinarily known as second class and third class engineers. In so far as this class of worker is concerned, it may be stated that in many cases the workers do not find suitable employment. Unemployment among the skilled and better class workers is hardly noticeable. In this connection it may be pointed out that a committee was appointed by the Punjab Government in 1927 to report on the extent of unemployment in the Punjab. The committee were of the opinion that " there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes." Such unemployment as was reported was voluntary rather than actual. As regards the so-called unemployment among workers in cotton ginning factories, the committee were of the view that " as the cotton ginning season only lasts for four or five months it would appear to be more correct to say that the cotton ginning season is the off-season for their other employment." In fact, such labourers as are not in any way connected with agriculture (and this proportion is very small) easily find other employment on the termination of the ginning season in the building trade, with local grain dealers or as private servants. The magnitude of unemployment is, however, never too great to be a cause of anxiety to the State.

As regards the application of International Draft Conventions relating to unemployment it appears that the articles contained therein are indeed beneficial to the case of the working classes and may, therefore, be applied to the Punjab with certain modifications to suit the local conditions.

8. It is difficult to determine the average duration of employment in the absence of any reliable statistics. Cases have come to notice where workmen have stayed in a single factory for over 20 years. In a general way it may, however, be stated that the average duration of employment varies from four months to four years for the skilled labour, and that of the unskilled labour is from two to three months.

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. The managing staff in large scale industries is generally recruited from abroad. Most of the departmental managers in the Dhariwal Mills have been imported from England, and those of the Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, Attock Oil Refinery, Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wah, and The Oriental Carpet Manufacturers (India), Limited, Amritsar, are also imported from Europe. In less important industrial establishments, such as ginning factories and other miscellaneous concerns, the majority of the managing staff is recruited from the province itself. In the selection of managing staff in seasonal factories, no attention whatever is paid to the qualifications, education or training of the individual employed.

12. Subordinate supervising staff is invariably drawn from the province itself, and is to a certain extent supplied by the various industrial and technical institutions now operating in the province. In very few cases, people from outside the province have been engaged on the subordinate staff.

No facilities for training workmen are provided by the industrial establishments in the province. It may be stated in this connection that the gulf between the skilled and the unskilled worker is generally very wide. The former seldom, if ever, succeeds in attaining positions of skilled workers or supervisors.

### III.—Housing.

18. The amount of space allotted in workers' quarters provided by the factory owners is necessarily limited, owing to the high cost of land and buildings in industrial centres. Some of the larger industrial concerns do provide suitable accommodation for their clerical staff and workers. Details of this accommodation are given below :—

(a) *The Attock Oil Co., Ltd., Khaur.*—The accommodation is divided into the following classes—

Clerks Quarters : No. 1 Line, 6 quarters ; No. 2 Line, 8 quarters. Skilled Labour Quarters : No. 1 Line, 8 quarters ; No. 2 Line, 10 quarters. Coolies Lines, Nos. 1 and 2 each containing 20 quarters : Quarters consist of 1 room 12 ft. by 12 ft., 1 verandah, 12 ft. by 6 ft. ; there are 78 men in the 40 quarters. Coolies Line, No. 5, consists of 10 quarters ; 8 quarters have 1 room, 12 ft. by 9½ ft., 1 verandah, 9½ ft. by 8½ ft. ; 2 quarters have, in addition to above, 2 rooms, 7 ft. by 6 ft., 1 bath room, 4 ft. by 8 ft., 1 lavatory, 4 ft. by 8 ft.

There are 8 men in the 10 quarters of the grade junior clerks and mistries.

(b) *Punjab Portland Cement, Limited, Wah.*—Skilled workers, namely, turners, fitters, carpenters, blacksmiths and masons, of whom they do not carry a very large number, are housed by them in quarters situated near the works. As far as possible, each single man gets one room to himself, if married he gets double this amount of accommodation. Dimensions of rooms are as follows :—12 ft. 6 in. by 12 ft. 6 in., with a verandah and a compound wall and a kitchen.

(c) *The Punjab Pulp and Paper Mills, Jagadhri.*—The mills being new, the company have not yet built any quarters for the workers. They, however, propose to do so in the very near future. The quarters designed for workers are 10 ft. by 12 ft., with a kitchen, a small verandah and a compound, and each quarter is meant for one worker.

It will appear from the details given above, that the accommodation provided by the three or four largest industrial concerns in the Punjab is suitable both from the worker's point of view and from the health point of view. In the canal colony areas, space is allotted round the factory walls for workers who build kucha houses and huts for themselves and their families, which very much resemble the conditions prevalent in villages. The houses provided in Government factories are more spacious and more sanitary. The accommodation provided by private landlords is necessarily small, as the fundamental idea is to secure the maximum rent possible for the available space. The usual dimensions of rooms are 8 ft. by 10 ft., and it has been noticed that sometimes two or three people live together in one room.

19. The workers as a rule utilize the accommodation provided by the industrial concerns when it happens to be suitable. Only those workers whose families reside in the neighbouring villages go back to their homes after their day's work and do not make use of the accommodation provided by the employers.

20. The three largest industrial concerns referred to in a previous paragraph do not charge any rent, rates or taxes from their workers. No information is available regarding the rent, rates, etc., charged by the private landlords. It is, however, believed that the workers in the Punjab pay anything from one-half per cent. to 10 per cent. of the total wages earned during the month as rent on rooms rented by them. In so far as the Government factories or establishments are concerned, no rent is charged from the menials, but from the subordinate and clerical staff deduction of 10 per cent. of their salary is made as rent.

21. The problem of sub-letting in this province does not arise, as housing is not universally provided, and where it is provided the accommodation does not permit of sub-letting.

The problem of occupation of employers' houses by tenants and other employees has never presented itself in any troublesome form in this province. If the workers declare a prolonged strike and cause breaches of the peace, the management issue orders of eviction, as was the case in Dhariwal Mills' strike of 1928 ; but this is an extreme measure adopted only in cases of violence on the part of employees.

### IV.—Health.

23. The health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is impossible to state what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness. Factory records merely show the names of absentees without showing the cause of absence. No attempt has ever been made in the Punjab to collect figures of birth and death rates, etc., for workers employed in factories. From the reports issued by the Public Health Department it appears that the average death-rate in urban areas in the Punjab for the quinquennium ending 1926 was

32.59 per mille and the birth-rate about 42 per mille. Mortality among infants, the same report says, under one year of age was 193.64 per mille. I am of the opinion that these figures with very slight modifications can also be said to apply to the workers engaged in factories.

Well organized mills are mostly well ventilated and healthy to work in, but there is much room for improvement in smaller factories, especially those built in congested city areas. Little control is exercised at the present moment over the building of factories, with the result that most of the factories are badly designed and poorly ventilated; the owner being much more interested in cutting down costs than in creating an efficient and healthy work-room. So far as working conditions at home and at the factories are concerned, there is not much to choose between the two.

(iv) From the observations made of the conditions of living of workers it is clear that an average unskilled labourer spends about 60 per cent. of his earnings on food alone. Although quite an appreciable portion of the wages of a labourer is spent on his food it is to be admitted that the food is neither sufficient in quantity nor nutritious in quality. Mostly the dietary consists of cereals like millets and wheat, and chillies, onions and pulses. No scientific observations have ever been made to judge the effect of the dietary of an average worker on his industrial efficiency and longevity of life.

(v) The general physique of an average worker should be described as good, and as a matter of fact from a comparative study of the reports of the various provinces it may be said that the physique of the Punjab worker is much better than that of the worker in Bengal and other parts of India. The conditions of work prevailing in the ginning factories are, however, not conducive to the maintenance of good physique among women and children. The dust laden atmosphere in these factories and the long hours of working which the children are required to keep in spite of the regulations of the Indian Factories Act tell very adversely on the physique of these two types of workers.

(vi) The majority of male immigrants from other provinces come without their families. A large proportion of the labour employed in cotton ginning factories is female labour recruited from the adjoining villages. The husbands or fathers of these females scarcely, if ever, find employment in the factories side by side with their wives or daughters. The females, especially widows and destitutes, thus thrown in with strange people, often succumb to temptation and cause violation of family ties.

24. Medical facilities are provided only in the larger and well established factories. Excellent examples have been set by the Dhariwal Mills and the Punjab Portland Cement Works, Wah, in this behalf. A few factories have an arrangement whereby a doctor attends to the requirements of workers once or twice a week. In certain cases factory owners or a group of factory owners have entered into agreements with a doctor to attend to all accidents occurring in factories situated in one particular area. Government hospitals treat patients from factories free of charge. Among private agencies the only one that is known to this department is that of Sir Ganga Ram's Hospital, Lahore, which renders free medical facilities to the workers employed in factories.

25. It may be stated generally that the medical facilities wherever they are provided are fully utilized, but women, especially the expectant mothers, do not readily take advantage of such facilities, as the time honoured tradition prevents a woman from taking advice from a medical man.

31. A Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit was introduced by Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly on the 23rd September, 1924.

The Punjab Government did not favour the introduction of this Bill on the following grounds :—

"(1) Female labour is not essential to the industries of the Punjab and the number of women permanently employed is very small. The effect of the Bill would be that employers would dispense with female labour.

"(2) Women workers would be unwilling to submit to medical examination.

"(3) It would be difficult to prevent women who are absent from their regular employment and in receipt of benefits from obtaining other temporary employment elsewhere.

"(4) That the periods during which benefits are payable before and after confinement are necessarily long."

In view of these facts the Punjab Government asked that "should the measures be accepted by the Legislature this province may be excluded from its operation."

In view of the strong opposition to Mr. Joshi's bill in 1924, both from the employers, and the employed, there is no possibility of legislation being enacted in this province in the near future.

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

32 to 36. Welfare work is attempted, if at all, on a very small scale in this province. The comparative absence of welfare activities in the Punjab can easily be understood when it is realised that the number of large establishments in this province is very small. The success of welfare schemes depend largely upon a number of persons who can participate in them, the understanding of the principles underlying these schemes, the stability of labour and its general development, including education, etc. In some of the foregoing paragraphs of this note it has been shown that labour in the Punjab is unorganized, migratory in character, illiterate and attached primarily to the land to which they return very frequently. Welfare arrangements can only succeed when the industrial labour has no other occupation to fall back upon and must make the best of existing conditions. On the part of the employer the main question is that of financing the welfare activities. The majority of undertakings being small (and depending upon the vagaries of weather and markets) cannot afford to indulge in these activities. With the introduction of beneficial enactments, such as the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Trade Unions Act, Trade Disputes Act, etc., and the protection afforded to labour by these measures, it is possible that the industrial workers will take a serious interest in welfare work.

In the Punjab, welfare work is attempted in a few important mills. At the New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal playgrounds are provided by the mill authorities for the use of their operatives and are kept in good condition. An uplift club is also provided for the subordinate staff and a well run social club for the supervising staff. A hospital and a school both for boys and girls have also been started by this mill. The mill also runs a co-operative society for the benefit of the workers. In addition to this, two other factories, viz., the Punjab Portland Cement Works at Wah and the Bankteshwar Cotton Mills at Amritsar have also evinced some interest in this direction. The last named concerns provide recreation grounds and clubs for the benefit of their employees. As already stated in the first paragraph, it is not easy to carry out a very extensive programme of welfare work in this province for the simple reason that the majority of the labour employed is of a migratory character and is employed in factories which are seasonal. So far as the provision of educational facilities are concerned, Dhariwal Mills alone provide facilities for their workers.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act* (i) The Act came into force in July, 1924, and during the early years of its working the number of claims preferred and the compensation awarded to workers or their dependants represented a low figure which was due to:—

- (a) illiteracy and ignorance of the claimants ;
- (b) inability of the workers to secure legal assistance on account of poverty ;
- (c) inability of the claimants to produce direct evidence in the court in support of their claims as no fellow worker would appear in the court against his own employer for fear of losing his job, and
- (d) the lengthy and tedious procedure for the settlement of claims in the court.

The working classes are, however, now gradually acquiring familiarity with the provisions of the Act and have begun to take advantage of the privileges extended thereunder. This is evident from the fact that the number of cases coming under the Act is increasing every year.

(ii) The number of claims would still increase if adequate arrangements were made to assist the illiterate workmen in preferring their claims. It is hoped that as soon as trade unions come into active existence to safeguard the rights of labour, the ignorant workmen will find little or no difficulty in preferring their claims. The Factory Inspection Department has so far been rendering assistance in this direction, but as they have been doing this work for compassionate reasons, it has been suggested that the Inspector of Factories and the Public Prosecutor may be authorized to help the workers in preferring their claims for compensation.

(iii) The operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act in the Punjab does not appear to have effected appreciably the industries of the province. From a detailed examination of the accidents which are reported every year, it will be seen that a large number of accidents take place in the railway workshops of Moghaipura, and the quota contributed by private factories towards the amount of compensation paid every year to the injured workmen or the dependants of the deceased, really amounts to an insignificant figure. There is no doubt that in the early years of the operation of this Act the employers did not take very kindly to this Act, as they

feared that the enforcement of the provisions of this Act would result in an increase in the cost of production. These fears seem now to have more or less disappeared, as the insurance companies have come forward to insure workmen against all possible accidents, thus absolving factory owners from unexpected and serious liabilities.

(iv) As already pointed out in the preceding paragraphs, insurance companies have come forward to insure the workers against accidents, but in the absence of any reliable statistics it is not possible to say definitely as to what percentage of employers do make full use of the facilities afforded by these companies. In the opinion of this department the system of insuring workers against accidents with the insurance companies is beneficial from the workers' point of view. Once that the workers have been insured against all possible accidents the employer feels no hesitation in supporting the claims of the injured or the dependants of the deceased and helping them to get the full benefit of the provisions of the Act.

52. *Desirability of Extending Act to other Occupations.*—This subject has been under the consideration of the Government of India and of all the local Governments. It has been admitted in these discussions that it is always desirable to insure the worker against accidents. It is, however, feared that the difficulties attending the enforcement of this Act in unorganized industries would be so great and the administrative machinery organized to carry out this administration would be so expensive that it would not be possible in the near future to extend the Act to such occupations as have now been excluded from its scope of operation. In view of these remarks it does not appear necessary to discuss the possibility of providing against insolvency of employers whom it is proposed to bring within the operation of the Act by its extension to unorganized industries. As regards the possibility of providing against the insolvency of employers, it may be mentioned here that so far no case has been reported to this department in which the employer has failed to make payment on account of compensation for the accidents occurring in his factory. It would, however, appear desirable, both in the interests of employers and the workers, that a scheme or system of compulsory insurance of the employees against accidents should be introduced and that the employment of labour without insurance against accidents should be penalized.

53. (i) The present scale of compensation is considered to be inadequate. In the opinion of this department an increase of 20 to 25 per cent. would meet the requirements of the case. This increase should be made applicable to workmen of all grades. If the scale of compensation is increased, it will not only tend to provide the injured workmen or their dependants with more money for their subsistence but will also have a salutary effect on the employer in so far as the provision of safety measures in his factory or place of business is concerned.

(ii) Under the provisions of the Act an employer is only liable to pay compensation for personal injury to a workman by accident arising out of, and in the course of his employment, provided the injury results in the total or partial disablement of the workman for a period exceeding ten days. No compensation is payable if the injury results from an accident which is directly attributable to the negligence of the workman. It has lately been represented that the waiting period of ten days is too long and results in hardships, but as the proposed reduction is likely to involve a considerable increase in the number of possible claims and to encourage malingering in petty cases, a suggestion has been made that where the disablement has lasted for more than ten days the workman should be entitled to receive compensation from an earlier date, e.g., from the fourth day of disablement. This method which is known as "dating back" may be tried as an experimental measure.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, advisable even under the present circumstances, as this reduction will have a salutary effect on the idle habits of the illiterate worker who regards the wastage of time as a mere matter of routine.

### D.—Other Establishments.

78. In industrial establishments not coming under the Indian Factories Act the normal hours of work, i.e., as determined by custom or agreement are from sunrise to sunset—12 hours in summer and 10 hours in winter, with an interval of one hour or thereabouts at mid-day for meals. Sunday (or Friday in the case of establishments in which Muslim labour predominates) is usually observed as a holiday, and work is also suspended on festivals, etc., for religious observances. Permanent labour which is paid on monthly rates of wages, when required to work on holidays is paid extra wages, which are usually  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the average daily wage. In this connection

a reference may be made to the conditions prevailing in the carpet factories at Amritsar. Workers in these factories do put in very long hours, and most of them being boys between the ages of nine to fifteen, this subject has, of late, excited a good deal of public and official attention.

The practice of working overtime in such workshops, specially when there is a rush of work, is very common, and a labourer usually puts in twelve to fourteen hours of work. Overtime dues are paid for hours worked over and above the stipulated hours of work.

With the exception of the mid-day rest the labourer is supposed to be on call throughout the time he is within the premises of the workshop. The labourer, however, manages to steal an hour or so for smoking the inevitable hukka at intervals during the working hours.

79. In small workshops where daily wages are the rule seven days are worked per week; the worker enjoying such holidays as he chooses, but in larger establishments and those in which wages are paid monthly six days are worked per week. In case of rush of work labourers are employed on week-days and holidays on payment of extra wages, as stated above.

80. There can be no two opinions regarding the desirability of regulation of hours of work per day and days of work per week in such establishments, but the enforcing of such regulations, together with the opposition from the employers and the employees are factors which appear to be almost insurmountable. The rates of wages are still very low, and the labourer gladly welcomes overtime work by which he can add to his meagre income.

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

89. The local Government have made use of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act by applying it to cotton ginning and ice factories employing not less than 10 persons on any one day during the year. The extension of the Act in this behalf became necessary as many of these factories deliberately kept the number of their employees below 19, and so avoided coming within the purview of the Act, so as to be able to work longer hours and employ women and children at all hours. The Act could be usefully extended to all other factories in order to regulate the hours of employment of women and children—it would also cut down much unfair competition which exists at present.

92. As has already been pointed out in one of the previous paragraphs, it would be desirable to introduce some sort of regulations in such establishments as do not come within the purview of the Indian Factories Act, but under the present unorganized conditions of industry, specially in rural areas, the creation of an administrative machinery will be so expensive and the difficulties involved in the enforcement of legislation will be so great that the task of introducing any legislation seems well-nigh impossible.

#### XII.—Wages.

96 and 97. A statement showing the prevailing rates of wages in industrial establishments generally and in factories coming under the Indian Factories Act for the quinquenniums ending 1912-27 is given in the local Government's memorandum.

It will be noticed that wages of ordinary skilled labourers rose gradually between the quinquenniums ending 1917 and 1922, as compared with the quinquennium ending 1912, but a fall was registered at the wages census for the quinquennium ending 1927. The percentage increase or decrease in wages of the various classes of skilled workers in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan in the quinquennium ending 1927, as compared with 1922, is shown in a statement appended at the end of this note as Appendix VI.

It will be seen from this statement that with the exception of a rise in the wages of workers in iron and hardware industry in Lahore no appreciable increase in wages of any class of labour is noticeable. This is explained by the abnormal growth of foundries and workshops during this period. The extraordinary fall in the wages of workers in this industry in Amritsar is explained by the rapid introduction of aluminium ware which has thrown out a large number of workers from the brass and copperware industry and brought about the fall in wages. The fall in the wages of other industrial labourers is undoubtedly due to the fall in the cost of living since the last wages census.

The scale of wages paid in factories has shown an appreciable increase for all classes of labour as compared with 1914 and, roughly speaking, wages have nearly doubled during this period.

98. In the absence of any systematic survey of family budgets of the industrial labourers in the Punjab it is impossible to say with any degree of precision the percentage of wages which they save and send to their villages. However, a number of stray cases were examined, and the general conclusion arrived at was that the

unskilled daily wage-earner is never in a position to save any proportion of his earnings during the period of his employment in towns. Whatever little he saves during a week of work is spent on food on days in which he is unable to secure a job or in a few luxuries, like drinking and eating on ceremonial days and festivals. If, on the other hand, the period of employment is considerably longer the labourer contracts debts at heavy rates of interest and once he is in debt he remains so for the rest of his stay in towns.

In the case of monthly wage-earners, however, savings are effected if he continues in employment, is free from sickness, and is not called upon to incur any unexpected expenditure. A fair proportion of the savings of such labourers find their way into their villages.

99. *Payment in Kind and Allied Problems.*—It may safely be asserted that payments in kind to industrial labour have completely disappeared from the Punjab. Wages are now paid strictly in cash in all the factories.

101 and 103. It cannot be said for the Punjab that wages in any industry have been standardized. This is true even of casual unskilled labour. The scale of wages, moreover, varies from place to place and in accordance with the supply of and demand for labour for the purpose. As a rule, wages are fixed by direct negotiations between the employer and the employee. It is, however, a fact that wages for the same class of labour employed on the same day by an employer cannot vary, but it is not at all necessary that the same rate may prevail on the succeeding day, or even in the succeeding month. For instance, the wages in the building trade are appreciably lower during the rainy season on account of little demand for this class of labour than during dry months. Similarly, wages for the same class of labour in adjacent towns vary considerably with the supply of and demand for labour at the time of recruitment.

104. As a rule, the labour supply is not affected by ordinary changes in wages. The labourer accepts the prevalent wages with a feeling of resignation which is due to his poverty and lack of bargaining power. This is also in a measure due to the fact that as he has no fund to live upon in case he has to refuse a lower wage than usual the question of earning daily bread for himself and his dependants forces him to accept what is offered. Lack of combination among workers also helps the employers to dictate their own terms. With the growth of trade unions and feeling of fraternity among workers, labour will be in a position to assert its claims. The extent to which the labourers have tried to force wages up or fought against cutting down of wages in recent years are discussed in answer to Question XIV—Trade Combinations.

105. *Minimum Wages.*—Theoretically speaking, it would appear to be the duty of every community, both in its own interest and in the interest of workers, to evolve a machinery which should be available for the regulation of wages of any groups of workers who may be found from time to time to be unable owing to their lack of organization and their consequent individual isolation on the labour market to maintain an equitable standard of wages. In the Punjab specially, practically in all trades no arrangements exist for the effective regulation of wages by collective agreement or otherwise, and in some trades the wages are actually very low. In order to combat these conditions the creation of a wage-fixing machinery appears theoretically to be a very sound proposition, but it is a matter of great doubt whether in a country where trade unionism is just in its very infancy and where groups of workers are yet absolutely unaware of the virtues of co-operation and combinations, such a machinery can be successfully worked. The difficulties in classifying the industries and in creating an administrative agency, which will be in a position to enforce the law in this connection will be of such a serious nature that one cannot but say that time has not yet arrived in India for the establishment of such an intricate machinery.

106. Although the practice of inflicting fines on workmen employed in industrial establishments is common throughout the province, it is not resorted to by any concern of repute or standing, and it does not constitute an evil of such a nature as to necessitate legislation to abolish the procedure altogether or to restrict it within narrow limits. The Factory Inspector has reported that in the case of one or two well-run mills fines are utilized towards the employees' provident fund. The general practice, however, is that the fines go to the pockets of the factory management.

Fines are a well recognized method of inflicting punishments and the system has not led to any great abuse so far. In the opinion of this department the necessity for a statutory legislation in this direction has not yet arisen so far as this province is concerned, and it is also felt that the enforcement of this legislation would also be a very difficult affair. The average worker, on account of his illiteracy, would never be able to prove his case. The deduction would naturally be made on pay day, and probably the worker fined will be required to sign for full pay.



107. Wages to permanent workers in perennial factories are paid monthly, from the 5th to the 20th of the following month, so that the employer always has a certain amount of hold over the worker. Casual work in cotton ginning factories and coolie workers in many other factories are paid at the end of the day.

There is not the least doubt that legislation to assure prompt payment of wages to the workers would be a very welcome move. The security obtained by the employers by means of delayed payments at the sacrifice of labour's interest is on no account a legitimate one. On the other hand, such a practice demoralises the worker and results in considerable economic hardship to him. A legislation of this nature is all the more necessary for a province like the Punjab, where labour employed in most of the industries is illiterate, unorganized and hopelessly incompetent for securing a recognition of their rights and privileges.

So far as unclaimed wages are concerned, the usual practice is that they are credited into the account of the factory owner. It would undoubtedly appear to be desirable that such wages should always be utilized towards the welfare work of the workers in the factory.

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112. The Indian worker has been condemned as an inefficient instrument of production by many writers on economics of India. To justify this statement, they maintain that the main cause responsible for this inefficiency lies in his migratory tendencies, not only from place to place, but also from industry to industry, resulting as it must in lower standards of skill in industrial occupations. As wages in one industry show a tendency to rise he rushes to that industry leaving aside his previous occupation. The natural consequence is that the employer does not take much interest in the labour in the way of its training at his own expense. Among other causes of the inefficiency of the Indian labour may be mentioned his lack of education, insufficient quantity of food taken, lack of thrift, inaptitude to learn when opportunities come in his way, etc. It may, however, be stated that the efficiency of the Indian worker has been increasing steadily in recent years. This is attributable to several causes. The industrial educational institutions, which are now operating in the province, are responsible, to a very great extent, for the production of a better and more efficient class of worker. The growth of labour legislation has also succeeded in awakening consciousness in the industrial worker. The third factor which is responsible for the increase in the efficiency of the industrial worker is the central localization of a few industries. To illustrate this point, mention may be made of the sports goods making, steel trunk making, and cutlery industries of Sialkot, woollen industry in Dhariwal, and foundry industry in Batala. In all these places the industries mentioned against their names have more or less centralized themselves and have helped in the growth of the efficiency of the labour which is available in those localities. Another minor point which has also played some part in this direction is the gradual adoption by the factory owners of the system of division of labour. In the case of skilled and highly paid workers the diminution in the number of working hours per day has succeeded in making these classes of workers more efficient.

113 and 114. *Extent to which Comparisons are Affected by Migration of Workers, etc.*—It is almost impossible in the absence of any recorded observations to give an estimate of the comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers. No attempt has yet been made in the Punjab to measure the comparative efficiency in exact mathematical terms. Scientific comparisons of efficiency should necessarily be based on (a) physiological conditions, (b) the general education of the workers concerned, and (c) the conditions of working in factories, and (d) the types of machinery and appliances used. In the absence of data worked out by special investigations on the basis of these preliminary conditions no opinion whatever can be given regarding the comparative efficiency of Indian and foreign workers.

115. (i) The reduction in the number of working hours from 12 in 1911 to 10 in 1922, in the amended Factories Act, 1922, has been much resented by the factory owners. The general consensus of opinion among them is that the amount of output per operative has fallen by about 20 per cent., i.e., the amount which he produced by working for extra two hours. This view of the factory owners cannot be accepted as a conclusive proof of the reduction in efficiency or in output. As a matter of fact, those industrial concerns in India which have devoted scientific attention to this subject are of the view that no reduction in output has taken place.

(ii) & (iii) It cannot be gainsaid that production is affected by other working conditions, such as well ventilated workrooms, sufficient lighting arrangements, division of labour, sanitary conditions, etc., etc., all of which tend to lessen fatigue and improve the productive capacity of the worker. It cannot, however, be said of the majority of factories in the Punjab that these conditions do prevail in them. Under the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925, a provision has been made for the

submission of plans of such factories to the Director of Agriculture, Punjab, before they can be set up. The main idea underlying this provision is to judge the plan of the building from the point of view of the health of operatives. There cannot be two opinions regarding the fact that the factories set up since the enforcement of this legislation are far better than those set up prior to the promulgation of this law.

(iv), (viii) (ix) and (x) These subjects have been dealt with above. The effect on production of housing and dietary and the habit of taking intoxicants has never been systematically observed in the Punjab, and it is difficult to say to what extent production is affected on account of insufficient provisions for housing and dietary, etc.. In a general way it may be stated that insufficient nourishment and dismal hovels in which the labourer lives tell upon his health and consequently effect his productive capacity. The industrial fatigue consequent upon these facts coupled with the absence of welfare activities and provisions for recreation, the monotony of life, low wages and large number of dependants tell upon the constitution of the worker and thereby produce a feeling of depression which pervades his actions and affect production adversely.

(v), (vi) and (vii) The movements in wage levels and methods of remuneration have been discussed above. The increase in wages, according to most factory owners, has not resulted in increased efficiency or increased production.

116. The causes of the inefficiency of Indian labour have been discussed above in answer to questions Nos. 112-113. With a view to securing increase in efficiency of labour the first consideration must be directed towards checking the too frequent migration of labour from town to town and industry to industry. Increased efficiency is a result of continued employment in one particular industry over a fairly long period, and as such the worker must be able to realize that it does not pay in the long run to change his occupations too often.

Next in importance is the introduction of bonus and profit-sharing schemes which will induce the worker to exert to his utmost, as he will be a co-sharer with his employer in the profits of the industry.

The employers' outlook must also undergo a thorough change. They should endeavour to improve the housing conditions of labour and make better provisions for sanitation in workplaces. The standard of living must also be raised and the worker should be enlightened on such subjects as dietary, sanitation and thrift, etc. It must also be realized that in the long run a better standard of living depends entirely on better education and better wages.

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servant.

Under this section the only subject that concerns us is the types of contract commonly in use. In so far as this province is concerned, the only form of contract entered into between the employer and the employee is that of mutual understanding. There are, however, exceptions which provide for the advance payment of wages, and in these cases the employee undertakes to serve the master for a definite period, permitting the latter to deduct small monthly instalments from his wages.

#### XVII.—Administration.

136. Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all the Acts passed in connection with labour legislation.

146. *Future developments necessary.*—This province has no labour office. The entire work is done by a very small section of the Director of Industries office. Labour questions are now assuming greater public importance than ever and it is high time that we started collecting statistical data on such matters as are engaging the serious attention of the public.

#### APPENDIX VI.

The following statement shows the percentage of increase or decrease in the wages of certain classes of labourers in Lahore, Amritsar and Multan in 1927 as compared with 1922 :—

Class of labourers.	Percentage of increase or decrease.		
	Lahore.	Amritsar.	Multan.
Workers in iron and hardware .. .. .	- 25	- 17	- 25
Brass, copper and bell metal workers .. .. .	- 22	- 70	- 20
Carpenters .. .. .	—	- 17	- 9
Cotton weavers .. .. .	—	- 42	—
Masons and builders .. .. .	+ 3	- 11	- 9
Unskilled labourers .. .. .	—	+ 7	—

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### B.—Vital Statistics.

1. *General population.*—The birth-rate and death-rate of the Punjab during the past sixty years is shown in the attached chart (chart 1\*). It will be seen that the death-rate is extremely high. The mean death-rate during the past five years was 33 per mille or about 3 times the death-rate of England and Wales.

2. The infantile mortality rate is likewise extremely high, being approximately 200 per 1,000 births (as compared with 70 in England and Wales), and as this rate is not greatly affected by epidemics (except malaria), it indicates the existence, apart from epidemics, of a low grade of health. A favourable and hopeful feature is the high birth-rate, which is 40 per mille as compared with about 20 per mille in England and Wales. That the province should exhibit a remarkably high birth-rate, in spite of being constantly decimated by epidemics, indicates not only the high fertility, but also the great recuperative power, of its inhabitants.

Another striking feature of the vital statistics is the disparity between the sexes; the number of males exceed the number of females by over 2 millions in a total population of 20·5 millions. This feature is mainly attributable to the fact that the female death-rate under almost every head of mortality is invariably higher than the male death-rate.

3. Of special interest from the point of view of labour is the fact that the urban death-rate is relatively and absolutely high as compared with the rural death-rate, which is indicative of the fact that the artificial conditions associated with an urban environment are peculiarly prejudicial to health.

The death-rate under all heads of mortality, except malaria, which is essentially a disease of rural areas and the outskirts of towns, is appreciably higher in towns than in rural areas. The large towns are a fertile breeding ground of disease and the starting point of many epidemics in the countryside. The most striking feature of the urban death-rate is the high respiratory disease death-rate, which in 1928 was 5·79 per mille as compared with 2·18 per mille in rural areas. This feature is in large part due to the great prevalence of pulmonary tuberculosis in towns, which is the outcome of neglect of sanitation, intense congestion and bad housing, to which must be added such dysgenic habits and customs as child-marriage and the purdah.

The death-rate from dysentery and diarrhoea in towns is also about three times higher than it is in rural areas, and this fact is again attributable to the gravely insanitary conditions prevailing in urban areas.

4. *Labour.*—It is unfortunately impossible to quote any statistics bearing specially upon the health conditions of the labouring classes, and it is only possible to state, in this regard, that, as for the most part the death-rate increases *pari passu* with a decline of social status, and as labour is almost solely drawn from the poorer classes, the remarks made and the conclusions drawn in respect of the general population apply with special force to the hewers of wood and the drawers of water.

5. *Summary.*—This brief review of the vital statistics permits of the following conclusions:—

The Punjab is inhabited by a vigorous and prolific people, whose "natural increase" is held in check by the high mortality occasioned by disease and pestilence. The low grade of health is indicated by the high death-rate, apart from epidemics, the high infantile mortality rate and the high female death-rate, all of which are characteristic of a society in an early phase of social, economic and cultural development. The relatively high insalubrity of towns, where, owing to the congestion of the population, the need of sanitary safeguards is infinitely greater than in villages, is a reflection of the low standard of municipal and domestic hygiene.

### C.—Public Health Administration.

These local bodies were left largely to themselves, and it was hoped that something in the nature of local self-government would emerge. A sanitary board was also created and given funds with which to assist local bodies to provide themselves with sanitary amenities, and large grants were given for water supply and drainage schemes to the more important towns. When the schemes broke down or required extension, further assistance was given from provincial sources. Sometimes the grants were not used at all or they were used for an unauthorized purpose. This tentative experiment in local self-government failed to awaken any sense of civic responsibility and the inspection reports of the sanitary commissioner of 20 to 30 years ago, which might, with only a few modifications, have been written yesterday, show that no appreciable improvement and sometimes actual deterioration, has taken place in the arrangements made by local bodies for safeguarding the public

\* Not printed.

health. The standard of health remained very much what it was before. The world-wide awakening of interest in matters affecting health, which in this province dates from the inception of the reforms in 1920, gave a new impetus to local self-government and a new hope to the public health expert. A provincial health service was created in 1923, and a special staff, albeit small, was provided for combating epidemics. An insistent demand for sanitary reforms asserted itself and an optimistic feeling was engendered that great and rapid progress would be made. Many new boards and committees were created to deal with health problems, the sanitary board, by a process of fission, became the Urban Sanitary Board and the Rural Sanitary and Improvement Board, a Rural Community Board came into being, whilst the Legislature appointed a Standing Committee on Public Health.

In the mofussil, district community councils were formed, whose functions partially overlapped and partially supplemented those discharged by district boards, whilst in some districts, officials sought to create a new heaven and a new earth in the countryside by novel and not entirely orthodox (from the financial point of view) expedients.

8. The old-time administrator had behind him great traditions and wide administrative experience; their guiding hand has, however, been in large measure removed, and it is therefore all the more necessary that the Director of Public Health should be placed in a position to bring his expert knowledge to bear upon the problems, more especially in connection with labour, which demand his attention. He is attached to the Ministry of Local Self-Government, but he is not a member of that ministry.

But if he is usually consulted by the Ministry of Local Self-Government on technical questions, it is only rarely that other ministries or departments, almost all of whom have the health and welfare of labour under their care, feel the necessity of doing so. In connection with factory labour, which comes under the Director of Industries, he should be in touch with the Ministry of Education; labour problems, in connection with engineering works require that he should be in touch with the Ministry of Agriculture. Criminal Tribes Settlements are administered by the Home Department who should consult him in regard to the important question of the health of these unfortunates, and last but not least, town-planning, in so far as it affects the many new towns—the towns of the future—now springing up in the Canal Colonies requires that he should be in close contact with the Revenue Department.

There is no Ministry of Labour, and, as will be shown shortly, the necessity of safeguarding the care and well-being of labour, of which Government is the chief employer, is as yet scarcely envisaged, and, in consequence, such action as has been taken, almost solely within the past few years, is due to the initiative of the Director of Public Health and his insistence on the adoption of sanitary safeguards.

Such action, however, places the Director of Public Health in an entirely false position. It should not be necessary for him to have to incur the odium of intruding his unsought and therefore unwelcome views upon other departments or ministries. Progress should not depend upon the view to which the Director of Public Health for the time being, may happen to take of his duties and responsibilities, he should not be looked upon as an officious or obstructive person, because he desires to satisfy himself that the plans of new towns are in accord with modern sanitary requirements. Obviously, if all departments of Government who are employers of labour or are engaged in schemes of development, realized their responsibilities in respect of the health and welfare of labour, they would obtain expert advice upon all such matters.

It is now proposed to state the action taken by the Director of Public Health to discharge his task of endeavouring to provide for the needs of labour and thereafter an attempt will be made to indicate the manner in which the administrative machine might be adjusted to modern conditions.

#### *D. Health Conditions affecting Labour.*

9. It is first necessary to consider the precise definition attaching to the term "labour." It obviously includes mill and factory labour and those engaged in industrial pursuits. It likewise includes certain classes of railway employees, and especially those employed temporarily on new construction. It also includes those engaged in the construction of other large engineering projects. It must surely include the unorganized labour by means of which building operations are carried out in towns and cities. It may even be said that the casual migrant labour which plays a large part in agricultural operations, especially at harvest time, comes within the scope of the definition. It is proper too to include the labour, in this case forced labour, employed in the factories attached to jails and Criminal Tribes Settlements.

On a broad view, therefore, labour comprises a large section of the poorer classes and it is just because these classes have little or no political influence—although they may be exploited by those who have—that their welfare should be a matter of close concern of Government. Another reason for adopting this view, is the fact that Government is perhaps the largest employer of labour and upon Government therefore rests in a peculiar degree, on moral, economic and political grounds, the responsibility of safeguarding the health of labour.

It is not suggested for one moment that this duty has been ignored, but, in the opinion of the writer, it is correct to state the needs of labour have not yet been fully envisaged and that, in consequence, adequate provision has not as yet been made to meet them.

#### *I.—Large Engineering Projects.*

10. It has not in the past been the practice of the Public Works Department to consult the Director of Public Health in regard to the sanitary arrangements to be made for its employees on engineering works, nor can it be said that provision has ever been made in the estimates for the public health, as opposed to the medical requirements, of the labour force. It thus happened that the Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme, which is now being executed in Mandi State by the Punjab Government at a cost of over Rs. 4 crores, was started without any steps being taken to obtain expert advice in regard to the measures necessary to safeguard the health of the labour force.

As soon as the Director of Public Health came to know of the scheme, he at once (1926) addressed the Ministry of Agriculture and pointed out that, as the area was highly insalubrious, the concentration of a large labour force at Jogindernagar would almost certainly, unless elaborate precautions were taken, be followed by serious outbreaks of disease and the decimation of the labour force.

As this warning did not appear to have been effective, the Director of Public Health proceeded to Jogindernagar to make a personal investigation and to draw up a detailed medical and sanitary scheme for presentation to the authorities concerned. This investigation revealed the fact that certain departmental arrangements had been made to deal with the welfare of the workmen. A layman belonging to the Y.M.C.A. had, in fact, been appointed under the title of a "Welfare Officer" as "an Estate Agent, Health Officer, Club Secretary, School Master, Librarian, Lecturer and Canteen Agent."

The scheme drawn up as a result of this visit at first met with opposition, but it was eventually accepted and brought into operation. The arrangements included a chlorinated water-supply and effective arrangements for the collection, removal and disposal of refuse and rubbish. The health and welfare of the labour force was placed under close observation by the Medical Officer of Health, their food supply was inspected and all recruits were vaccinated and periodically inoculated against cholera. In order to meet the needs of the wives and families of the labour force an Infant welfare centre was opened and placed in charge of a qualified health visitor and midwife. Both cholera and scurvy appeared amongst the labour force in the summer of 1928, and it is recognized on all hands that, but for the measures adopted in the previous year, the consequences would have been serious. This is the first occasion upon which adequate provision has been made in the Punjab for safeguarding the health and welfare of the labour force employed on a large engineering work, and it may be assumed that, the benefit having been demonstrated, similar undertakings will in future be treated in a similar fashion. The salary of the Medical Officer of Health was on this occasion met by the Public Health Department, whilst the Lady Cheimsford League provided the funds in connection with the infant welfare centre. The Public Health Department is, however, pressing for the recognition of the principle that in future the medical and sanitary arrangements made in connection with large engineering works shall be drawn up before the inception of the scheme, and that the cost thereof shall be included in the estimate of the project.

11. One other point remains to be mentioned, and as it is of general application, it requires detailed consideration. The investigation carried out in February, 1926, brought to notice the serious hardships and privations experienced by the labour force arising out of their mode of recruitment.

The labour employed on engineering projects is engaged by contractors, and in consequence there is no direct contact between the officials and the labour force. The employer in this case, Government, pays the contractor, who in turn pays the labour force. This system is open to serious objection for several reasons. In the first place, the employer is apt to take the view that, as the labourers are in no sense employees of Government, he has no responsibility for their health and welfare ;

but those who are responsible for the concentration of large bodies of men cannot in this manner discharge their moral responsibility for the well-being of those who "deliver the goods". Secondly, although the contractors are supposed to be men of substance, they turn out sometimes to be rogues, and instances are not uncommon of contractors decamping with the pay of their men.

Thirdly, the men are usually in debt to the contractor for advances (no doubt loans bearing interest) made to the workmen, and, fourthly, it is the common practice for the contractor to keep his men in arrears of pay in order to guard against desertion. Finally, the contractor often runs the bunnia's shop of the labour camp and, unless prices are controlled and the food-stuffs inspected, the scales are, indeed, heavily weighted against the poor and ignorant workman. Actual instances of the pernicious results of this system, which is only too likely to be exploited by political agitators, came to notice both amongst the labour force employed on the Kangra Valley Railway and at Jogindernagar. In the former case, loud and bitter complaints were made to the Deputy Commissioner by a deputation of workmen that they were starving owing to their pay being many months in arrears. In another case the contractor had absconded without paying his men, whilst at Jogindernagar, labourers (Tibetans) were encountered, some of whom, owing to their inability to obtain their pay for five months, were suffering from scurvy and in a state bordering on starvation.

I am of opinion on humanitarian and political grounds, that this system should, if possible, be abolished. The main objection to doing so, I gather, is that it would mean the employment of a considerable number of additional clerks, but where vast projects costing crores of rupees are concerned, the cost of employing a few additional clerks is trivial. It is furthermore clear that a regularly paid, properly housed and adequately fed labour force, is a contented labour force which will not desert, whilst its increased efficiency and freedom from disease will go a long way to compensate for the additional capital expenditure entailed by the direct recruitment of labour. These views, when represented in 1927, were unfavourably received, but I am glad to say, although it was not found possible to change the system, that the attention drawn to the evil and the watch kept over the labour force by the medical officers of health concerned was responsible for the removal, in very large measure, of the evils to which reference has been made. So much so is this the case that, provided the health and welfare of the labour force is properly supervised by a medical officer of health, directly responsible to the director of public health, the contractor system need not necessarily be the cause, which in other circumstances it is only too likely to be, of grave hardships to labour.

The contractor system is open to less objection in the case of engineering projects conducted in or near large towns, where, as elsewhere, engineering works are carried out, in accordance with Government rules, through the agency of contractors. The same remarks apply to the sanitary works (contribution works) carried out by Government agency on behalf of local bodies.

In both cases, the labour force finds accommodation either in the town or, if the works are situated some distance from the town, the skilled labour is provided with tents, and the labourers with temporary brick huts—the bricks being those provided for the project—roofed with thatch or sheets of galvanized iron. The water-supply usually consists of the water (unpurified) provided in connection with the project, whilst temporary latrines are dug in the vicinity. These somewhat primitive arrangements cannot be regarded as entirely satisfactory and steps will be taken in future to ensure, through the local medical officer of health, that more adequate precautions are adopted.

## II.—Railway Construction.

12. The provision made by the railway authorities for the labour force engaged on new construction was precisely similar to that already described in the case of the Mandi Hydro-Electric project. Under long-existing but forgotten orders the railway administration is required to inform the Director of Public Health when new lines are to be constructed and of the arrangements made for safeguarding the health of the labour force. When the construction of the Kangra Valley Railway was taken in hand in 1926, these orders were forgotten and little or no provision was made for safeguarding the health of the labour force until the Director of Public Health took up the matter with the railway authorities. Here again, he followed up his advice by carrying out a local investigation and thereafter submitted to the railway authorities—although it was not his duty to do so—a complete sanitary scheme on the lines of that employed at Jogindernagar, which the railway authorities eventually agreed to adopt and to put into operation.

An outbreak of cholera occurred amongst the labour force in April, 1928, and there can be little doubt that if it had not been for the protected water supply and for the efficient sanitary arrangements, including the inoculation of the whole force, many lives would have been lost.

The same contractor system was in vogue and the same efforts were made—with success—to mitigate its worst features. As the work progressed, the labour camps, huts and shelters were constantly moved, but there are advantages in a good climate of living in the open air and, as a result of the care bestowed upon the welfare and health of the men by the Medical Officer of Health, almost all avoidable hardships were eliminated.

The railway authorities now possess their own medical and sanitary staff and there is reason to believe that the procedure adopted with success—as is freely admitted by every railway official employed on the Kangra Valley Railway—will become the standard practice in future.

### III.—Factories.

13. The inspection of factories is carried out under powers conferred by the Indian Factories Act, 1911. Medical examinations are carried out by certifying surgeons, and with this aspect of the work the Director of Public Health is not concerned. Until recently no provision existed for any effective inspection of the sanitary condition of the factories or of the health of the employees. In 1928, on the representation of the Director of Public Health, he and the Assistant Directors of Public Health were appointed additional inspectors of factories, but his proposal that District Medical Officers of Health should also be appointed additional inspectors in respect of their several districts was not approved.

Only a few inspections have so far been carried out, the most important being the inspection of the Bakteshwar Cotton Mills, which the Director of Public Health inspected in company with the Inspector of Factories, with a view to the study of the question of humidification and to the drawing up of regulations which have since been promulgated. There are only two cotton mills in the Punjab—and this question is therefore not of any local importance. Something has been done, but much more remains to be done to improve the conditions under which work is carried out in factories and to provide sanitary conveniences and a few amenities for the workers.

Even more scope for useful action exists in connection with ensuring that new factories are built in accordance with modern hygienic principles. I have suggested to the Director of Industries that, before he sanctions the erection of any new factories, the plans should be submitted to the Director of Public Health for scrutiny, but so far no plans have been submitted.

### E.—A Public Health Policy for India.

16. So far as is known, no attempt has been made to draw up a public health policy for this, or indeed for any other, province of India. Public health being already a "transferred" subject the Indian Statutory Commission did not apparently consider this subject in any detail, and although the Director of Public Health, along with other heads of "transferred" departments, appeared for a few moments before the Commission during its first visit to India, the Punjab Government did not approve of my request to be allowed to submit a memorandum on the subject to the Commission. But public health constitutes the very bone and marrow of local self-government—and it seems to be a matter of vast importance to the future welfare of India, and more especially to "the silent millions" from which labour is mainly drawn, that cognizance should be taken of the arrangements for promoting their health and welfare in framing the new constitution.

It may be that the Royal Commission on Labour will rectify this omission—and it is clear, for reasons already stated, that its wide terms of reference permit it to act, if so inclined, as a Royal Commission on Public Health as well as on Labour.

In the first place, it is taken for granted that the future health and welfare of this country, whatever the nature of the constitution, will continue to be an important preoccupation of central and local administrations. Secondly, it is assumed that the insufficiency of the existing arrangement for promoting the well-being of the community is admitted. Finally, it is assumed that this public health policy must be attuned to the spirit of the times in respect of local self-government.

17. The first and perhaps the most important matter requiring consideration has reference to the manner in which the administrative machine can be adjusted so as to be capable of meeting more adequately the new functions which are now demanded of it. The views put forward in this memorandum point to the conclusion that the time has arrived when a Ministry of Health should be created. Then, and then only, will it be possible to ensure that important matters affecting public health, whether affecting departments of Government or local bodies, will be adequately dealt with. It is obvious that a Ministry of Health without technical experts would be an absurdity—and it is therefore necessary that the Ministry should include, in addition to its

administrative Secretaries and Under-Secretaries, at least one medical and public health expert and one public health engineer. A Ministry, so constituted would be in a position to examine public health problems from every aspect and its considered views on important questions of policy, of which the Minister would be the mouth-piece, would be placed before Government by the Minister and, so far as accepted, would be promulgated to the public as the official policy of Government and thereafter constitute the basis of administrative action.

On settled questions of policy, decisions and orders would issue under the authority of the Ministry. And in order that the health problems, more especially those affecting labour, of which Government is at present the chief employer, should be given due consideration, all departments of Government should be required to submit schemes having public health implications to the Ministry. The Ministry would thus consider the plans in connection with all engineering projects, in so far as their public health aspect is concerned and the arrangements for safeguarding the health and welfare of the labour force. Questions affecting town development and the creation of new towns, plans in connection with the erection of new factories, government institutions (provincial works), Criminal Tribes Settlements and the sanitary projects of local bodies (contribution works) would likewise be examined by the Ministry in so far as their public health aspect was concerned. The Ministry would be responsible for drawing up and revising from time to time all standard plans in respect of buildings and it would also be responsible for drawing up and revising the model bye-laws framed under the Municipal and other Acts.

It is perhaps not possible at once to staff the Ministry with whole-time experts, but even now, a beginning could be made by appointing the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health and Superintending Engineer, Public Health, as the medical, public health and engineering members of the Ministry. They would thus act for some time to come both as heads of their respective departments and as technical advisers of the Ministry, but, as local self-government progresses, their functions as heads of departments will steadily dwindle. The next step would be the creation of a Board of Public Health upon which would serve, in addition to, representatives of the Ministry, a number of non-official members of the Legislative Council. This Board, upon which the non-official element should be predominant, would review the proposals submitted to it by the Ministry in respect of all public health matters affecting local bodies and the general population. It would in fact discharge the duties now performed in respect of urban areas by the Urban Sanitary Board, and it would replace both this Board and the Rural Sanitary and Improvement Board. As the non-official members would be drawn solely from the Legislative Council, these members would also be in a position to discharge their duties as the Standing Committee of the Legislative Council on Public Health.

18. In its relationship with local bodies, who it is assumed will be given greater powers of local self-government, the Ministry would act as guide and mentor, but with the gradual withdrawal of direct provincial control and the substitution of local for provincial establishments, the security of tenure of the public health staff will have to be carefully safeguarded. In addition to the provision of adequate safeguards the Ministry must be given the powers, now enjoyed by the Ministry of Health in Great Britain, of ensuring that grants-in-aid from provincial sources are properly expended and that public health measures are carried out on approved lines. The membership of local bodies would also need to be increased, so as to include women—and at least one non-official medical man, and, in the case of District Boards, a civil official, together with a medical and public health officer and the district engineer, should act as its executive.

In this scheme there is no room for a Rural Community Board, and District Community Councils, for it is difficult to see in what respect "the co-ordination of the activities of the different departments" cannot be fully brought about through the agency of existing authorities, viz., the Deputy Commissioner and the District Board.

19. In this manner it is thought that efficient administration and technical supervision can be combined, without loss of efficiency, with the grant of additional powers to local bodies. It remains to consider the manner in which a requisite measure of co-ordination can be brought about with similar organizations in other provinces and with the Government of India. Up to date, for reasons which need not be particularized, each province has gone its own way irrespective of its neighbours and of its overlord, the Government of India, but the times have changed, and it is clear that public health problems cannot be regarded solely from the parochial and even the provincial point of view.

The steps taken by a municipal committee to suppress an epidemic of cholera is no longer purely a matter of local concern. Epidemics take no account of district or even provincial boundaries. India is the great breeding ground of disease and the source of the world-wide spread of infection; what happens in one province is therefore of vital interest not only to neighbouring provinces, but also to the whole



world. The League of Nations no less than the public opinion of the world looks to the Government of India to put its sanitary house in order and to pursue an enlightened public health policy. Apart from these considerations, the need of a co-ordinating authority is experienced by provincial Governments. Many legal enactments, if they are to be effective, or if unnecessary hardships are to be avoided, must be based upon All-India legislation, supplemented and implemented by power to frame local regulations. Such an Act is the Vaccination Act, which makes provision for local regulations to facilitate its application. There is a great need for similar legislation in other matters; a new law, for example, for controlling epidemic diseases (in place of the existing Act which is now out of date) is wanted and a law for the prevention of adulteration of food and drugs is required, and manifestly legislation by the Government of India is preferable to local enactments. Then again, without a certain measure of general supervision, the Government of India is scarcely in a position, with propriety, to accept responsibility before the world for the state of the public health of India as a whole and of its component provinces. From the provincial point of view there are occasions when the advice of the Government of India on technical problems would be of the greatest value to provincial Governments, whilst it is the proper authority by means of which, as in the remote past, necessary co-ordination and co-operation between provincial public health services could be preserved. Undue interference with the actions of the local Government would undoubtedly be resented, but expert advice on difficult problems based upon the larger experience of an All-India authority, would be valuable and should be welcomed. It is clearly necessary, too, that in respect of medical education and medical research close co-operation should exist between the central and provincial Governments, whilst there are many public health questions, such as the form and "content" of provincial public health reports, medical education, standards of health, the "observational periods" of disease, definition of stillbirths, etc., in which a uniform practice should prevail throughout India, and this can only be achieved by the co-ordinating authority of the Government of India. Whatever, therefore may be decided in the political sphere, absolute provincial autonomy in respect of health problems can only be attained at the price of inefficiency, and it may confidently be predicted that if this policy is adopted the time will come, perhaps not until after the occurrence of some disaster, when it will have to be revised.

*Note regarding Food and Diet in the Punjab,*  
by Lieut.-Colonel C. A. Gill, D.P.H., I.M.S.

The Punjabi is renowned throughout India for his energy and physique, and these characteristics, in association with high fecundity, have given rise to the conclusion that there can be nothing seriously amiss with the diet of the Punjabi.

Colonel M. C. Carrison has indeed shown that the staple food grains grown in this province are more nourishing—on account of their high vitamin content—than those of the tropical part of India. Another feature of the Punjab is complete absence of "deficiency diseases," such as beri-beri and pellagra and the rarity of rickets and scurvy.

It does not, however, follow from this premise that the Punjabi's diet is adequate in quantity and quality. The Punjab enjoys during about half the year a remarkably stimulating climate and it is possible that the Punjabi is what he is, not because of, but in spite of, his diet.

It is certain at any rate that owing to the variable character of the monsoon livelihood is extremely precarious in many parts of the province—and a few bad monsoons in succession invariably give rise to economic stress and even to famine in districts not protected by canal irrigation.

Conditions bordering on famine do readily occur and economic stress now prevails in the south of the province, where famine relief works were recently opened. In other districts, more especially Kangra, owing to the poverty of the soil, economic stress is almost a normal feature and is reflected in the relatively low birth-rate, high death-rate and the poor physique of the inhabitants. So much so is this the case that the military authorities find it difficult to obtain recruits from this recruiting ground of one branch of the Indian Army.

It is a curious fact that, in spite of precarious livelihood, the rural population display a certain unwillingness to undertake manual labour, as the result of which difficulty is experienced in obtaining unskilled labour for carrying out large engineering projects, which are in consequence largely executed with the aid of the Pathans, Afghans, Kashmiris, Tibetans and others, who visit the Punjab during the cold weather for this purpose.

The rural population is, however, more readily attracted to the towns, in which, as temporary residents, they constitute the bulk of the casual labour employed in mills, factories and other industrial enterprises, whilst many seek employment in menial capacities as messengers, servants, grooms and orderlies. It is with this class of the population—the poorer section of the urban population—that this note is mainly concerned. Speaking generally, although no statistics can be quoted in support of the statement, these emigrants exhibit a poor grade of health and a low standard of efficiency; and, as will be shown, their earnings do not permit them to obtain a physiologically adequate diet.

To what extent their inefficiency is attributable to their low pay cannot be precisely stated, but it is clear that it is not possible to expect high efficiency from underfed persons. The position is, in fact, one of stalemate; the employee complains that he is underpaid, whilst the employer retorts that he is paid what he is worth in accordance with the law of supply and demand. We thus have everywhere, in private houses, offices, mills, factories, railways, etc., excessively large establishments of relatively inefficient and low-paid employees.

But this is not all. The more or less casual labourer is drawn from the countryside, but his wages are so small that he cannot support more than himself on his pay, and the result is the family remains in his village and the home is broken up. This is the case with many menials employed in Government offices in Lahore, who are in a large measure recruited from Kangra and neighbouring districts. Their pay varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 16-8 including Re. 1 as a Lahore allowance. They state that their diet costs about 6 annas per diem and that ordinarily they cannot afford to purchase milk, sugar or ghi. Their diet, they state, is normally as given below, the relatively high cost of atta as compared with prisoners' and soldiers' (vide Table I and II) being due to the fact that it is purchased in small quantities at retail rates:—

Atta (wheat flour) .. .. .	20 ounces	A.p.
Pulses .. .. .	4 ..	2 6
Vegetables, condiments, fuel ..	8 ..	2 -
		—
		6 0
		—

This diet is not deficient in necessary food factors, but it is unbalanced and defective, more especially in respect of fats and carbo-hydrates. The food value in calories is approximately 2,347, as compared with the Indian Army 3,470 and prisoners in jail 2,847 (vide Tables I and II).

On the other hand, their work is not exacting and they are provided with uniforms and free quarters. At the end of 30 years and on attaining the age of 60 years they earn a pension of Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 p.m., according to the class of the office, and they enjoy a few perquisites. They cannot, however, afford to bring their families to Lahore, nor can they save anything or provide for their families in case of sickness or death.

Their lot is therefore not a happy one, but it is superior to that of the manual labourer on a daily wage of 12 annas per diem, who is often at the mercy of contractors or middlemen. The diet of the latter is not known, but it does probably differ greatly from that of menials on Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per mensem. This diet compares unfavourably with that of prisoners in jails (Table I) and of the Indian Army (Table II), whose dietary has been the subject of official consideration and control.

It will be seen that in the case of the army and the jails the daily cost of the official dietary is 5.25 annas and 2.25 annas respectively. The jail figures, however, do not include the cost of vegetables, which are grown in the jail garden; moreover, the foodstuffs both for the army and the jails are bought at wholesale rates at the most favourable state of the market. We may safely double the figures in the case of the retail purchaser and surmise that the cost of the diet of an average coolie drawing 12 annas a day is about twice that of a prisoner or about 4.5 annas per diem.

The average weight of Punjabis, as judged by prisoners, is approximately 120 lbs. and as the minimum calories to maintain life is 30 calories per kilogram of body weight the diet should provide a minimum of 1,800 calories, whilst the army diet provides 3,470 and the jail diet 2,847 calories and the diet of the average labourer about 2,347 calories.

On this basis the living wage—the wage sufficient to keep body and soul together in respect of food only—for an adult man doing hard labour is somewhere about 5 annas per diem or about Rs. 9 per mensem, but this figure makes no provision

for light, clothes and rent, etc., which might amount to another Rs. 7 per mensem. In other words, a man earning Rs. 16-8 per mensem has just sufficient to live but no more—which is precisely what my chaprasis allege—but not enough to support a wife or family.

How this situation is to be met is a difficult problem.

The suggestion has been made that the imposition of a minimum wage will meet the case. This is a matter upon which I am not competent to express an opinion, but it seems clear that if the wage is fixed too low, it will standardize present conditions, and if too high, it will check industrial development and lead to unemployment. Other possible methods are fewer but more efficient workers on higher pay, but this suggestion is more easily made than carried out.

What appears to be certain is that the present position in which a large section of the poorer classes in urban areas lives permanently on the verge of economic stress is unsatisfactory and that unless action is taken matters will get worse. The fact that industry, which is in a nascent condition at present, is likely to develop rapidly as soon as Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme is completed and cheap power becomes available, requires to be taken into consideration. But in suggesting remedies the need for caution is no less imperative than the need for action.

It may be that the remedy does not lie, at present, in more legislative enactments but in the more rigid enforcement of existing Acts, closer supervision upon the part of Government over the welfare of labour and finally more consideration for the needs of labour upon the part of employers—and more especially of Government, the chief employer.

It is useless drawing up rules and regulations either as regards wages or diets unless it is possible to enforce the former and the people have the wherewithal to purchase food. It is, moreover, useless to increase the pay of labourers if contractors and middlemen are to reap the profit. It is impossible to improve housing conditions unless Government is prepared to bring pressure to bear upon Municipal Committees to put their sanitary houses in order. Finally, it is impossible to enforce any enactments made by Government for the welfare of Labour unless a technical staff—adequate not only in quantity but in quality—is provided to see that they are carried out.

It seems to me that it is along these lines that progress is most likely to be achieved, and it will be clear that these suggestions imply firstly, a new outlook towards the labour problem and, secondly, extensive administrative changes on the lines suggested in my Memorandum on the Health, Sanitation and Housing of Labour in the Punjab.

TABLE I.  
Ration Table.  
Prisoners (Punjab).

Article.	Amount.	Calories.	Proteid.	Fat.	Carbo- hydrate.	Vitamins.				Cash value (approximate)
						A	B	C	D	
Atta .. .. .	20 oz.	2,032	78	10·6	406	+	+	—	+	1·35
Dal .. .. .	3½ oz.	311·5	31	4·2	162	}	+	+	—	—
Gram .. .. .	4 oz.	356								
*Sugar .. .. .	1 oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·4 (daily).
Ghi .. .. .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oil .. .. .	½ oz.	13·5	—	12·0	—	—	—	—	—	·40
Vegetables .. .. .	8 oz.	77·5	4·4	—	44·8	—	+	+	+	free
Salt .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	·03
Condiments .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	·03
Firewood .. .. .	14 oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·10
	—	2,880·5	113·4	26·8	612·8	—				2·25 annas.

\* Once a week at present. Government has under consideration the proposal that the sugar ration should be given daily and ghi ½ oz. should be added.

TABLE II.  
Ration Table.  
(A) Indian Army.—Peace scale.

Article.	Amount.	Calories.	Proteid.	Fat.	Carbo- hydrate.	Vitamin values.				Cash value.
						A	B	C	D	
Atta .. .. .	24 oz.	2,514	grm. 75·4	grm. 8·8	517·8	+	+	—	+	annas. 1·91
Dal .. .. .	3 oz.	296	17·1	0·3	54·3	—	+	—	—	0·20
Ghi .. .. .	2 oz.	438	0·1	47·1	—	+++	—	—	++	2·15
Sugar .. .. .	1½ oz.	171	—	—	42·5	—	—	—	—	·35
Potatoes or vegetables .. .. .	2	51	1·1	—	11·2	—	+	+	+	·15
Salt .. .. .	½ oz.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	·03
Firewood .. .. .	3 lbs.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	·48
Total .. .. .	—	3,470	93·7	56·2	625·8	—				5·27 annas.

## THE REGISTRAR, CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, PUNJAB.

2. In Lahore there are two co-operative printing presses—one Urdu, the other English. The latter is working badly, and may soon have to be closed down; the former is working quite well as a press; but it is questionable whether it is of much co-operative benefit to its members.

3. In the Chhangamanga forest, in Lahore District, there is a supply society for the employees of the forest; this, however, is doing badly, and appears to have practically stopped working. There are also two supply societies among the criminal tribes who work in the forest. These are in a very much better condition. There is a large supply society in Moghalpura, whose members are employees of the railway workshop.

4. At Dhariwal in Gurdaspur District there is a flourishing co-operative society among the employees of the New Egerton Woollen Mills. This society does both supply and loan work, and is very keen on the improvement of its employees' conditions.

This society is entirely exceptional. It is, in fact, unique in the province. Its success is entirely due to the fact that the management of the mills is also the general management and the moving spirit of the society, and that, as the mills are well run, its labour staff stays with it for years. In any mill or factory where circumstances are different, the starting and running of a co-operative society of any kind is entirely out of the question.

At Khewra Salt mines there is a supply society which has gone completely to pieces owing to mismanagement and dishonesty. Arrangements are being made to cancel it. The salt miners here have also four ordinary credit societies, of which one is bad and two are average in quality.

There is a very bad supply society among the salt miners at Varchha in the Khushab Sub-Division. The salt miners at Kalabagh, District Mianwali, have a very successful credit society.

There were several labour societies in the forests and elsewhere, but these have all proved to be unsuccessful, for which the difficulty of persuading local bodies and forest officers of the lower grades to give them work, instead of giving the work to the contractors already known to them, is chiefly responsible.

## THE PUNJAB CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The Punjab is predominantly an agricultural province. Although some industries exist, they are small and cannot be compared with the industries of Bengal, Madras, Bombay and the United Provinces. The few industries that do exist are scattered about throughout the province, and are not situated in one area, as obtains in other provinces. No commercial towns, as such, exist. The industries are confined to cotton ginning presses, woollen and cotton mills, breweries, glassworks and a few other miscellaneous factories, the whole of the labour being small, considering the size of the province, and would not very much exceed the total labour employed in the neighbouring province of Delhi, which is a very much smaller province in comparison. It naturally follows, therefore, that the labour employed in industries other than agricultural are not subject to the same conditions as prevail in large industrial centres. Although the following memorandum will deal mainly with the Delhi Province, it will reflect the conditions obtaining in the Punjab as well.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. Originally when industries started in Delhi thirty or thirty-five years ago labour was recruited from different provinces, principally from Bombay, to work in the cotton mills. Labour from other provinces such as Rajputana and Central India was also recruited, but at the present time it is more or less settled. In recent years, that is, since the transfer of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi, building operations on a very large scale were started, for which labour was imported mostly from Rajputana and Central India.

(ii) The causes of migration are, briefly, skilled labour for the textile industry had to be imported from the Bombay Presidency, where it was already established.

(iii) Owing to the contraction in building operations in recent years in Delhi, recruitment of labour for building purposes has greatly diminished, and as time goes on and Government buildings are completed, it will be on a restricted scale.

2. So far as settled labour is concerned it has very little contact with villages but there is a certain proportion of seasonal labour which maintains contact with villages. Settled labour is more or less confined to those industries such as textile, flour milling, power supply companies, etc., which work all the year round, whereas seasonal labour is attached to those industrial establishments which work during a part of the year only, such as ice factories, foundry works, ginning factories, etc. The proportion of settled labour in Delhi roughly speaking will be 70 per cent., and of seasonal labour 30 per cent., but this proportion is reversed in the Punjab where seasonal industrial establishments such as ice factories, ginning factories, etc., attract the bulk of the labour population.

Labour throughout the Punjab as well as in Delhi is drawn from the labouring classes which have very little land of their own for agricultural purposes. Those workers who are settled with permanent industrial establishments work there all the year round and others connected with seasonal establishments work for the time these industries offer work and for the remaining part of the year they go back to the villages and work as agricultural labourers. They mostly prefer to work in the factories firstly because they get more wages than what they can earn as agricultural labourers and secondly because work on the land is more strenuous than in the factories.

3. As stated above, labour is more or less settled in the permanent industries and not much recruitment is therefore necessary. Yet sometimes when there is any need for skilled labour employers send their agents for recruitment. As regards seasonal labour, the labouring classes known when the seasonal industries start, where they go of their own accord for work, and there is, therefore, not much need of recruitment. There are no public employment agencies, nor is there any need for them.

7. Amongst the working classes there does not seem to be acute unemployment. Therefore the need for unemployment insurance or the application of International Conventions relating to unemployment is hardly felt.

8. (i) As already stated, labour in the permanent industries is more or less settled and the duration of employment is fairly long and the composition of the working population is steady.

(ii) There are, however, casual employments, the percentage of which is very small.

(iii) The chief causes of absenteeism for any length of period may be attributable to sickness. This often happens during the prevalence of malaria in the three months of August, September and October. The proportion of such absenteeism may be stated to be within 10 per cent. of the whole labour population for two months in the year. Other causes of absence are marriage festivals, casual illness and religious ceremonies, but barring marriage, the duration and extent of such absenteeism is negligible. Absence due to malaria is computed at 10 per cent. for two months and other absence at 5 per cent. for the whole of the year and taking 10 annas as the average wage of the workmen, what they lose in wages in a year owing to absence will be Rs. 12,50,000 calculated in the following manner :—

	Rs.
Ten per cent. of the working population of 100,000 (made up of 62,000 in the Punjab and 38,000 in Delhi) absent for 50 days in the year on account of malaria at 10 annas per day per workman . . . . .	3,12,500
Five per cent. of the working population of 100,000 (made up as above) absent for 300 days in the year on account of casual absence at 10 annas per day per workman . . . . .	9,37,500
	12,50,000

## II.—Staff Organization.

11. Selection of the managing staff is made after considering the individual's experience and ability. Recruitment of supervising staff is made in the same way as that of the managing staff, namely by advertisement as well as by means of personal contact. Owing to lack of education it is not easy to train labourers for promotion to the superior staff and there are, therefore, not many facilities to train them. What they learn is by experience.

13. Relations between the staff and rank and file are generally cordial.

Works committees and works councils do not exist in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi.

14. Time-keeping, piecework, contract and attendance registers are kept by the managing staff according to the provisions of the Indian Factories Act and they are checked by the factory inspector now and then. As regards wages, in big establishments labourers are paid by the accounts staff under the supervision of a responsible officer of the employer.

15. Contractors as intermediaries are unknown in these provinces but the piece-work system is in vogue. This refers to industrial undertakings only but in the building profession sub-contract is quite general and its effect is satisfactory.

### III.—Housing.

16. In the permanently established industries housing is provided by the employers to a great extent but neither Government nor any other public agency provides housing for the labouring classes. A certain percentage of workers, however, live in rented tenements provided by private landlords.

17. As far back as 1920 a suggestion was made by Government as to the desirability of interesting local Governments in the matter of housing which this chamber fully endorsed and it is understood that Government always assist by leasing out its land for industrial concerns on favourable terms.

18. Accommodation provided by the employers is generally satisfactory and in most cases is far better than the standard of houses in which the working population lives in its village home. In providing accommodation the employer gives due consideration for the needs of the labourer and builds houses to suit his requirements, and not to any demand of his as no such demand is generally made. From the health point of view such accommodation is generally satisfactory. As regards conservancy and water supply, adequate provision is made, but as regards lighting, except in rare instances, it is not provided.

19. Whatever accommodation is made available by the employer is utilized by the worker.

20. Accommodation provided to the superior staff is rarely charged for, whereas in the case of workers the rent fixed is uneconomical to the employer which varies from 40 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent.

21. Sub-letting and occupation of employers' houses by tenants in other employ are non-existent. Cases of eviction are very rare and workers are only evicted when they leave their work, but in that case they are given adequate time to make arrangements for shifting.

22. The moral effect of industrial housing conditions on the worker has not been found detrimental for otherwise there would be many instances of disturbances in areas where houses for labourers are situated.

### IV.—Health.

23. The general health conditions of workers are satisfactory. Statistics of mortality, etc., are not kept and it is therefore not possible to give figures. It cannot be said that the present housing of industrial labourers is responsible for any increase in mortality. There is no marked effect shown owing to unequal sex ratio in the cities of Amritsar, Lahore and Delhi where the permanent industries of the two provinces are located.

24. The extent of medical facilities provided by the employers is considered adequate. No medical facilities are provided by Government or by any other public agency specially for labour except in the case of the Delhi Municipality which maintains a dispensary near the Delhi Cloth and General Mills for their labour population. This was done at the instance of the secretary of the mills who donated Rs. 10,000 for the purpose. Provision for women doctors does not exist but in certain places midwives and dhais are engaged on a restricted scale.

25. Medical facilities are generally utilized by the workpeople both male and female.

26. Sanitary arrangements at workplaces are adequate and satisfactory. Latrines and drinking water are adequately provided for, but as regards bathing and washing no special arrangement is generally made.

27. In municipal areas inspection by the health officer and his staff is frequently made. In other places the inspector of factories is the only person who makes the inspection as regards sanitary arrangements in addition to his other duties.

28. Control of temperature in factories and humidification of mills has attracted the attention of Government and statistics are now being collected for the purpose.

29. The prevalence of industrial diseases is unknown in the Punjab and Delhi Provinces but sporadic cases of cholera are reported now and then. Malaria, however, is generally prevalent and affects the industrial population. Hookworm and other tropical diseases are unknown.

30. Provision for sickness insurance in this country does not exist.

This Chamber, however, views with sympathy any scheme of sickness insurance on a restricted scale and a reference made to it by the Government of India on this subject in September, 1928, was considered by it and generally approved. The Chamber is of opinion that sickness insurance should be made compulsory and made applicable to workers in organized industries, the cost of the scheme to fall equally, in the proportion of one-third, on the worker, the employer and the State. It also holds the view that the scheme to be successful in its initial stage should be applied only within well-defined limits, either regional or industrial or both, and that legislation, as in the case of the Indian Factories Act should be central.

31. In a very restricted scale maternity benefits are available. An allowance of three months' wages is in certain cases given to women labourers, that is, two months before and one month after confinement. A Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits was introduced by the prominent labour leader, Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly and employers of labour are sympathetic towards the general principles underlying the Bill.

#### V.—Welfare.

32, 33, 34, 35 and 36. Employers of labour in well-established industries have now taken up welfare work more or less and the extent of such work at the present time is on a moderate scale. As regards other agencies, social reform workers also have taken it up. Employment of welfare officers and workers is also coming into vogue, though only on a small scale. Provision for refreshments, etc., is made by established industries which make them available on payment. For physical culture, recreation and amusements, facilities are provided and the results achieved have been satisfactory. Provision of educational facilities by employers is made by industries in urban areas for adult workers, half-time workers, and for workers' children and they are fairly well used.

40. The Delhi Municipality have now enforced compulsory primary education in certain wards and it is expected that illiteracy among the workers in those wards would gradually be removed.

41. In certain urban areas facilities are provided for industrial education but they are still on a restricted scale.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. Those industries which come under the purview of the Indian Factories Act and the Mines Act are bound under rules to undertake safety measures for the prevention of accidents among workers.

44. Statistics of accidents will be found published each year in the Annual Report of the Working of the Factories Act for each province.

The appalling illiteracy and absence of education amongst the workpeople is mainly responsible for preventable accidents and in certain cases the drink habit amongst the workers must be considered as one of the factors causing accidents.

46. Employers as a whole take adequate precaution for preventing accidents whether in factories or industries regulated by the Factories Act or not.

48. The first-aid and medical relief provisions are also satisfactory.

49. Stringency of inspection and enforcement of regulations are generally at times more than necessary both in seasonal and permanent industries.

50. It is not disputed that long hours of work, ill-health and poor working conditions always reduce the margin of safety and employers generally are alive to this fact.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. The use of the Workmen's Compensation Act in recent years has been fairly extensive as will be evident from the fact that intelligent employers always have had recourse to insurance against accidents to workmen. It is yet too early to say whether this Act apart from humanitarian considerations has done any actual benefit to the industries generally. It is not perhaps wrong to say that workers are not fully alive to the benefits of this Act to make them more efficient.

(v) Regarding the desirability of compulsory insurance by employers the Chamber is of opinion that every employer should be compelled to insure so as to secure workmen from possible hardship by reason of the inability of the employer to pay compensation.

53. Scales of compensation and conditions governing grant of compensation prescribed under the Act are considered satisfactory.



## IX.—Hours of Work.

55. The normal hours of work are ten hours per day, but in exceptional circumstances overtime of an hour is granted under the Indian Factories Act.

(iii) Except for the period of interval during which time the worker is not on call, hours of work are calculated so long as the worker is present at the establishment, whether he is actually at work or not.

56. *Days worked per week.*—Six days.

57. The effect of 60 hours' restriction both on workers as well as on the industry is salutary.

58. The effect of the daily limit is equally beneficial.

59. There is no possibility of reduction in the maxima of hours of work as fixed for India under the Washington Hours Convention. At the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva this year, the employers' delegate, Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai, of Ahmedabad, made pointed reference to the special circumstances as provided in Article 405 of the Treaty of Versailles, under which hours of work for industrial workers in this country was fixed. This maximum of 60 hours a week is considered suitable for this country, and its reduction is not desirable.

60. The existing practice of granting one hour's interval has worked well both in relation to fatigue as well as to workers' meal times. As already stated, the hours of work were fixed by law and are found suitable. The number of holidays given is generally restricted. Except those provided by the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act holidays granted are almost entirely for religious ceremonies.

61. Generally speaking, Sundays are observed as days of rest, but in certain establishments week-days are also resorted to for the purpose. In all cases when there are not other holidays only one day in the week is allowed as weekly rest day.

78. The industrial establishments which do not come either under the Indian Factories Act or under the Indian Mines Act are not restricted with regard to hours of work. The desirability of the regulation of hours of work is recognized, but how far it will be possible to have it in effect is doubtful.

81. The effect of the 1922 Act on women, young adults and children has been satisfactory.

82. The admission of infants to the working premises of industrial establishments is prohibited by law. The provisions in the Indian Factories Act regulating women's work are satisfactory, and the same can be said of the work of children.

84. Hours of work, intervals, maximum and minimum wages fixed, have worked well.

85. Double employment of children is unknown.

86. Young adults are in some industrial establishments trained as apprentices, but this is not very general.

87. The dismissal of children on attaining full age is also unknown.

88. Women and children are prohibited under the Indian Factories Act to work at night. Those industries which work double shift employ them during the day.

## XII.—Wages.

101. Fixing of wages of the superior staff in industrial establishments is generally done by written agreement. As regards workmen they are fixed more or less verbally. Workers employed for more than 60 hours a week are paid overtime wages at a rate not less than one and a-quarter times the normal wages.

103. Standardization of wages is generally non-existent.

106. Deductions for bad and negligent work are not rare. Fining also is not infrequent, but such fines are generally used towards workers' welfare work.

107. The system of monthly payment of wages is generally in vogue in industrial undertakings in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi. Some of them, however, pay wages fortnightly. Wages earned are generally paid within the 15th of the next month.

108. The indebtedness of the industrial worker is almost general.

109. Schemes for the payment of bonuses in industrial undertakings are generally based on production, but such bonuses are restricted to certain industries only. Profit-sharing schemes are unknown.

110. Workers are not generally allowed any annual or other periodical leave except without pay. But the supervising staff are usually allowed leave with full pay, and this varies in different establishments. As regards loss to workers of backlying wages arising out of their being absent on leave such instances are rare. Unless workers themselves are negligent about demanding or realizing them backlying wages are always paid.

#### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

112 and 113. It is admittedly a fact that in recent years efficiency of workers has improved, though slowly, and as regards comparative efficiency between Indian and foreign workers there is no doubt that the Indian worker is very much less efficient than the foreign worker. The appalling illiteracy of the Indian worker is, to a certain extent, responsible for this.

114. Comparative efficiency of plant and perhaps management contribute greatly to the lack of efficiency of the Indian worker. Health, physique, and standards of living cannot be said to affect it to any appreciable degree, but climatic conditions surely are to a great extent responsible for the Indian worker being less efficient.

115. It is doubtful whether changes in working hours will cause any increased production, whereas changes in working conditions may do so. Industries generally are in such a depressed condition at present that it is impossible for the employers to undertake any further extensive programme for the cause of health, sanitation, housing, etc. It is not understood what alteration in the method of remuneration would affect production unless it is meant to introduce piece-work system, which is already in vogue. As regards movements in wage levels, as already stated, industries are in a depressed condition, and it will be difficult for them to bear any further burden which raising the level of wages entails. It is also extremely doubtful whether raising the level of wages will mean any corresponding increase in efficiency. It may even have a contrary effect. As regards alcohol and drugs, absolute prohibition will not only raise the moral standard of the worker but will also increase his efficiency.

116. Not only primary education but provision for technical education amongst the working-classes and the introduction of up-to-date machinery will contribute to a very large extent to secure increased efficiency among Indian workers.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

Compared to workers' associations, the employers in the provinces of the Punjab and Delhi are fairly well organized.

118. The effect of employers' organizations on industry has been satisfactory, but it cannot be said that the workers' organizations have contributed much to the improvement of the condition of the workers. It must, however, be said that discontent among the workers in these provinces is very rare, and they are more or less happy, as will be evident from the few strikes and lock-outs.

119. Trade union activities in these provinces are not well organized, and therefore not much history of their constitution can be given. The same applies also to the question whether the workers participate in mutual aid benefit schemes, such as payment during unemployment, sickness, old age, etc. It can, however, safely be said that no such schemes by the so-called trade unions are in existence.

122. Whenever there is any dispute between the employer and the employed some political leaders of the locality take up the workmen's cause and ultimately some compromise is arrived at. But as no serious disturbance has taken place in recent years in these two provinces no comment can be made as to the suitability or otherwise of such methods. Generally speaking, the relation between the employer and the employed in these provinces is cordial.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. The effect of differences in the law relating to working conditions or administration between Indian States and British India has been to the detriment of the latter in various ways. It will be evident from the speech of Mr. Furt Wangler, the German workers' delegate at the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference, held at Geneva (May-June, 1929), that there is an impression abroad that the Factories Act in India is not seriously administered, and that the ratification of the Washington Hours Convention is merely in name. This impression has been caused by the want of any strict regulation in the Indian States about the hours of work, etc., an impression which certainly is undeservedly to the detriment of British

India in international circles. This is one aspect of the question, whereas from the employers' point of view the factories situated in Indian States have practically no regulations about hours of work, employment of women and children, etc., so that they can favourably compete with the factories situated in British India. No doubt when the Commission sat in connection with the Peace Treaty in January, 1919, H.H. the Maharaja of Bikaner made a reservation that whatever the representative Lord Sinha accepted on behalf of the Government of India would not apply to Indian States. Yet every representative of the employers from this country to the last International Labour Conference at Geneva brought this matter up and while Sir A. Chatterjee, the delegate of the Government of India, explained the defects connected with the introduction of similar factories legislation in native states, the Secretary-General of the International Labour Organization, in reviewing the position, said, "Will the work, partial but still considerable, accomplished in British India for the production of labour survive if competitive industries, exempt from all social charges, develop uncontrolled in the native states?"

There is no doubt that uniformity of legislation is very desirable from all points of view.

138. It has already been said that want of education amongst the workpeople is universal. This being the case, it is not expected that they should be fully acquainted with factory legislation. At the same time it must be said that they have a faint idea as to the significance of the inspections often done by the Government agencies.

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IRRIGATION BRANCH.

I.—Recruitment.

The works carried out on open canals are in the aggregate large, but taken individually they are small; it is only occasionally that large works may become necessary at a headworks, or perhaps on a main canal. As the works are scattered over large areas it follows that practically all labour employed on open canals is employed in small bodies and comes from villages near the sites of works. This local labour is composed of cultivators and village menials who turn to canal works when agricultural operations are slack and wages offered tempting; these men will not take up work more than two or three miles away from their villages to which they return each night. There is but little "migratory" or "imported" labour on open canals, as there is seldom sufficient concentrated work for it; it is only when some big work has to be carried out that the employment of "imported" labour becomes necessary and economical.

As regards canals under construction the employment of "local" or "imported" labour depends on the conditions of the tract in which the canal is being constructed. In tracts thinly populated practically all labour is "imported," but there have been cases recently of new canals being constructed in tracts already poorly served by inundation canals in which "local" labour was easy to get; in these "local" labour has been mainly employed.

Imported labour is of two kinds:—(1) Permanent, (2) migratory.

The permanent labour is merely of the "Baghri" and "Od" classes from round about Bikaner; they move about in large groups, going from one big work to another. They are the most skilled earthwork labour obtainable. The numbers of these classes are decreasing annually, due to increased irrigation and labour conditions in the Bikaner State.

The migratory labour comes from Afghanistan and the North-West Frontier Province, and from the dry districts of the Punjab, where rainfall is scanty and conditions bordering on famine frequently prevail. The labour from Afghanistan and the North-West Frontier Province will work only under contractors from their own tracts, and practically all return to their homes for the hot weather.

They form the largest body of migratory earthwork labour in the Punjab during the winter months. The amount of labour obtainable from the dry districts of the Punjab depends entirely on rainfall conditions in the monsoon; in a good monsoon they are hard to obtain.

Statistics of labour employed on open canals are not maintained; statistics maintained on canals under construction show that (a) in one circle the average number of men employed daily from 1st January, 1925, to 31st October, 1926, was 6,644; the maximum number was 12,414 in February, 1926, and the minimum 3,431

in October, 1925; (b) at a headworks now nearing completion the average number employed daily from beginning of November, 1926, to end of June, 1929; was 2,172 men, the maximum number being 5,448 in February, 1929, and the minimum 945 in August, 1927.

3. (ii) There appears to be no necessity for any change in methods of recruitment. It is usually the employer who seeks out the labour and not *vice versa*. "Local" labour is not dependent solely on works; contractors have to go from village to village seeking it out, and unless they treat it fairly and properly the labour just quits work. "Imported" labour has not only to be sought out but usually will not move out unless advances of money are given.

There is no unemployment in the labouring classes which work on canal works.

It is considered that public employment agencies would not be successful; they would not go from village to village to seek out labour, and the labour certainly would not go to them looking for work.

The present methods of recruitment work quite satisfactorily and are suited to local conditions.

4. There is no serious disturbance of family life in the case of labour imported for canal works, as the permanent labour bring their families with them and the other imported labour come only for short periods.

7. *Unemployment*.—The only unemployment of which I am aware is amongst the educated classes (men who have passed or failed to pass the matriculation examination), and whose one and only aim in life is to get into Government service of some kind.

## II.—Staff Organization.

10, 11, and 12. Appendix I shows the number of engineer officers and subordinates on each canal; each of these officers and subordinates has under his charge a certain portion of the tract served by the canal. The officers are trained at engineering colleges in England and India; the subordinates at the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, and the Government School of Engineering, Rasul, mainly at the latter.

In addition each subordinate is allowed a certain number—dependent on the amount of work in hand—of "mistris" and "mates" for the immediate supervision of work.

"Mistris" are men of a little education who have learnt to read plans and drawings, and are frequently skilled workmen, e.g., masons, carpenters, etc.

"Mates" are usually illiterate and are selected from the ordinary labour for intelligence and force of character in getting work done. Both these classes are employed for the immediate supervision of works to ensure that orders are properly carried out and good sound work is done.

13. Relations between staff and labour are usually good.

15. Practically all work on canals is done through the agency of contractors, who are really only suppliers of labour; for instance, in the construction of masonry works Government supplies the materials and the supervising staff, the contractor supplies merely the masons and unskilled labour.

Regular contracts specifying rates, quantities and time limit are used only for brick manufacture.

All other works are carried out on "work orders" in which only rates and kinds of work are specified, quantities and time limits not being mentioned.

Under the "work order" system the contractor can stop work at any time if he is not satisfied and similarly the officer in charge can stop the work. This system has been found very satisfactory indeed and no change is necessary.

Relations between contractors and labour are generally very good; if anything, the labour has the upper hand, as it simply will not turn out if it is not treated well by a contractor. Contractors have to be and are very careful to treat their labour well.

Sub-contracting is not countenanced, but is carried on no doubt to a limited extent on large works.

In the case of large masonry works in particular, the masons are paid on piece-work and do not receive a fixed daily wage.

## III.—Housing.

16 and 18. Government provides housing for those of its employees who are required to live at particular sites for the proper performance of their duties. For unskilled labour the accommodation provided usually consists of one room 10 ft. by 10 ft., with a verandah for each man; a certain number of such quarters are provided

with small courtyards, these are for men who have their families with them. This accommodation is usually equal to and sometimes superior to what the men have in their own villages. As already stated, the labour generally employed on canals comes from neighbouring villages to which it returns at night.

Works on canals usually do not last long, the great majority do not last as long as six months. On big works which may last up to five years, "imported" labour is generally used and contractors are given an allowance for "hutting" this labour. The labour itself makes the walls, the contractors supplying the roofing materials.

19. The accommodation provided by Government is always utilized if three or four men or families are to live in close proximity; it is difficult to get isolated quarters occupied because of the prevalence of robbery.

20. Rent rates in various classes in cases of accommodation provided by Government.

*Skilled Labour.*—(a) Those drawing over Rs. 100 per mensem pay up to 10 per cent. of their salary as rent, or 6 per cent. of the capital cost of the building, whichever is less.

(b) Those drawing above Rs. 50 but under Rs. 100 per mensem pay up to 5 per cent. of their salary as rent.

(c) Those drawing less than Rs. 50 per mensem get rent-free quarters. No menial or coolie labour pay rent.

#### IV.—Health.

23. The labour employed on canals is usually very healthy; all work being done in the open air and therefore under very healthy conditions. Statistics of mortality are not maintained, but the figures must be very low.

(iii) (a) and (b) In the case of the subordinate, clerical and menial establishments on an up-to-date public work in India I am of opinion that outside of climate the working and housing conditions, combined with the medical aid easily obtainable free, and the general sanitation is such as should ensure a better standard of health than were they living at home if their home is in a town, while if their home is in a village there would not be such a marked superiority—the latter opinion is applicable to the permanent labour in even a great degree principally owing to medical aid.

(iv) In the case of the artificers and coolies I should think, from casual observation, that their food is plentiful, and unless the person concerned belongs to an entirely different and remote part of India he probably has no great difficulty in obtaining a diet according to his requirements.

(v) The physique of all classes of labour in Northern India is, of course, vastly superior to that of any other part of the country. The Baghri has not such a fine physique, but his output is correspondingly less. These are the natural characteristics of the races, and labour on public works should tend to improve rather than impair their physique.

24. Contractors provide no medical facilities—these are provided by Government. Generally in each assistant engineer's charge—known as a sub-division—a dispensary under the charge of a sub-assistant surgeon is provided at which medicines and attendance are given free of charge to labour and their families. The sub-assistant surgeon does not stay at headquarters only; he can be called out to attend to labour and Government employees by any subordinate, and for this purpose is provided with a travelling medicine chest. At canal headworks where large bodies of labour are employed, a large dispensary with a ward for two to four or more in-patients, under the charge of an assistant surgeon, is provided.

25. (i) The medical facilities provided by Government are freely used and much appreciated; most of the canal dispensaries on open canals have now been thrown open to the public and are used freely by villagers to whom no charge is made.

(ii) Women do avail themselves of medical aid, but I should say principally from the physician's rather than the surgeon's side, there being many obstacles in the way of the latter.

26. (i) Latrines and other sanitary arrangements do not exist in villages from which labour is drawn, and are not required where labour is employed only temporarily. Latrines, etc., are provided by Government at all canal headworks, inspection houses, etc., where labour is employed steadily.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. There is very little machinery used on canal works and accidents are very few and far between. As already stated, most of the work is done out in the open air.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. Where an accident does occur compensation is given as soon as possible in accordance with the Workmen's Compensation Act.

53. (ii) The granting of such compensation is a cumbersome process at present, and should be simplified so that actual payment can be made more quickly than is at present possible, especially as accidents are very few and far between.

### IX.—Hours.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

78-80. Hours and days of working are somewhat elastic, except in workshops, where definite hours must be adhered to in order to run the shops in a businesslike manner. Workshops are at work for about nine hours a day with a suitable interval in the middle of the day, the length of this interval varies with the time of the year. Outside the shops hours are elastic; labour usually works about nine hours a day, but there are no fixed hours. In the summer months the working hours are usually 6 a.m. to 10.30 or 11.0 a.m., and again from 3.30 or 4 p.m. till about sundown; in winter the hours are from about 9 a.m. till sundown with a suitable interval for food about mid-day. Offices are closed on Sundays, but this applies to clerical establishments only; in the ordinary canal officer's and subordinate's lives there are no fixed hours for work on any day and work goes on throughout the seven days of the week.

There are so many religious festivals during the year on which labour will not work, that having a fixed day of rest per week would very seriously affect the earnings of labour and progress of the work. There is no necessity for any regulations for labour employed on canal works, the labour is perfectly happy and contented under present conditions.

#### X.—Employment of Women.

92. Women and children are not employed in canal department workshops; in fact are not employed directly by the canal department at all.

Women, but not children, are found working in contractor's "imported" labour, not "local labour." They do not work as long hours as the men, and do not get the same wages.

There is no need for any regulations regarding their employment; usually work is not done during the night, and if ever done during the night women are not employed on night work.

### XII.—Wages.

96 and 97. Labour employed by Government is employed either on monthly wage or daily wage. The present sanctioned monthly wage for unskilled labour is Rs. 13 per mensem, while this is just sufficient for light work such as watchmen, it is not sufficient for men who are expected to patrol canal channels and keep them in order. For such a low wage only old and decrepit men are obtainable, men quite unsuited to the work required, but the canal department has not yet been able to persuade the Finance Department that this wage is inadequate, and that it is mere waste of money to employ men on such wage.

The daily wage demanded by unskilled labour varies greatly with the time of year and what agricultural operations are in hand; when agriculture requires no labour men can be obtained at 8 annas per diem each, but when Rabi is being harvested the daily wage rises to Re. 1 and over.

Generally speaking, daily wages may be taken as:—

	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	per diem.
Coolies (men)	0	8	0	to	1	0	0
Coolies (women)	0	6	0		0	12	0
Carpenters	1	12	0		2	8	0
Blacksmiths	1	8	0		2	4	0
Masons	1	12	0		2	8	0
Tinsmiths	1	12	0		2	0	0
Turners	2	4	0		2	12	0
Fitter, first class	2	8	0		2	12	0
Fitters, second-class	2	0	0		2	4	0
Moulders	—				2	4	0
Hammerman and oilmen	—				1	0	0

100. In regard to labour employed by contractors labour employed on earthwork is usually paid on "piece-work," that employed on masonry and other works is paid daily wages as above.

101. Wages are fixed initially, partly on experience of recent work and partly on supply and demand; there is no real standardization of wages, and there is no real necessity for statutory establishment of minimum wages.

107. Wages are paid to labour employed by Government 10 daily or monthly and usually 10 to 15 days in arrears, this delay in payment is due to audit requirements. There appears to be no necessity for any further regulation. Unclaimed wages are treated strictly in accordance with code rules; wages unclaimed for more than three months are credited to Government.

106. Fining is almost non-existent.

109. A system of bonus payments to contractors has been introduced on the Sutlej Valley canals now nearing completion of construction with considerable success; such a system properly managed is bound to produce a considerable improvement in out-turn.

#### XIV.—Trade Combination.

117. On canal works there are no trade combinations of either employers or employed, and there have hitherto been no strikes or lock-outs. As already explained, labour generally has the upper hand and has to be treated properly and fairly by contractors. Contractors are usually far too keen on making profits and too jealous of each other to treat their labour in any but a fair manner.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. As there have been no strikes or lock-outs there has been no necessity for any conciliation and arbitration machinery.

#### XVI.—Law of Master and Servants.

127. The effect of the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act has been that contractors have to be more careful than they used to be in the treatment of labour, since they have had to give the labour advances of money to get it on to the works.

#### APPENDIX I.

Serial No.	Name of Circle.	Gross Area commanded in Square Miles.	Engineering Staff.				Remarks.
			Superintending Engineers.	Executive Engineers.	Assistant Engineers.	Subordinates.	
1	Western Jumna Canal ..	4,413	1	4	12	53	—
2	Sirhind Canal { British ..	3,766	}	4	12	59	—
	States ..	3,054					
3	Derajat ..	3,550	1	3	9	46	—
4	Upper Bari Doab Canal ..	2,562	1	4	10	52	—
5	Lower Bari Doab Canal ..	2,779	1	4	11	47	—
6	Upper Chenab Canal ..	2,416	1	4	11	55	—
7	Lower Chenab Canal (West and East).	5,650	2	7	20	97	—
8	Upper Jhelum Canal ..	915	1	3	10	40	—
9	Lower Jhelum Canal ..	2,295	1	5	12	61	—
10	1st British { British ..	2,206	}	4	12	72	—
	Bahawalpur ..	145					
11	2nd British ..	2,138	1	4	11	66	—
12	3rd British ..	1,250	1	3	7	42	—
13	1st Bahawalpur ..	2,390	1	4	17	102	—
14	2nd Bahawalpur ..	2,219	1	4	12	72	—
15	3rd Bahawalpur ..	2,274	1	5	21	126	—

Colonel H. M. MACKENZIE, M.B., I.M.S., INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF CIVIL HOSPITALS, PUNJAB.

The heads of the subject matter with which I am concerned are:—

#### IV.—Health.

24. Since the State provides all the necessary medical aid free of cost, it is probable that the need for providing medical aid by private employers has not been felt. Poor people, who include all labourers, receive free medical attendance, free medicines and free lying-in accommodation in hospitals and dispensaries maintained by Government and local bodies.

One of the greatest needs of this Province is the provision of medical aid for women by doctors of their own sex. The profession of medicine appeals to very few Indian women in spite of many inducements held out in the shape of scholarships, stipends, etc. Included in the scheme for the expansion of medical relief, to which reference will be made later, there is provision for (a) the building of good up-to-date hospitals for women under the charge of a lady assistant surgeon at the head-quarters of each district, and (b) the addition of a female section under the charge of a lady sub-assistant surgeon at the headquarters of selected Tahsils. This scheme is progressing steadily but its ultimate success depends entirely upon the women themselves.

Women are trained as Sub-assistant surgeons in the Punjab Medical School for Women, Ludhiana, which is a Government aided institution, and as midwives, dais, nurses, nurse dais and dispensers at that institution and at various centres scattered over the Province. Women, after completing their training, are employed in hospitals and dispensaries in the districts.

The conservatism of Indian women in the Punjab causes them to eye with suspicion any attempt at innovation or at drawing them away from established customs, and the untrained indigenous dai is an important factor in village life, and still carries on an extensive practice among the ignorant masses. The indigenous dai will continue to ply her trade and, until she can be successfully supplanted by a trained worker, she will continue to be a menace whose existence is, to a very large extent, responsible for the appalling infant mortality. The remedy for this state of affairs lies in educating public opinion.

There are in the Punjab 964 hospitals and dispensaries of all classes and these cater for the medical needs of the entire population. A scheme for the establishment of rural dispensaries was devised and received the sanction of the Punjab Government in the latter half of 1925. This scheme aims at the establishment of one dispensary for every 100 square miles of territory, or for every 30,000 of population, and it was found that, in order to attain this ideal, it would be necessary to open 375 dispensaries in rural areas. The entire cost was to be borne by Government in the shape of grants-in-aid and funds available for the purpose were necessarily limited. A standard plan was recommended to district boards and Government agreed to give a grant of Rs. 5,400 for the construction and Rs. 1,600 for the equipment of each dispensary. The following figures show the number of rural dispensaries opened during the years 1925-29 :—1925-26, 21; 1926-27, 86; 1927-28, 105; 1928-29, 88.

It is proposed to establish 55 more dispensaries during the current financial year, and the remaining during the next financial year, thus bringing the whole scheme into operation.

The Departments of Public Works, Forests, Surveys and Criminal Tribes are perhaps the largest Government employers of labour and in every place where these departments operate and employ labour there exist Government dispensaries maintained by the departments themselves, or by the Provincial Government or by local bodies, and these cater for the medical needs of the labour employed. There are 120 Canal, 2 Forest and Survey dispensaries and 20 other dispensaries, of which some are maintained by the Criminal Tribes Department, and others by the Buildings and Roads Branch of the Public Works Department. The number of hospitals and dispensaries of the various classes are given below :—

State public	..	..	..	..	..	..	65
Police	..	..	..	..	..	..	31
Forestry and Survey	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Canal	..	..	..	..	..	..	120
Others	..	..	..	..	..	..	20
Local fund	..	..	..	..	..	..	354
Private non-aided	..	..	..	..	..	..	8
Railway	..	..	..	..	..	..	66
Rural	..	..	..	..	..	..	264
Private aided	..	..	..	..	..	..	34
							<hr/>
					Total	..	964

25. The medical facilities provided are utilized extensively by the public generally and the figures of attendance at hospitals and dispensaries go to show that the institutions are popular. There are 36 institutions where special arrangements exist: some of these are hospitals exclusively for women and some ordinary dispensaries where a special section is set apart for the treatment of women by women doctors.



30. No difficulty arises in this province from non-acceptability of scientific medicine and, so far as my information goes, Government employes rarely have recourse to the indigenous systems of medicine.

The committee formed to investigate and report found that there was much unemployment among medical graduates and that the only way in which the unemployment could be lessened was to subsidize private practitioners in order to induce them to practise in rural areas. This solution presented considerable practical difficulties and was not adopted.

Miss AHMAD SHAH, INSPECTRESS, CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES, PUNJAB.

### III.—Housing.

18. *Nature of Accommodation provided in each Class—(ii) in relation to the best type from health point of view.*—This point is not kept in view on the whole, while providing accommodation for the workers. The idea kept in mind is :—“What kind of a house a man has been used to.”

There is a mistake in this, because a man can put up in all sorts of places, while he is free from the bondage of service, in such a free state there are many other things to make up for the lack of a good house.

On the other hand, especially in a hot country, with a depressing climate for most of the year, when a man comes into the bondage of service, he loses several advantages of a free life. He is pressed with the strain and anxieties of duty, and therefore needs a comfortable house where he can recoup and refresh his exhausted and strained body and mind and keep himself fit for work.

### IV.—Health.

29. *Disease.*—The health of the wives and children of the clerks and other low paid workers is steadily deteriorating ; as for the health of the men, it can be easily judged when these men expect to die at the age of 50 or 55 years, because the houses provided for or rented by them are small and crowded ; too hot and suffocating in summer, and badly ventilated in winter. In such houses tuberculosis is spreading by leaps and bounds and victims cannot afford to protect themselves.

30. *Sickness Insurance—(iii) how to meet difficulties arising from non-acceptability of western medicines.*—There is a misunderstanding here : because those who can afford to get the best western medicines prefer them to the eastern treatments. The cause of non-acceptability lies in the fact, that in most dispensaries the medicines given to the patients, especially to the poor, are mostly a watery mixture with only a part of the prescribed medicines. These sort of mixtures do no good, on the contrary the patients form a mistaken opinion of western medicines and begin to avoid them and tell others to do so also.

This can be remedied by providing large stocks of fresh and good medicines in the dispensaries and by employing conscientious dispensers and compounders in hospitals.

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LAHORE.

### I.—Recruitment.

1. (i) In the absence of statistics, it is almost impossible to measure arithmetically the extent of the migration of labourers and workmen both skilled and unskilled into Punjab from the outside provinces and *vice versa*. As I have already said in section I, quite a good number of unskilled labourers hail from Kashmere, Rajputana, N.W. F. Province, and United Provinces, and some of the skilled labourers come from United Provinces, Bombay and Calcutta. From Punjab, both skilled and to some extent unskilled, also go to other provinces and even to Africa and Persian Gulf. So some labourers go from the Punjab and some come to it from outside. Both the streams run to and fro, and it is difficult to mark their velocity with any certainty and precision. It may be said, however, that emigration is far less than immigration.

2. *Causes of particular streams of Migration*—(a) *the Kashmere stream*.—The people of the Kashmere State are generally very poor. There are no industries worth the name there. On account of the mountaneous nature of the country, agriculture cannot be carried on on a grand scale there. The result is that there is much employment there. Hence a number of Kashmiris called "Hatoes" migrate into Punjab to work as labourers here. Being inhabitants of a cold country, they cannot stand the intense heat and scorching sun of the Punjab. They are therefore "birds of passage" only. They come in the beginning of winter and go back at its end. Being very poor indeed and being absolute simpletons, they are far cheaper than the local labourers, and work much harder than the local ones. They are therefore in great demand during the winter months. This is another reason of their streaming into Punjab in large numbers.

(b) *The Frontier Stream*.—The chief reason of the Pathan's migration in the Punjab is that some of the big Khans take big contracts for the North Western Railway and the Public Works Department, and so forth, and they bring their own Pathan labour from the frontier,

(c) *The Rajputana Stream*.—The Rajputana and the surrounding country is a vast sandy and rainless desert. The people are extremely poor. They therefore come to the Punjab to earn their livelihood. They are very meek, docile and obedient people, and never shirk from any hard work. Being residents of a hot country, they work in the Punjab in the hot weather without minding in the least its clemency. They seldom mix with the Punjabees. They never quarrel. They are generally cheap and of simple habits. They are, therefore, in great demand everywhere, particularly in the building industry. They come with their families. The women do as much work as the men and charge less than the men. Their children also work. It is therefore they come in large numbers to the Punjab, and get on very nicely here.

(d) *The United Province Stream*.—The United Provinces is undoubtedly a Landlord-ridden Province. There are big "Zemindaris" there. This being so, majority of the people are either tenants or labourers. Not finding enough employment in their own country, they resort to the Punjab. They are not very popular with the Punjabees, but on account of their comparative cheapness, they are employed in different factories in this Province.

(e) *The Punjab Stream*.—Some Punjabi labourers, mostly skilled, as has been already stated, go to Sind, Baluchistan, Bombay, Calcutta and to foreign countries like Africa, Strait Settlements and the Persian Gulf. The more adventurous naturally go to the foreign countries, for they are by far better paid there. Sind and Baluchistan lack in skilled labour. It is therefore imported there from the Punjab. The wages there are certainly higher than they are in the Punjab. Another class of skilled labourers, mostly motor drivers and motor mechanics, who got their training to serve in Mesopotamia during the Great War, find good business in the rich cities of Bombay and Calcutta. Fitters, engine drivers and mechanics find employment in Jamshepur and Jharia on better wages. It is on account of these reasons that the Punjab labour, too, stream out in different directions in search of money and more money.

2. It has been said with singular felicity that towns are meant for rich people and the villages for the poor. The labourers being poor mostly hail from the villages. There are therefore naturally in intimate contact with them. Some of the labourers who belong to the agricultural classes have some land in their villages. Others have some other vested interests. Most of them have their houses there. They leave their families behind. They have therefore natural contact with their villages. Out of the Punjab rural labour, there are few labourers who have severed their connections with the villages of their origin.

(i) To my mind, 90 per cent. of the rural labour have a tendency, for reasons set forth above, to return to their villages when a suitable occasion affords itself to do so. Those who work in the seasonal factories usually return to their homes after the season is over. Again on domestic occurrences, ceremonial occasions, and religious festivals, the village labourers like to go to their villages. Again, in times of unemployment, adversity, illness and so forth, the labourer remembers his home and usually turns his face to it. There are some labourers too, who work for a short period, earn some money, and run home with the little money they have saved jingling in their pockets.

The above is mainly true of the unskilled labourers who work in factories not very far from their villages. The tendency of returning home frequently does not exist so much among the skilled labour as it does among the unskilled labour. When the home is very far, to reach which the labourer has to spend some money as railway fare, he thinks twice before returning home frequently. Again, if he is employed permanently in a factory and not on daily wages or on piecework system, he is not generally allowed to return home as frequently as he might like. Under these circumstances, he lives with his family in or near the factory and returns home once in a year or so.

(ii) It may be said at once that as the seasonal factories, e.g., cotton ginning and ice factories are not permanent, hence the labour working there is also not permanent. About half the labour employed in our factories is employed in these seasonal factories. Hence that is not permanent. In the perennial factories, it is more or less permanent. But the tendency of returning home as explained in sub-section (i) is always there. By "permanent" I do not mean that a particular labourer sticks to his job in a particular factory for ever. He often shifts from one factory to another. It is only in the big industrial undertakings that he sticks to his job for a fairly considerable long time. As for example, in the North-Western Railway Moghalpura workshops and in the other railway sheds, the labour employed there is more or less permanent. The same is true of the New Egerton Woollen Mills at Dhariwal and some of the factories in Amritsar, Lahore, Sialkot, Ludhiana and Lyallpur.

In this connection, it may be stated that the Punjab labourer and more particularly the rural labourer, has not yet developed the industrial proletarian mentality. Hence he seldom tries to stick to one particular industry. He would work as an agricultural labourer in the Canal Colonies for some time, and then would seek work in a flour mill and after some time you will find him working as a tonga driver in Lahore or Amritsar, and then perhaps in some factory again. The best permanent labour in the Punjab is in the salt mines at Khewra. They are hereditary labourers there, and they seldom leave the factory.

3. (i) The existing methods of recruitment of both skilled and unskilled labour are either (a) direct or (b) indirect. In most factories the labourer presents himself at the factory gate usually in the evening, and if he is required, he is engaged from the next day. This is what I call "direct method." In practice this method works through a Jamadar or the gatekeeper or the mistri, or some other man who is in charge of labour. Generally, the labourer goes to his house privately, flatters him and beseeches him for getting him employed in the factory. He pays to him an amount of money which may be settled between them. Out of this sum generally, he pays some share to his immediate officer, and thus the labourer gets an appointment. This may not be true about the smaller factories, but it is true about the bigger concerns, e.g., North-Western Railway workshops, Dhariwal Mills and so forth. Moreover, it may not be so much true about the unskilled labour, but it is mostly true about the skilled labour. Several cases have been brought to my notice as well where the chageman or the mistri had taken a good amount of money for having a labourer employed in the factory. The evil has taken such a deep root that it has now become almost customary to thus pay to the men who are in a position to get a person employed.

The other method is the "indirect method." The owner or the manager deputed some agents to recruit labour for the factory. Sometimes a requisition is made by the new factories to the gods of the old ones to send their surplus labour to them. The bigger concerns usually employ such an agent. He usually goes to the old established factories rather surreptitiously, and tries to fleece the men from there by holding out all sorts of promises to them. Again, generally, there is always a certain amount of unemployment everywhere. The unemployed flock to the agent, and thus get themselves employed. The agent also often charges some money provided there is sufficient supply of labour to meet his demand.

Another way of recruiting labour is to make a requisition to the Deputy Commissioner of the Criminal Tribes called "Sansis," who might allow a few of them to work in a particular factory. As these men have generally or supposed to have generally criminal propensities, hence very few requisitions are made, and the Deputy Commissioner, after due inquiries, allow the men to be thus employed.

It is only in the North-Western Railway workshops at Moghalpura that labour is now recruited through an employment officer, who is in charge of the Railway Labour Bureau. But in practice, after all, it is the mistri or the chageman who, after getting his usual tip, gets a labourer employed. A relative or an acquaintance or a friend of a mistri, chageman or some clerk or some other official in the factory or workshop gets a job there more easily than those who have no such friends there. This is natural, and it is so found everywhere.

(ii) and (iii) The methods of recruitment described in sub-section (i) are as old as the factories in the Punjab except the new method in North-Western Railway workshops at Moghalpura. The abuse of taking tips and bribery for getting a particular labourer employed is of recent growth. In the good old days the lower strata of our society was very honest, sincere, religious and sympathetic. It is only recently that on account of the economical stringency and the contact with the towns that the evil has crept in. Of course, there can be no judicial proof of such bribery. But the evil does exist, and something ought to be done to do away with it, and thus save the poor labourer from the burden of its ravages.

The only possible improvement that can be effected in this respect is to establish labour bureaus throughout the Punjab. These public employment agencies would be, in my opinion, of considerable help to the poor labourer. In the first place, the

evil of tips or bribery will surely be eradicated to a great extent. Secondly, the unemployed workers will be able to get up-to-date and authentic information as regards the demand for labour in a particular factory. Thirdly, they will come to know of their future prospectuses attaching to the particular job. Fourthly, the labourer will get a suitable post in accordance with his qualifications. The public employment agencies will thus prove a boon to the labourers and workmen. I have no doubt that by their establishment, much of the discontentment among labour will disappear.

From a study of the existing methods of recruitment described above, one can easily come to the conclusion that they are at once so unsatisfactory and so crude that some improvement is really called for. The recruitment ought to be regularized and put on some certain and satisfactory basis. No better possible method can be devised than the establishment of the labour bureaus or public employment agencies. So there is no question of the desirability of establishing them. The sooner they are established, the better it is.

If employers are wise, they should not, in their own interests, object to the establishment of these agencies. Through them, they can get the labour most suitable for their purposes. Now-a-days, on account of lack of information, they get whatever comes before them. Through the agencies they will get the best labourer most suitable for a particular job in the factory. We might in this respect follow the example of the various civil engineering colleges, motor training colleges, electrical colleges through which a number of skilled labourers are recruited as described in Section 1 (b) of this chapter. Recently an association called the Northern India Automobile Association has been started in Lahore. A number of the motor owners get their motor drivers or mechanics through it, and are quite satisfied. If this can be done as regards the supply of recruitment of motor drivers or motor mechanics or electricians or draftsmen or surveyors and other skilled labour to the great advantage of both the employer and the employed, I fail to see why the same method cannot be adopted as regards the unskilled labour and the other skilled labour. The example set by the North-Western Railway Employment Bureau should be followed throughout the Punjab.

I would therefore most humbly venture to suggest that in the well-known factory areas in the Punjab, and at those places where the more important industrial undertakings are situated, labour bureaus or public employment agencies should be established. They should be organized in close collaboration with the factory owners. Their office should not be in the factory itself. The bureau or agency should be independent of the factory influence. There may be three members of the bureau or agency—one representing the factory or a group of factories, in latter case he should be elected by them, the other representing the labour, usually a trade union official elected for the purpose and the third member should be a Government official.

If there is no properly organized trade union, the labourers should be asked to elect someone to represent them on the bureau or agency. The members may meet as often as there need be. All factory owners within the sphere of influence of a particular bureau or agency should be required to recruit their labour through it. At first there might be some trouble with some of the factory owners, but in the long run, as explained above, they are sure to realize that it is to their advantage to thus recruit their labour both skilled and unskilled. The bureau should keep a regular office and regular register of candidates with their full qualifications, age and other necessary particulars. Similarly, it should keep a register of requisitions. In this the needs of labour of a particular factory should be entered with the necessary particulars. The members then after judging the qualifications of and having a personal interview with the candidate, should decide whether he should be employed or not for a particular factory. The members should fix the wages of the candidate with due regard to all the interests concerned. In my opinion, the bureau should not be a mere recruiting agency, but it should also decide all questions arising between the employer and the employee. In other words it should act as a court of appeal of the master or servant. All questions incidental to the service conditions should be referred to it. For instance, dismissals, fines, bad workmanship and so forth, should be decided by the bureau or agency.

I need not go into greater details of the working of the bureau or agency than what I have described above. The details might be worked by a special committee appointed for the purpose. I would propose that a legislation for the establishment of labour bureaus or public employment agencies should be taken in hand, and thus the great problem of the relations of the employer and the employed might be solved.

One question remains to be discussed in this respect. That is the question of financing the bureau or agency. I think that as the establishment of such bureaus or agencies will be beneficial to both the employer and the employee, and they will be conducive not only to better relations their but also to promote order and peace, it should be the Government who should bear all the expenses. At any rate, the Government should do so till such time as the employer and the employee will get

used to the system, and will realize its advantages. The expenses will not be heavy. The three members of the bureau will be honorary. Not more than two clerks or so will be quite sufficient to do the work. After a few years' experience, the factory or the factories and then after some time, the trade unions may be required to share the expenses. To my mind, it is a practical scheme and is worth giving a trial.

4. If it is true and my experience is that it is true, that wealth is the source of all such evils as are referred to in the above subject, then I can state without any fear of contradiction that there is no question as a rule of the disturbance of family life whether the male labourer leaves his wife at home or whether she were to work as a labourer in an industrial undertaking along with other men. It is only in the richer strata of society that family life is disturbed generally by the abovementioned and other circumstances. Poverty tends to make one honest, pious and God-fearing. Among the labouring classes the cases of the disturbance of family life are very few and far between indeed. Apart from the above sentimental grounds, there are other reasons also for the non-disturbance of family life. The labourer generally, as explained in Section (1) of this chapter, works in a factory not far from his home, and therefore he frequently returns to his wife and children. Again, there is more or less joint family system in the Punjab. The wife lives with either the parents of the labourer or with other relatives. They look after her. Moreover, as in the villages, there is one compact brotherhood, therefore there is not so great a danger of leaving a young woman alone as there is in the towns where the population is of a cosmopolitan character. At home she does not remain idle. She either works on the fields or performs some other household duties. Thus her thoughts seldom go astray, and it is really seldom that we hear cases of her illicit connection with other men. Likewise, the labourer also lives a pious life, and never thinks of establishing illicit connections with other women. Again, the woman labourer in the factories if of pretty grown-up age, is generally married, and works along with her husband or some relatives. All this goes to show that the family life of a labourer is generally happy, and it is only very seldom that we hear of any disturbance of family life among this class of people.

7. *Unemployment.*—(i) A Punjabi is by nature a very hardy man. He is not fastidious or swanky as the people of the United Province, and some of other provinces are. He does not regard to do any work, however menial it may be, below his dignity. He is a very adventurous person also. If he cannot find work here in the Punjab, he would go to other provinces and countries to earn his livelihood. If he cannot find any work according to his taste or to his particular calling, he will do some other work. Idle he will never remain. So there can be no question of unemployment of a serious nature among the labourers and workmen of a nation of the above character.

I have already said that the Punjabi labourer whether skilled or unskilled, has not developed an industrial proletarian mentality. So if he cannot find work in a factory or in a workshop, he would go to the Canal Colonies of Lyallpur and Montgomery and work as an agricultural labourer there. In the Canal Colonies, labour is always required there. So it is mostly due to the Canal Colonies that the problem of unemployment in this province has not very seriously faced the authorities. Moreover, the industries in the Punjab are on the increase daily. Factories after factories are being opened every year. Thanks to the order and peace established so nobly by the British Government, the province is developing itself industrially very rapidly, and it is therefore that there is practically no unemployment among the labouring classes here. With the opening up of the Mandi Hydro-Electric works in the near future, there will be a net of industries throughout the country, and whatever unemployment there is, it will surely be done away with. So I can safely say that the problem of unemployment in this province need not worry us much.

The Punjab Government, sometime ago, appointed a committee to make an inquiry into the question of unemployment in the Punjab. The committee unanimously found that there was no unemployment worth the name among the labouring classes, by which term they meant the manual workers with whom we are here mostly concerned.

(ii) Whatever little unemployment there may be, it is all voluntary. Dismissal from his job seldom worries a Punjabi labourer. There is seldom any retrenchment in any industrial undertaking nowadays. These are days of development. We require more labour everywhere. The financial stringency and economic distress due to the aftermath of the Great War is over, and therefore the notorious "axe" of the Retrenchment Committee is dead and gone, and I hope for ever. Hence I say that no unemployment is caused nowadays to any appreciable extent by either dismissals or retrenchment.

As I have said, if there is any unemployment it is all voluntary. There are some labourers, although their number is very few, who work for a little while, then kick off their job and would not seek another employment until the last pie jingling in

their pockets has been spent. Similarly, there are some labourers who work in the seasonal factories and remain idle in the off season. They remain idle not because they cannot find work elsewhere, but on account of their apathy to do any other work than in the seasonal factories.

(iii) *Possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress.*—When there is practically no unemployment in the Punjab, it seems to me unnecessary to dilate upon this subject in any detail. Suffice it to say, that whatever little unemployment there is, it will automatically go away when the Mandi Hydro Electric Works will be in full working order. Again, the benign policy of the Government of developing the industries in the Punjab, has solved, and will I hope, further solve the problem of unemployment. The Government should vigorously carry on this policy and should see that the Mandi Hydro-Electric Works supply the electric current as soon as possible and at a cheap rate. Both from the industrial and labour point of views, much depends on the success of the Mandi scheme.

I have already suggested in Sub-sections (ii) and (iii) of Section (3) of this chapter the establishment of the public employment agencies or labour bureaux. If they are established, the question of unemployment will be reduced to a negligible point. At present there may be some labourers who may not know whether they are required somewhere or not. The bureau or agency can easily inform them of certain jobs waiting for them. So these are some of the possible methods of alleviating and remedying the distress caused by the unemployment among the labouring classes.

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*—There is no such system in vogue in the Punjab. In fact, its need has never been keenly felt, for as stated in the previous sub-sections, there is not much unemployment here. If such a system is introduced in this province, it will be all the more beneficial to poor labourers indeed. Although much labour spirit has not yet been created among the labourers, still with the growth of their organizations under the Indian Trade Unions Act, the benefits of the unemployment insurance can be brought home to them, and the scheme can succeed here to the advantage of the labouring classes of this province.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

11. The selection of the managing staff of an industrial undertaking is the business of the capitalist. He will, therefore, be in a better position to speak on this subject than my humble self. All that I know is that in almost all the bigger factories and workshops in the Punjab, the managing staff is imported from England. As an example, I may quote the North-Western Railway Workshops, the Dhariwal Mills, Attock Oil Refinery, Portland Cement Works at Wah, and the Paper Factory at Jagadhri. It may be true in some cases that qualified Indians are not available for the particular posts, but where Indians are available they are generally not given an opportunity of showing their worth. Thanks to the slave mentality of the Indians, a foreigner is generally regarded as a better officer or manager than an Indian. It is, therefore, that in almost all the bigger factories, the chief manager, the works manager, and in some even the foremen are Europeans. In these factories, a European or Anglo-Indian or even an Indian Christian who has adopted European manners, dress and language, has a better chance of being selected as a member of the managing staff on account of his supposed superiority than an Indian, however better qualified he may be than his rival European or Anglo-Indian. Some of the graduates of the MacLagan Engineering College at Moghalpura, however, are now taken on the managing staff of the North-Western Railway workshops. It is generally the agent of the North Western Railway who selects the higher officers of the managing staff on the recommendation of the chief mechanical engineer. The other members of this staff are generally selected by the said engineer or the works manager who are generally appointed by the railway board.

In the second rate factories it all depends upon the whim and sweet will of either the owner or the directorate to appoint one or not on the managing staff. In these factories, it is generally the Indians who are appointed. There they do not look so much to the qualifications as to such considerations as the relationship between the candidate and the owner or some influential director. They do look to the experience of the man to run a factory and to control the labour.

Whether the industrial undertakings are big or small, no worker has ever risen to the managing staff. It is so not because of the incapacity of the worker to rise, but because no chance and no encouragement is given to him to rise.

12. No facilities whatsoever are given by the industrial undertakings for the training of workmen as supervisors or as some other officer. His practical training in a factory might have secured him a place on the supervising staff, but such cases are very few and far between indeed. A workman has, therefore, no incentive to

make any improvement. This is a most sorry state of affairs so far as labourers and workmen are concerned. I would, therefore, suggest that in at least the Government controlled factories and industrial undertakings some suitable facilities ought to be provided for the training and promotion of the workers. Night industrial schools ought to be opened near the factory or near the labourer's residential areas, and training should be given there.

13. *Relations between Staff and Rank and File*—(iii) *Works committees*.—No such committees exist in the Punjab. Their establishment will remove many hardships under which the labourers and workmen simply groan. There is no machinery provided except the ordinary courts which the poor labourer may move for compelling the employer to pay his wages. The result is that he often foregoes his wages and except wishing bad luck to his master, with a heavy heart, reposing his trust in God and hoping to get his dues on the Judgment Day he does nothing, and the poor man is made to suffer.

Under these circumstances I would strongly suggest that works committees should be established as soon as possible. The system of such committees is not entirely unknown to this country. We have already what we call punchayat system. All petty disputes in the villages are set at rest by these punchayats. The labourers, therefore, would simply welcome these committees and I see no reason why the employer should have any objection to their being constituted.

(iv) *Works councils and industrial councils*.—Nowhere in the Punjab, except I think in the North-Western Railway Workshops, works councils or industrial councils exist. I believe that if these councils are constituted they will be of immense advantage both to the employers and the employees. In order to take the latter into confidence it will be better to have their representatives on these bodies.

15. *Contractors as Intermediaries*.—For the majority of the ills of the poor labourer and workman in this province, these greedy contractors are certainly responsible. Nobody is so hard on the labourer as these contractors are. For their selfish ends they would overwork the labourer, would not pay their wages regularly and would treat them as slaves. I would suggest in this respect that the real employer i.e., the one who has engaged the contractor should be made responsible for the labour working under him.

### III.—Housing.

16. (i) I would suggest that a provision be inserted in the Indian Factories Act compelling owners of industrial undertakings to build suitable houses for the labourers and workmen after a plan sanctioned by the Public Works Department, Health Department and the Factories Department. No new factory should be allowed to be opened unless suitable accommodation is provided for the labour there. These houses should be free of rent. It should be provided that when there is an industrial dispute within the meaning of the Indian Trade Disputes Act, the employer is not entitled to have the houses vacated. They should be repaired annually at the expense of the employer and the factory inspector should see that the houses are in good condition.

(ii) The private landlords as shown in the next sub section, charge exorbitant rents which the poor labourer cannot afford to pay on account of the low wages. I would therefore suggest that either the Government itself or the municipalities and district boards should build houses for the labourers specially and should charge nominal rents for them.

(iii) No special houses have been built by the private landlords for the labourers and workmen. Anybody can rent them. There is no doubt that cheap and smaller houses are generally rented by the labourers. But the system of chawls, as said already, does not exist in the Punjab. Most of these houses are hopelessly insanitary and unhealthy and therefore unfit for human beings to live in. The municipal committees should be asked to prohibit the occupation of these houses and should insist on their being improved.

17. There are no special facilities provided for the acquisition of land for the workers' houses. No company and no society exist which might help a worker to acquire land for his building a house there. In my opinion, some such facility ought to be provided either by providing a special provision in the Land Acquisition Act or some such legislation as the proposed Punjab Acquisition of Land (Industrial) Bill with certain modifications. The principle of acquiring land by authority has already been established by the Land Acquisition Act. Under the Act, the Government is empowered to acquire any land for a Government purpose. Similarly,

land can be acquired for a railway, canal, and other public purposes mentioned in the Act. If to these purposes, the purpose of acquiring land for workers' houses is also added, then the difficulty of finding accommodation for workers can be minimised to a great extent.

In the Punjab Legislative Council in 1921, the Punjab Acquisition of Land (Industrial) Bill was introduced. The object of the Bill was to "facilitate the purchase of land voluntarily sold for industrial purposes." It had to be dropped on account of the opposition from the rural members of the Council. Had the bill not been confined to industrial purposes only but to the labour purposes also, e.g., acquisition of land for worker's houses, I am sure the bill would have never met the fate it did. The rural members would certainly never have opposed it for then they would have realized that the benefit of the Bill will also go to the agricultural classes from whom most of the workers in the industrial undertakings are drawn. If the Bill is again introduced in the form that I have suggested, it is sure to be passed.

18. Most of the houses in which labourers and workers live generally, are worse than dungeons. Even the dogs of the rich people live in better kennels than the houses the labourers pass their lives in. Most awfully dirty, most hopelessly insanitary, most thoroughly unhealthy and limited accommodation are the chief features of these houses. Generally they consist of one single room only in which the whole family of the labourer live. Even the railway quarters, the Dhariwal mill and other factories' quarters are not much better than the houses above described. Wherever newly built factories provide labour quarters they are better in every respect.

Worker's spirit has not yet been sufficiently aroused to demand a certain type of house. Their activities are yet confined more or less to the wage question. Whenever in the list of demands or grievances the housing question is also included, it is not pressed. Generally no particular attention is paid to the labourer's houses from the health, sanitary, lighting, conservancy and water supply points of view. The Health Officer or the Municipal Committee who sanction the plan of the factory passes it blindly so far as the quarters for labourers are concerned, for they consider it below their dignity to worry about the health sanitation, conservancy, and water supply of the labourers. The members and officers of the municipalities are capitalists and it is therefore they pay no heed to the requirements of the poor labourers and workmen.

21. (c) *Eviction.*—This is a rather serious matter and often very embarrassing to a worker. As soon as a labourer is dismissed or he leaves service on his own accord against the wishes of his employer, he is turned out at once bag and baggage from the house he was occupying. Again when there is a strike then the employer orders the labour to vacate the quarter. This is always done by the employer to break a strike. For instance when there was a strike in 1924 in the North-Western Railway Moghalpura workshops, all labourers were turned out of their quarters. The police broke open the locks and threw away the furniture and other belongings of the labourer on the road side. Similarly in the Dhariwal mill strike, the labourers were turned out of their quarters by police force. These forcible evictions are certainly a great hardship on the poor labourer. In case of his dismissal or his voluntarily leaving his job, some sufficient time ought to be given to him to clear out from the quarter. When there is a strike the labourer should not be evicted at all. So long as there is a strike, the labourer is in the eye of the law an employee and hence he cannot be evicted. Such was my argument in a case brought by one, Mr. Baker—a striker against the agent North-Western railway during the North-Western railway strike of 1924. I was successful in getting a temporary injunction but eventually the suit was dismissed, as was expected, on a technical point and the injunction was discharged. Mr. Baker was therefore evicted from his quarters all the same. If the power of eviction is taken away from the employers during a strike, it will strengthen the hands of labour immensely and strikes will not so often be failures.

#### IV.—Health.

23. (iii) (a) In the Government controlled and the bigger industrial undertakings, the working conditions are generally satisfactory. There is enough air and enough light in the factory. In the summer, however, on account of the tin-sheet roofs, heat inside the workshops is simply intolerable. At mid-day, when the sun is at its zenith, the workshop is worse than an oven. The poor labourers have to work there in the killing heat of the inside. In the smaller factories, and more particularly in the majority of the cotton ginning and flour mills, the air and light is not enough.



There too, the roofs are of tin sheets generally, so it becomes very hot indeed inside the factory. It is a most pitiable sight indeed to see a labourer working in summer inside the factory in such an atmosphere. Many workers faint on account of the most intense and intolerable heat. Something should really be done to better the working conditions inside the factories in summer. I would humbly suggest that the tin sheet roofs be thatched in the hot months and fans should be provided in every workroom. There should be some special arrangement for cold water for the labourers and for protecting them from the hot blasts. Anti-sunstroke methods should always be ready in the summer in the factory. I would further suggest in this respect that no one should be allowed to start a factory unless its plans were duly sanctioned by a competent authority as is already referred to in Chapter III. Again the factories should never be inside a town or city. They should always be some distance away from the habitation.

(iv) The usual diet of an average labourer is the same coarse and simple food which an average villager eats. They generally eat "dal and chapati." Sometimes he has to go without "dal" even and has to content himself with a little salt or sugar. His food generally is neither sufficient in quantity nor sufficiently nutritious in quality. He will buy the season's cheapest vegetables. Often he gets the worst vegetables available in the market for they are cheap and suit his poor pocket.

(v) The general health and general physique of the average labourer is generally good. This is due more to the congenial and invigorating climate of the Punjab than to the conditions in the factories. In the majority of the factories in the Punjab, the conditions obtaining there are not conducive to the general health of the labourers and workmen. Apart from the nature of the work which in most factories is directly against the principles of health and physique, the conditions in factories tell heavily on them. For example, there is too much dust, particularly in the cotton and ginning factories and there is too much heat not only in the engine rooms but in the places where the workmen have to work. Save the few bigger factories, most of the rest are awfully dirty. No heed is paid to cleanliness. No one cares to keep the place clean. The labourers also are not of clean habits. All these things have their own effect on the physique of the labourers and workmen. In order to avoid all these things, I would suggest that sanitary inspectors ought to be employed in the bigger factories. In the smaller ones, it ought to be the duty of the municipal committee to see that the factory is clean as required by the Factories Act and the rules thereunder.

25. (i) Speaking generally, medical facilities wherever provided are fully utilised. The labourers and workmen have not now any great prejudice against the Allopathic system of medicine provided they can get the treatment free. But if they have to pay, then they prefer to go to a hakim or vaid. The Bagaria labourer still hesitates to go to a hospital and prefers his own treatment.

(ii) For ordinary diseases, the women labourers generally do not care and hesitate to go to a hospital. If things have gone a bit too far, then they go to a doctor. For their peculiar diseases, they prefer their own dais to the lady doctor or the trained midwife. There is a reason for that. In the first place, they or their husbands or fathers cannot afford to engage a lady doctor or trained midwife. Secondly, they cannot afford the cost of the lady doctor or trained midwife's treatment. Thirdly, they do not get nice treatment from them. Fourthly, on account of the time-honoured custom and the natural shyness, they prefer the dai's treatment which is simpler and cheaper.

26. (a) (i) The conditions of latrines both at work places and at home are simply awful. Such bad smells emit from these latrines that it is impossible to stand there. In some of the bigger factories, phenyle is used and the latrines are kept clean, but in other factories, the less said the better. On account of the most insanitary condition of the latrines, labourers generally go to the open as is the custom in the villages in this province.

Again at home in the cities the conditions of latrines are simply disgraceful. The scavenger comes but once in the 24 hours. No disinfectants are used. The attention of health officers of the municipal committees should be particularly drawn to this disgraceful state of affairs. At the work places, it should be insisted on the employer that suitable arrangements be made for the cleaning of the latrines according to the requirements of the Punjab factory rules.

28. So far as the present stage of development of industry in this province is concerned, the present Factories and Mines Acts and the rules made thereunder are, to my mind, quite suitable. There are however a few changes here and there required

but the pity is that no suitable machinery is provided for to enforce the provisions of the acts and rules with greater vigour. At present so far as the Punjab is concerned, there is only one Inspector of Factories and another additional has recently been added. And these two inspectors are expected to visit more than 600 factories in the Punjab, more than 60 in the Delhi province, about 25 in Ajmere and about 15 in Merwara and 24 in the North-West Frontier Province. That means to say that they must visit and inspect more than 725 factories throughout the year if the Factories Act is to be really complied with. This seems to me impossible. It is therefore that the Factories Act is so much avoided and is to all intents and purposes a mere dead letter. It is a mere show on the part of the Government. The Report of the Inspector of Factories for the year 1928 show that of the 559 factories, "409 were inspected once, 102 twice and 18 thrice" (vide page 3 of the Report). This shows how utterly impossible it is for the staff to see that the provisions of the Act are really complied with. One inspection in the year is practically no inspection at all. I would therefore suggest that at least half a dozen inspectors of factories with full powers ought to be appointed for the Punjab only.

Again, the penalties provided in the Act for the non-compliance of the provisions of the Act are too meagre. Mere fines will not do. It is no deterrent punishment for a rich capitalist to be fined a few rupees for a factory offence which entails no moral turpitude and which is not looked upon by the employers as an offence at all. Again the courts are also very lenient towards the factories' owners. The present Inspector of Factories who is a very able, sincere and honest officer told me that he prosecuted a factory owner for employing child labour and overworking his men. The man was fined only Rs. 10 by the court. Now such a small amount of fine is really a paying concern for him. Hence under these circumstances, I would suggest that Chapter VII of the Indian Factories Act should be thoroughly overhauled and the offenders should be punished with rigorous imprisonment of at least one year and a heavy fine of at least 1,000 rupees for each offence committed.

(i) By virtue of the Indian Factories Act, the Government exercises control over the factories so far as sanitation, ventilation, lighting, humidification, latrine and urinal accommodation, water supply opening out of doors, escape from fire, fencing, repairs, etc., are concerned. But it can exercise no control over the keeping down or keeping up the temperature in the factories. No provision is made as regards the control of temperature. As suggested in Chapter (IV), Section 23, Sub-section (iii) a provision ought to be added to the Indian Factories Act (Chapter III) to the effect that the tin roofs of the factories ought to be thatched in summer and the temperature ought to be kept below 90 degrees by artificial means in the workshops and work-houses where the labourers have to work. Again it ought to be provided that anti-sun-stroke methods ought to be kept ready in every factory in case of emergency in summer.

(ii) (a) According to Section 12 of the Indian Factories Act, it is incumbent on every factory owner to use pure water for producing humidity. I cannot say whether this provision is always complied with by the owners or not. Anyhow, the Punjab Government has now drafted rules with regard to the control of humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills. If these rules are enforced then "the control of humidity by prohibiting the introduction of live steam into any room where the temperature is more than 85 degrees F. will assure comparatively comfortable conditions to operatives."

30. *Sickness Insurance.*—(i) *Suitability of International Labour Convention.*—The Punjab Government constituted a small committee in February last with the Director of Industries as its chairman to go into the problem and report accordingly. I had the honour to be a labour member of this committee.

To the Report of the Committee, I appended a Minute of Dissent.\* I was of opinion that the scope of the scheme was kept too limited by the committee and I suggested its application to other workers as well. Again I was of opinion that the contribution by the employer should be a little higher than the employee. I suggested that instead of equal contribution among the parties, it should be in the following proportion :—The State, one third; the employer, five-twelfths; the employee, one fourth. I also suggested that the scheme should be compulsory.

31. *Maternity Benefits.*—I think there is a possibility of legislation provided in the first place the scheme is not costly and secondly if the employer is not to pay a heavy premium.

\* Mr. Ghani's Minute of Dissent is printed in Appendix V to the Memorandum of the Government of India.

## V.—Welfare.

34. (i)—*Provision for Refreshments, Shelters and Creches.*—No such provisions are made anywhere in the Punjab. I think that at the present stage of development of the country in general and the labour movement in particular, a provision for refreshments and creches will not be a success for a long time to come. A labourer being a member of the lower strata of society is more caste-ridden and therefore more orthodox than most of those of higher strata. A Hindu labourer would not eat food cooked or even touched by a non-Hindu. Similarly a Mussalman labourer also would not cherish food cooked by a Hindu cook. If the refreshment system is introduced it would mean the engagement of as many cooks as there are castes or religions of the labourers. The employer will have to provide not only separate kitchens but separate places for the labourers to take their food. No employer can at present be induced to embark upon such a costly scheme.

The "creches" system will also be a failure. An Indian mother can hardly dare entrust her child or children to a nurse or some other keeper of a nursery. This is all the more true in the case of a woman labourer. Any such system, if introduced in the Punjab, much as I would like it to be introduced, will be doomed to failure.

Of the three things mentioned in this subsection, "shelters" ought to be introduced at once. In a number of factories, I have seen labourers without any shelter whatsoever and either taking shelter from the sun under some tree or running to a verandah when it is raining. Such shelters are badly needed by the tonga drivers and motor drivers throughout the Province. Even in the premier city of Lahore there is no shed for the motor drivers where they can park their motors or lorries. I approached the authorities some time ago to provide such shelters, but no result has so far come out of it. At my representation, the Simla Municipality has now agreed to provide more shelters for rickshaw drivers there.

(ii) *Provision for Physical Culture, Recreation and Amusements.*—Except in the cement factory at Wah, no such provision exists in any industrial undertaking in the Punjab for physical culture and amusements and recreation. If the provision is introduced it will be a great success indeed. A Punjabi is by nature very fond of wrestling. One can see thousands and thousands of people even from distant places rushing forth to see a wrestling match. If the "Akhara" system is introduced in the factories and other industrial undertakings, a number of labourers and workmen are sure to take part in it. Again if for the evening some recreation or amusements are provided, they will also be very popular. For instance, a singing party may be arranged or music party may be engaged now and then to provide amusements and recreation.

37. Some provision is certainly and necessarily desirable for not only old age retirements but for old age pensions too. Such a provision now exists in almost all the civilized countries. It is really unjust for any employer to take work from a labourer when he is young and to throw him overboard when he has become old. Nor is it justified in any sense to compel a labourer to work in his old age. So I would submit that in the Indian Factories Act a provision ought to be inserted providing old age retirements and old age pensions or provident funds and gratuities. In the Punjab, however, I think the system of provident fund would be more practicable and possible than the old age pensions. Here in this province the labourer is migratory. Industrial undertakings are on a small scale. Hence the system of old age pensions cannot work properly here. Let the employer deduct say one anna per rupee and add one anna himself together with compound interest and give this provident fund to the employee whenever he retires from his employ. Similarly, out of the profit made by an undertaking, some amount ought to be set apart for distribution among the employees as gratuity as suggested hereafter:

## VI.—Education.

40. To my mind, nothing but free and compulsory education will solve the great problem of education which is our greatest desideratum. Employers cannot be expected to provide good schools for the education of the workers and their children. I would therefore suggest that the Government should be approached to open schools in the industrial areas and promulgate a law whereby worker's children should be compulsorily sent for at least five years.

There is much talk in the country about free education. I am against education being made free for all. Those who can pay the fees of their children must pay it while those who cannot pay may be excused. Why should a rich man's son be educated free? Hence under these circumstances, I would suggest that the children of those whose income is less than Rs. 150 a month should be educated free up to

the highest standard of a college. Those having an income of less than Rs. 300 a month should pay one-half of the fees in the college and full fees of the school and so forth. In this way, a labourer's son will be educated and the state would not lose its income which it gets in the form of fees.

41. Except in the Government industrial schools, and the North-Western Railway's practical training to the graduates of the Moghalpura College, no facility is provided by any employer to give an industrial or vocational training. The result is that once an unskilled labourer—always an unskilled labourer. Even the skilled labourers seldom rise higher than a mistri. I would therefore suggest that along with the ordinary school in industrial areas, night industrial classes should be started by the Government. The employers should also be asked to contribute a little to the upkeep of these schools and classes, for, ultimately it is they who will be benefitted.

#### VII.—Safety.

43. (i) The regulations for safety in factories in the Punjab are contained in the Punjab Factory Rules made by the Punjab Government under Section 37 of the Indian Factories Act (XII of 1911). These rules are fairly exhaustive and very suitable indeed for the purpose they are made.

But they are paper provisions after all. Seldom are they followed and they are put in force only when the Inspector of Factories pays a surprise visit. These provisions will not to my mind be of much help to labour unless the number of inspectors of factories is increased as already submitted, and again unless a thorough "safety" propaganda is done among the factory workers. It is true that an abstract of these rules is posted at the outer gates of the factories, but as almost all the workers are illiterate, they seldom read them. It should be made compulsory for a manager or foreman of a factory to read these rules to the workers on the first of every month.

45. According to the report of the factories inspector for 1928, mill gearing shafts and pulleys claim the largest proportion of fatal and serious accidents. As the inspector shows, these accidents were invariably the result of the workers being entangled with the belting and consequently being drawn into the pulleys. This entanglement with the belting is mostly due to the loose clothing of the workers. The provision in the Factory Rules prohibiting the wearing of loose clothes should be rigorously enforced.

In some of the workshops, injuries to the eyes are most frequent. As the inspector of factories suggests, eye protectors ought to be given to the workers whose eyes are in danger of being hurt. In fact it will be far better if the provision of the eye-protectors is inserted in the Factory Rules. Again, most of the accidents are due to the worker's ignorance of the Factory Rules and the Factory Act.

Another cause of accidents is that new machinery is introduced with which the worker is not acquainted. A provision ought to be inserted in the Factory Rules that only that worker is to work a machine for which he has been declared fit by the inspector of factories. Often an unskilled and inexperienced worker is put to work machinery. This ought to be rigorously discouraged. Again, sometimes accidents are due to the carelessness, fatigue, sleeplessness, indisposition and general depression of the worker. It ought to be provided that it is incumbent on a manager to see that the worker is quite fit to handle the machinery before he is put there.

47. Accidents in non-regulated factories may be taken to be in the same proportion as in the regulated factories. If in the non-regulated factories, the machinery is not complicated, the safety measures also do not exist there in the same way as in the regulated factories. I think it will be far better if the factories employing five or more than five workers on any one day in the year are also brought under the Factories Act, and thus regulated in order to give the workers there the benefits of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder.

48. "First Aid" as such is practically unknown in our Factories as yet. Among the workers there is none who could render "First Aid" in case of an accident. When an accident occurs, either the victim is sent straight to the Hospital or someone among the superior staff renders "First Aid." In the interest of the workers, it is necessary that "First Aid" methods ought to be taught to some of the workers who may be of some help in case of an accident. Some of the more advanced and clever skilled workers would surely volunteer to be trained in "First Aid."

49. (i) On account of the paucity of the inspectors of factories as already stated in chapter IV Section 28, very few inspections are made and it is therefore that the regulations contained in the Indian Factories Act and the Punjab Factory Rules cannot be properly enforced. For Punjab, N.W.F. Province, Delhi, Ajmere, and Marwara, there is one Inspector of Factories and one additional inspector. Even these two are not sufficient for the Punjab only. I would therefore suggest that for every one hundred factories, there ought to be at least one inspector as already submitted. It will be then and then only, that the regulations would be properly obeyed and adhered to. At present, they are not much cared for, and they are honoured more in their breach than in their obedience.

(ii) The remarks made above as regards the breach of the Factory Laws apply with great vengeance to the seasonal factories. They are the greatest breakers of the factory legislation. Being hard pressed for time to gin and bale the cotton within a short period, they cast aside the laws, take risks and do whatever they like. They play all sorts of dodges either to avoid inspection by the Inspector of Factories or get timely information of his visit and set things right to show him. If more inspectors are employed, there will be greater detection and the poor labourer will be saved many a hardship he has to bear in these so called seasonal factories.

### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) *General remarks.*—The Workmen's Compensation Act came into force in India for the first time in its history in July, 1924. Although it was a boon for the workers, but on account of their illiteracy, the majority of the workers knew nothing about it for a good many months. Even during the early years of its working the number of claims were low as compared with the number of accidents. The labourers are now—thanks to the spread of the labour movement—gradually acquiring familiarity with the Act and are claiming compensation under it. The number of claims increase year after year. This is not due to the increase in accidents, but it is due to the putting in of claims in greater numbers. Even now every effort is being made by the employers either to deprive the victim of an accident altogether or to give a few rupees out of Court and thus avoid his applying to the Commissioner for full compensation.

*Causes of paucity of claims.*—Naturally the greatest and foremost cause of not taking full advantage afforded by the Act is the illiteracy of the workers. It is therefore that they are ignorant of its advantages and their rights. Their poverty also plays a great part in depriving them of the benefits of the Act. Again they find it most difficult to secure legal assistance, at a nominal cost. They cannot pay the high fees of the good lawyers. Then, it is most difficult for them to produce their fellow workers as eye-witness in a Court of Law. They do not appear for the fear of losing their jobs. The procedure of the Courts is also very lengthily and complicated. It is therefore that most of the labourers generally accept a small sum out of Court and avoid pressing their claims in the Court.

*Suggestions.*—In order to give to the workers full benefit of the Compensation Act, it is necessary to carry on a thorough propaganda among them about it. Just as an abstract of the Indian Factories Act and the Punjab Factory Rules is hung up at the gates of a factory both in Urdu and English, similarly it should be provided that an abstract of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act should be put up there. Just as I have previously suggested about the Factory Rules, the salient features of the Act may also be read to all the workers on the 1st of every month by the manager or foreman of an industrial undertaking. Then it should be provided that every accident must be reported with full particulars to the inspector of factories. The breach of this provision should be made penal. The Commissioner appointed under the Act should take action *suo moto*. Every claim even if compromised out of Court must come before the Commissioner to see if the compensation claimed or is paid in accordance with the Act. No Court fee should be required in Compensation cases. Even the diet money of the witnesses should be paid by the Government. The Public Prosecutors should be ordered to appear free for the claimants and press their claim before the Court. If this is not desirable then special pleaders should be retained by the Government to conduct the compensation cases on behalf of the claimants. All compensation cases should be heard and decided at the factory where the accident has occurred. Other suggestions will be found in their proper places in the various sections of this chapter.

(v) It is very desirable indeed to make it compulsory for the employers to insure their workmen against all possible accidents. If it is not made compulsory, very few employers would come forward to insure their workmen and the results would not be good either for the employer or the worker. Insurance saves both the employer and the employee from many a botheration as stated above.

53. (i) The amount of compensation is most hopelessly inadequate and requires an immediate increase. I think the amounts were intentionally thus fixed. The Act was totally a new measure and it was not known how the employers would take it. Now that the Act has been in work for more than 5 years and no employer has felt any difficulty in complying with its provisions, I believe it is time now to double the amounts fixed by Section 4 and Schedule 1 of the Act.

(ii) As the Act stands at present, according to Section 3 (1), it is not every personal injury nor even every personal injury by accident which makes an employer liable for compensation. According to Section 4, the amount of compensation depends on whether the injury results in death, permanent total or partial disablement or temporary disablement whether total or partial. Again the employer is not liable where the injury does not result in the total or partial disablement of the workman for a period exceeding ten days or in the case of a workman employed in the construction, repair, or demolition of a building or bridge where the injury does not result in death or permanent total disablement. His liability does not extend to every case in which death or disablement follows a personal injury to a workman. His liability is limited by various considerations.

Some of them are very wholesome indeed others seems to be unnecessary and uncalled for. For example why a worker should be deprived of his compensation if his injury were to last for less than 10 days. Nor is there any reason for not providing for compensation where neither death or disablement results from the injury. The stringent provisions as regards notice and period of limitation for filing application for compensation are necessarily hard. The workers are illiterate and they cannot be expected to know the procedure. Many a claim has been dismissed for want of notice or limitation. Moreover as regards the "disregard" provisions, the onus should not be on the worker but on the employer. When an accident occurs, it must be presumed that the employer is liable unless he can prove it to the contrary.

(iii) No provision is made for the diseases arising out of smoke or gas or electricity and so forth. Again workers working in mines particularly in Salt Mines get all sorts of diseases. Some provision ought to be made about them also. Then workers working in lime factories ought also to be included in the list.

(iv) The machinery of administration as described above is not as good as it ought to be. The Senior Sub-Judges are after all Presidents of a Civil Court which has no jurisdiction under the Act (*vide* Section 19 (2)). Hence I think it was not the intention of the Legislature to appoint Civil Judges as Commissioners. These Judges are very busy with their Regular Court work, so they seldom care much for the compensation claims. They do not sufficiently apply their mind to this work. They consider it as a miscellaneous sort of a work and hence treat it as a matter of no consequence. The above criticism as regards the apathy of the Senior Sub-Judge applies with greater force to the Deputy Commissioners who have been appointed as Commissioners under the Act. They are Executive Officers and as such do not know civil law. Hence I do not consider these persons as suitable commissioners to administer the Act. I would suggest that a legal practitioner of good standing and having special knowledge of the Act ought to be appointed as Commissioner for the whole of the Punjab. He should be such a man who has got the sympathy of the labourers at heart and still not against the employers. If such a person is appointed, the Act will be administered to the satisfaction of all.

34. In view of the most satisfactory working of the Indian Workers' Compensation Act, I do not think it is necessary to embark on any other legislation on the lines of the Employers' Liability Act. Certain amendments may however be made in the Workmen's Compensation Act to fill up the gaps and thus the benefit of the Liability Act may be given to the workers.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. Hours have not yet been fully regularized in the Punjab, so far as all the industrial undertakings are concerned. There is no doubt that according to the Indian Factories Act, all the factories which have been brought under the Act, should have their hours regularized according to Section 21, but in practice, the provision is seldom acted upon particularly by the cotton ginning factories, flour mills, and by most of the smaller factories far away from Lahore. The employers are generally in the habit of making their labourers work for longer hours. If they are afraid of anybody it is the Inspector of Factories. So they make all sorts of arrangements for getting information of his visit beforehand and when he does come, everything in the factories is according to law. There are, therefore, very few prosecutions made for overworking the labour.

In the non-regularized factories, i.e., those not brought under the Factories Act, there is no time limit for taking the work from labour, I have known of cases in which a labourer has been made to work for 15 hours and even 18 hours a day. The labourer knows nothing about any International Convention or about the Factories Act. Like a dumb and mute animal he goes on working for as long as his master may like. He thinks he is a slave of his master and must do his will. In the bigger and better organized factories, the hours are of course regularized and the hours fixed are adhered to rigidly both by the employer and the employee.

(i) and (ii) In a good many industries, e.g., building industry, the carpenters, masons, and other unskilled labourers work from 8 in the morning to 6 in the evening, with one hour off for meals. These hours may now be regarded as fixed by custom. Similarly in the printing trade, the workers come at 9 and leave the work at 5. They have also an interval of one half hour in the mid-day for meals, etc. Similarly in the other minor factories, the hours are from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. There is always one hour or half an hour as an interval for meals in the mid-day.

In the carpet factories at Amritsar not coming under the Factories Act the hours are very long indeed. The workers come soon after sunrise and work up to the sunset. They have one hour off as an interval as in other industries. Similar is the case of the hosiery workers of Ludhiana.

57. The effect of restriction of 60 hours a week on industry is very advantageous. It will be still more advantageous if the restriction is further brought down to 48 hours a week. It is common knowledge that a well paid worker would certainly do far more work than he would if he were to linger on half-heartedly for 10 or 12 hours a day. If my suggestion as to 48 hours is accepted, it will be beneficial to the masters as well as their servants.

59. There is a possibility of still further restriction. As I said in Section 57, the hours per week ought to be reduced to 48 hours a week, the daily limit being 8 hours. Out of these 8 hours, one hour or say one half hour as may be agreed upon should be given as an interval after 4 hours' work. Let the workers start the work at 8-30 a.m. in winter and continue it up to 12-30. Then there will be an interval of one hour. They are to begin to work again at 1-30 p.m. and finish their day's work at 4-30 p.m. This means to say that they are to work for 4 hours before the interval and 3 hours after the interval. Similarly some suitable hours may be fixed for the hot weather by mutual agreement between the employers and the employed.

60. (i) In the bigger and more advanced factories, an interval of one hour is generally given at 12 o'clock. During this interval, the workers generally take rest and have their meals. A loud whistle is blown from the engine room, at the appointed hour, the workers come out of the factory, some wash up and take their meals, others lie down and take rest. In the Moghalpura workshops meetings of the union of the workers are generally held during this hour. The speeches of the labour leaders refresh the brains of the workers, infuse new spirit into them and give them hope of their future betterment and amelioration. Thus the worker is satisfied. On comes all of a sudden a low whistle once again, the worker with a gladdened heart hastens to the factory gate again, and again he is on his machine or crane.

## X.—Special Questions re Women, Young Adults and Children.

### A.—Factories.

82. There is no provision in the Indian Factories Act prohibiting the admission of infants to the factories in the Punjab. An Indian mother is too loving and too devoted to her child to keep him or her away even when God has so placed her as to compel her to work in a factory for her livelihood. She must take her child along with her when she enters a factory to work. She cannot bear to leave it behind. I remember the Inspector of Factories issued orders some time ago prohibiting the admission of infants to the factories. These orders have practically been a dead letter and they have been honoured more in their breach than compliance.

I admit that it is not desirable that infants should also accompany their mothers in the factories and thus be susceptible to the bad factory atmosphere from their very infancy but as our society is at present constituted, I think we cannot prohibit their admission by legislation. If we do that, the majority of mothers with children shall cease to work in a factory and thus not only the capitalists but the women labourers too would suffer. I think if orders are issued to the effect that a woman labourer taking her child with her in the factory would be paid a little less than the one not so doing, the evil of admission of infants to the factories would be greatly minimized.

83. Employing women for 11 hours a day is nothing but, to say the least, a gross cruelty. Even if we take 60 hours a week then for all labourers, a day is of 10 hours' duration. Even this is too much for the male labourers but what of the labourers of the weaker sex. I would therefore suggest that it ought to be provided that no woman is to work for more than six hours a day. If women are paid less than the men, they should therefore be required to work for less hours. Again every woman worker should be given one hour's interval after three hours' work. It should also be provided that no woman is to be employed on hard and dangerous work. It is not desirable that female workers should work along with the male workers. The work in the factory should be so arranged as to set apart a particular work or works and it should be provided that women should be employed on such work or works only.

84. (i) Children like to sleep in the morning. It is conducive to their health. Therefore I would suggest that the section should be so amended as to provide that no child shall be employed before 8 o'clock in the morning in the winter and before 7 o'clock in the morning in the summer and shall cease to work at or before 1 o'clock in the afternoon in winter and 12 o'clock in summer. He is to get one hour's interval after working for two hours as discussed in the next heading. Again in Section 23 (c) the word "Six" should be changed to four and this provision should be enforced rigorously. Four hours' work from a child is quite sufficient. To work him for longer hours would mean retarding his growth and depriving him of his education. As suggested elsewhere, after doing the work in the factory, a child should be compulsorily sent to a school to receive his ordinary or technical education there. It will be far better for him if he is imparted the ordinary education and is taught a particular profession from a practical point of view.

If my suggestion as regards the hours for children as explained above is accepted, then Section 21 (b) shall have to be changed accordingly as suggested above. Even if my suggestion *re* the hours is not accepted, then the interval of half an hour must be increased to one hour. This is very essential. Children like to play. On account of being young they become tired after three hours' work, therefore they require sufficiently long rest.

89. *Work of Women and Children in Factories not subject to Act.*—(ii) I have already suggested and I suggest with all the vehemence at my command once more that the provisions of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act ought to be extended to all the factories in the Punjab and thus every factory should be brought under the Act and thus regularized. If the Local Government see it fit to apply the above section to certain cotton and ginning factories there is no reason why it should not be applied to other factories as well. I would therefore suggest the immediate application of this section to each and every blessed factory in the Punjab.

## XII.—Wages.

96 (i). In the Industrial Undertakings in the Punjab, the wages are frightfully and shamefully low. With these low wages, labourers live a very poor life indeed. In no other part of the world perhaps may people be living so poor a life as the labourers and workmen of the Punjab. The wages paid to them are even not sufficient to keep their body and soul together. They wear most scanty and dirty clothes. They live in most dirty and dark houses. They eat the coarse food. Life to them is no pleasure. With most of them it is simply a burden, but as it is naturally dear to every one, therefore they linger on, waiting eagerly for the time when death will relieve them of the misery and poverty which Providence has been pleased to reserve for them.

In most of the factories, the wages of unskilled labourers range from four annas a day to one rupee and four annas or so. Children are generally employed at four annas and even less than that. Adults usually begin from six annas a day and sometimes get eight and even twelve annas when there is a rush of work and labour is scarce. But in no case does a labourer get more than one rupee and eight annas per day at an average. The skilled labourer usually begins from twelve annas a day and can often get even one rupee and eight annas per diem. They often rise to four or five rupees per day when they have become quite experts in a particular calling.

Fortunately Punjab is an agricultural province. Most of the labourers have some land the produce of which goes a long way in supplementing their earnings, and thus they manage to support their families, otherwise if they were to depend on each of them singly starvation would surely be the result:



(ii) The prevailing rates of wages in the agricultural areas surrounding the industrial undertakings of the Punjab are even less than those prevailing in the factories. There the average rate of wage is never more than four to six annas a day. Generally the labourer gets his meals free. He has a free house in the village. He has not to pay the barber, the water carrier and the sweeper, as the labourers in the industries in the towns have to pay. Therefore it can be said that, taking all things into consideration, both the agricultural labourer and the industrial labourer are at an average in the same boat so far as the question of wages is concerned.

(iii) *Relation to Prices and Cost of Living.*—Although in the Punjab a cost of living index has never been prepared officially, still it can be said without any fear of contradiction that the cost of living is not less than double of what it was before 1914—the pre-war year. This can be easily judged from the price of the flour which is the staple food of the Punjabi. Before the war a bag of flour of 2 maunds cost from five to six rupees. At present it costs from ten to twelve rupees, or exactly double the pre-war price. The prices of the other articles generally follow suit with those of flour. Hence it can be safely asserted that the present cost of living is double the pre-war cost.

With this double cost of living, the employees were at an average given only 50 per cent. increase. Justice demands that even on the basis of the pre-war wages an increase of 50 per cent. is still due and is justly demanded. As a matter of fact, it is a misnomer to call it an increase. It is no increase at all. The workers, demand is to give them the same price of the money as the used to get before the war. Give them the same amount of flour, the same amount of ghee, dal, meat, and so forth, as they used to get before the war and they will be satisfied. If you cannot do it, then give them the money by which they can buy the same quantity as before the war. This can only be done by giving them 50 per cent. more increase. Then, and then only, will labour be satisfied, and then, and then only, justice will be meted out to them, and then, and then only, will their agitation cease; otherwise they are sure to resort to Bolshevik methods, which, I am afraid, will not only paralyse the Government but will also be the cause of disruption of the society.

102. Whenever a labourer is required to work "overtime" he is generally paid at the rate of one and a quarter times what he usually gets. The same is true about Sunday work. This rate has now become almost well recognized in all the more important industrial undertakings in this province. The same is the intention of Section 31 of the Indian Factories Act.

In the minor industrial undertakings, no "overtime" is paid. When there is a rush of work the poor labourer is made to work overtime, and even on the best of his festivals. If all factories, of whatever status or dimension, are brought under the hammer of the Act, the evil of working a labourer overtime without any payment will be greatly minimized. The "overtime" payment is not sufficient either. It ought to be one and a half times the usual rate. Section 31 does not say that the rate for overtime should be one and a quarter times. What it says is "at least one and a quarter times." It will be better to avoid any misunderstanding if for the above words "not less than one and a half times" is substituted.

104. Whether the wages change or not, or whether they increase or decrease, there is always enough supply of labour. So it can be said without any fear of contradiction that labour supply is not at all affected by the changes in wages. The extreme poverty of the poor labourer compels him to accept what the rich employer is pleased to give him.

105. *Minimum Wages.*—This is the dire necessity of labour to-day. Minimum wage ought to be fixed by legislation, which must be penal. Law must punish the one who gives as well as the one who takes less than the minimum wage fixed by the Statute. If minimum wage is fixed by law, it would mean end of labour troubles to a great extent.

By minimum wage I mean neither more nor less than the mere living wage. Let a standard of living of different labourers be fixed and then pay them in such a way so that they may be in a position to keep it up. At present there is no such standard fixed and no minimum wages are fixed even by custom or agreement. They are unknown in India. They ought to be fixed.

In no other country in the world are labourers paid far below the living wages than in India. The minimum wage paid to an adult labourer at an average, as already shown, is about six annas a day. That comes to about Rs. 11 or say Rs. 12 a month. This is the very sum that is paid by the Punjab Government to the "Chaukidars," who are most lowly-paid Government servants. Now, can it be

honestly said that Rs. 12 a month, or say even Rs. 15 a month, are even barely sufficient for a labourer to live on. Apart from this, as shown in Sections 103 and 104 of this chapter, if there is more supply of labour, the wages become even less than the above minimum. Now it is not a question of supply and demand. Human labour can never be regarded as a mere chattel and therefore the laws of supply and demand are not to be made applicable to it. Labour is not to be paid less than the living wage. You have no right to semi-starve a man simply because you can get many to serve you. The law of the country ought to make it penal to semi-starve a man by paying him less than the living wage.

The real trouble in India is that the "fat" people get "fat" salaries and never care for the claims of labour as labour. Nowhere in the world are the Government officers so highly paid as they are in India. Hence it is the Government really who does not want the minimum wages fixed. For if they are fixed in the industrial undertakings they are sure to have their own effect on the low-paid Government employees. They will surely then agitate to be paid according to the standard fixed by the minimum wage legislation. This the Government does not want. Had this not been so, the Minimum Wage Act would be passed to-morrow. And even if the capitalist-ridden Legislative Assembly were to reject minimum wage legislation, the Viceroy can issue an ordinance under the Government of India Act.

I admit that it is very difficult to come to a certain conclusion and data to fix a living wage. The Royal Commission on Labour in Australia recommended the fixation of minimum wages and in their excellent Report, a copy of which I saw in the Government of India Labour Department Library, they set forth a very nice method, although very technical, of fixing the required minimum wage. We may again follow the example of the Commission on the Codification of the Labour Laws of Canada, who recommended that the minimum wage should be adopted nationally. For a model of legislation, I would suggest the Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Saskatchewan Acts on the subject. As a rule, they provide for the boards of five members who, when they find that the scale of wages fixed by legislation for any class of particular workers in a particular industry within the scope of the Act is inadequate, may summon representatives of employers and employees and proceed to the establishment of a minimum rate of wages for the occupation concerned. The same procedure is adopted in Great Britain and in many other countries. We may also well adopt it for India with advantage.

106. (i) I would suggest that the fines ought to be prohibited by legislation. The employer has his remedy in the ordinary Courts of Justice if a worker has not done good work or has done some other thing to harm the employer or damage his property.

(ii). Fines are generally utilized by the employer most selfishly and unjustly. In the majority of cases, they find their place in the very pocket of the employer for which they are really meant by him. In other cases, *e.g.*, in the N.W.R. Moghal-pura Workshops they are utilized to add to the fund of the officers' clubs, the officers' dancing halls and officers' dinner parties and so forth. Now this is nothing but robbing Peter to pamper Paul. This is mere cruelty and the height of injustice done to the workers. In the plenitude of their power and with the little brief contemptible authority which these officers arbitrarily exercise over their subordinates they resort to fining most cruelly just to add to the fund of their dinner parties or dancing halls where they enjoy and booth. These officers have no right whatsoever to utilize the amount of fines inflicted on the poor subordinates. Either the amount should go to the owner or a special fund should be created to pay prizes to those workers who have done good work. A part of it should also be reserved for paying a subsidy to the Workers' Union if they so desire. At any rate, the money of the workers should be utilized for the workers only in one form or the other. A legislation to provide for utilization of the fines, deductions, and so forth for the use of workers as desired by them should be immediately promulgated.

107. (ii) In the bigger industrial undertakings, generally, the wages are paid on the 7th, 9th, or 12th, of the month, following the month for which they are due. In the printing presses of Lahore, payments are made generally on the 15th of every month, *i.e.*, a fortnight after the month in which the work was done. In some of the factories wages are not paid for months and months, notwithstanding the protests, entreaties and threats of the employees.

(iii) I am very strongly of opinion that the periods of payment of the wages should be regularized by strict legislation. I am also of opinion that delay in making payment should be penalized. The machinery for compelling the employer to make regular payment on the due date should be very simple and absolutely inexpensive and should admit of no delay.

(iv). There should be some suitable legislation about the payment of unclaimed wages too. In case the wages are not claimed by the worker or his legal representative, or in case he cannot be found or otherwise the amount should be handed over to the Trade Union of which the worker was a member, or in any other case, should be utilized in the Worker's Orphanage Fund. In the case of small and out of the way factories, the amount of the unclaimed wages of a worker there should be sent to some Labour organization of industrial workers.

(iii). I would certainly recommend the insertion of a Fair Wages Clause in the contracts mentioned above.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. (i) Apart from the Punjab Chamber of Commerce, the Punjab Trades Association, the Punjab Merchants' Conference and the Punjab Stock Exchange which are general bodies of the capitalists and employers, no particular organization of the employers in the industrial undertakings has yet been formed in the Punjab. My friend, Sardar Gudial Singh Salaria, Bar-at-Law, and Chief Agent of the Dhariwal Woollen Mills called a meeting of the industrialists at Amritsar quite recently. I have not heard anything of it as yet. Probably nobody attended and the attempt to organize the industrialists has probably been given up.

(ii). There are a certain number of Trades Unions and labour organizations of the industrial workers in the Punjab. The following more or less represent the industrial workers in one sense or the other :—(1) N.W.R. Union, Lahore ; (2) The General Worker's Union, N.W.R., Lahore ; (3) The Punjab Motor Drivers' Union, Lahore ; (4) The Lahore Tonga Drivers' Union, Lahore ; (5) The Lahore Press Workers' Union, Lahore ; (6) The Dhariwal Textile Workers Union, Dhariwal. ; (7) The Motor Transport Workers' Union, Amritsar.; (8) The Simla Rickshaw Coolies Union, Simla.

Of these the first four have been registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act and the other four have not yet been so registered. The registration of the Dhariwal Textile Workers' Union has been cancelled for want of any activity but the Union has again been resuscitated. But for the most inimical attitude of the employers, as will be explained in Section (120) Sub-section (iii) all industrial workers would certainly organize themselves into Unions.

118. (i) No adverse effect on industry has at all been experienced on account of the labour organizations. The production has not been adversely affected either. As a matter of fact industry as such has been immensely improved on account of these trade combinations.

(ii) The labour organizations have certainly been of immense help to the workers in securing better working conditions for them. It is on account of these organizations that we see the workers a bit better off than they were in the past, and it is on account of these organizations that a spirit of bettering their conditions has been infused in them and a general awakening has been brought about among them. All the little facilities, all the little increments and all the little amenities that have been given lately to the workers, have been the result of the agitation created by these combinations. The movement has been a God-sent boon to the workers and they know it.

119. The activities of the trade unions of industrial workers are varied and diverse. Chiefly their activities are naturally diverted to the increase of wages or rates. That is their chief demand. Over and above that they try to ventilate their all sorts of grievances peculiar to the services or the professions of their workers. The unions take up individual cases of the members as well and represent their cause to their respective authorities. None of these unions, has however started any mutual benefit scheme or unemployment sickness or old age insurance or strike pay fund. They are yet in their infancy and are gradually developing themselves to the great advantage of the class for whom they stand and fight.

120. (i) The history of the individual trade unions mentioned in Section 120 may be very briefly summarized thus :—

(a) *Railway Workers' Unions.*—About the time I was agitating for the betterment of the Revenue Patwaries of the Punjab at Hoshiarpur in 1918, there were signs of restlessness among the North Western Railway Employees. Two of its employees—Mr. J. B. Miller and Mr. M. A. Khan took a great part in the movement and managed to bring about a strike of the railway servants and particularly of those employed in the Moghaipura Workshops. The strike lasted for about two months. The result was, so far as this subject is concerned—the North Western Railway Union. It was recognized by the authorities and at one time claimed a membership of more than 20,000 members. The usual internal differences among its officers, however brought

about its fall. Mr. J. B. Miller and Mr. M. A. Khan were dismissed and expelled from the Union—the former for his certain unconstitutional behaviour and his bullying nature, while the latter for the alleged embezzlements of large amounts of money of the union. These two joined hands and started a different union chiefly consisting of the Moghalpura Workshop people. This union has changed many names and now it is called the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway. Both are registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) *Motor Drivers' Unions.*—Soon after the Indian Trade Unions Act came into force in 1927, I organized the Motor Drivers of the Punjab and had this registered under the Act. It was the first union that was so registered. For a few months it worked very well under my presidency, but soon after, on account of my having gone to the Khairpur State as its legal adviser, it fell down and is at present not doing much at all. I opened its branch at Amritsar. It has now, however, become independent of the parent body and calls itself the Motor Transport Worker's Union, Amritsar.

(c) *Tonga Workers' Union.*—In 1922 or so, there was a great agitation among the Tonga drivers of Lahore. They struck work and their strike was very successful. The rates were increased and their other grievances were mostly done away with. Their union worked well for sometime, but on account of the usual differences among its officers, it came to naught in 1924 or so. In 1927 I organized the Tonga drivers again and had the union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. For a little while it worked well. When I went away to the Khairpur State, it came to almost a standstill. Now it is practically doing nothing and exists in name only.

(d) *Textile Workers' Union.*—The workers of the New Egerton Woollen Mills at Dhariwal were organized by Mr. J. B. Miller and D. Chaman Lal, M.L.A., and to my great pleasure a member of the Royal Commission on Labour, in 1928, into what they called the Dhariwal Textile Worker's Union, Dhariwal. They led their big strike which lasted for about three months but was a complete failure all the same. As a result of their failure, the union which was a registered body under the Indian Trade Unions Act, died out, and its registration was also cancelled on account of want of any activity. It has been, however, restarted by me and will be in full swing once more in the near future.

(e) *Press Workers' Union.*—This union was started sometime ago by certain Congress workers. It never worked well. It exists in name only and does not carry on any activity worth the name.

(f) *Simla Rickshaw Coolies' Union.*—This was started by me this year and so far has been very successful indeed. If the notorious mischief makers in the trade union movement were to leave it alone, it is sure to do its work very nicely. On its representation, the Simla Municipal Committee appointed a Labour Enquiry Committee to enquire into their grievances most of which have been removed.

(ii) *Attitude of workers.*—It may be said at once that the majority of industrial workers do realize the benefits and advantages of their organizations and believe in their power and potency. The employers' iron grip however, still deters most of them and it is therefore that the unions are not so successful as they ought to be. The fear of being dismissed or being brow-beaten by his officer or employer and being victimized in some other way, does not allow a worker generally to take a keen interest in the movement—much as he would like to.

*Extent of their control.*—Generally speaking, the movement is practically controlled by the outsiders. The workers are generally illiterate and cannot carry on the movement themselves. There is no Union of the industrial workers of the Punjab which is entirely controlled by the workers themselves. There is no doubt that the executive committees of the unions are of the workers themselves but there is always some outsider as president, or general secretary, or union leader, whose will often prevails. In the present stage of the movement, it is only natural that the outsiders should guide and control it. When the workers will get enough training and experience then they are sure to control it themselves. It may be remarked in passing here that even according to the Indian Trade Unions Act, a certain number of outsiders can be executives of a union.

(iii) The attitude of employers is, in general, averse, if not inimical towards the workers combinations. The employers do not at all like their employees to be organized and united for their own amelioration. Circumstances however, may compel them to express a mere lip sympathy with the cause of the workers but inwardly they are decidedly against the movement and would kill it altogether if they could. Their relations with the unions are not friendly either. Every effort is being made to keep the movement down by avoiding the real issue or by white-washing certain affairs most vitally affecting the welfare of the poor workers.

121 *Trade Unions Act, 1928.*—(i) *Extent to which utilised.*—Out of the 13 unions of all sorts of workers that have been registered in the Punjab, there are four only which may be taken to be those of the industrial workers. If we leave out the

North Western Railway Union which is mainly constituted of the clerical staff of the North Western Railway, and if we again wash out the Motor Drivers Union and the Tonga Workers Union which, as I have already said, exist on the files of the Register of Trade Unions only, there is one union, namely, the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, which may be said to be doing some work. Although it claims a large number of members, but its *bona-fides* are always doubted, on account of the thoroughly bad record of those who run it. It is not recognized by the Railway Administration and has practically done nothing for allaying the grievances of the workers who are quite illiterate and ignorant and are often led by certain of their leaders for their personal glorification and aggrandisement.

(ii). *Effects.*—The effect of the Indian Trade Unions Act on the workers' organizations has been, in general, very wholesome indeed. The mouths of the capitalists against the right of the workers to combine, have been shut once for all. The angle of vision towards the labour movement has decidedly been changed. They cannot now openly challenge the labour leaders—however much their blood might be boiling within themselves against the workers' combinations. The accounts are now regularly kept and audited, the registers of the unions are properly written. Meetings are held without any fear. The Act has certainly given a great impetus to the trade union movement in general. It is a boon to the worker and is certainly a Magna Charta of the proletariat.

(iii) *Possible amendments.*—The present Act is necessarily limited in its scope. It is the first Act of its kind in India. I feel it is suitable to a great extent so far as the present stage of the movement is concerned. Every one knows that the labour movement in this Province is still in its infancy and has not yet attained its teens even. It is about a decade old. The Act itself, is not more than about a couple of years old. I therefore, think that very many drastic changes in the Act will arouse great agitation among the capitalists who, on account of their power, may not stifle the noble movement. Let the Act grow with the growth of the movement. There lies the wisdom and there lies the statesmanship.

A few amendments here and there, are however necessary even at this stage of the movement. For instance, I would suggest that unions of workers and wage-earners must be registered under the Act. The registration under it ought to be thrown open to Government servants as well. It ought to be provided that if a member of a Trade Union were to desire in writing to have his subscription for membership sent to his union out of his pay or salary the employer shall be bound to do so. Again the Act ought to provide for greater facilities for starting the mutual benefit schemes, sickness, deaths, old age and orphan's funds, and for the utilization of the political fund and so forth.

122. *Miscellaneous questions regarding Trade Unions—Position of Employees in State Industrial Concerns.*—The Government employees cannot still have their Unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. I have never been able to understand the position of the Government in this respect. I would strongly suggest that all Government servants should be expressly allowed to take full advantage of the Trade Union Act. It is really a very sorry state of affairs that professional people, servants, workers, employed by private individuals and quasi Government can have their unions registered, but Government servants cannot. The sooner this invidious distinction is done away with, the better will it be both for the Government and its employees.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. Ever since the advent of the labour movement in this province and so far as the industrial workers are concerned, there have been two strikes of the North Western Railway employees out of which the second was a lock out. Another strike was of the Lahore Tonga Drivers, one of the Dhariwal Mill Workers and one of the Motor Drivers of Amritsar. Another strike was that of the workers in the Khewera Salt Mine. Quite recently there was a strike of the Mandi Hydro-Electric Power House Workers at Jogindarnagar, and that of the Rickshaw Coolie of Simla. Out of these the North Western Railway Employees Strike and the Dhariwal Workers' Strike were the most important. Although the Tonga Driver's Strike was a complete one, but the number of strikers was not a large one.

(i). Except the Amritsar Motor Driver's Strike, all the strikes of the other workers mentioned above were purely economical. If the North Western Railway employees struck twice, they did so for the increase of their wages, if the Dhariwal hands declared the strike, they also did on account of the most frightfully low wages, again if the Tonga Workers of Lahore struck, they also resorted to it to have their

rates increased. The economic cause was the main cause of all these strikes. Of course, with it, other grievances were also added. The Motor Drivers of Amritsar struck because the Government has not provided a free Motor stand for parking their lorries.

*Successes and failures and their causes.*—Of all these, the first strike of the railway employees, the Tonga Drivers strike and the Motor Drivers strike was successful. All others failed miserably. Again the first was successful to some extent. The second one also resulted in a partial victory. The third resulted in a promise by the authorities to provide stands. This promise has not yet been redeemed although it was given about two years ago.

(ii) Although the Canal Patwaris Strike was the first in the Punjab, the North Western Railway strike of 1919, was the biggest and the longest strike in the province. It lasted for about two months. The second strike taken to be a lock-out of the same employees of 1924, also lasted for about two months or so. Tonga Drivers strike lasted for three days only. The Motor Drivers for about a fortnight. Although all the strikes were merely trade disputes the employers did not hesitate to give them a political colour. Again the real cause of the failure of the strikes has been the most objectionable attitude of the Police towards the poor strikers. It was also the usual underhandedness and the third degree methods of the notorious Punjab Police that brought about the failures of the strikers. In the name of order and peace, these custodians of law and order threatened the workers, intimidated them by all sorts of means and put all sorts of pressures on them. Their dirty deeds were certainly a disgrace to the King's uniform they so proudly wear. The result was that the poor workers got frightened, lost heart and came down and had to accept the employers terms. If the police would not interfere, I can challenge that in the Punjab, no strike would be a failure. It is not the Government, let me be quite clear—who is responsible for this strange and most awful attitude of the police. It is the white silvery pieces with our dear King's picture engraved on them which the beastly capitalists have so unjustly and so immorally managed to hoard that are, as a matter of fact, responsible for killing the spirit of the workers.

124. *Conciliation and Arbitration Machinery.—Opportunity afforded for Labour representations.*—All employers do not afford suitable opportunities for making representations on behalf of labour. They have set up what they call "Recognition of a Union." No negotiations or correspondence is made with the union which is not "recognized." No office-bearer of an "unrecognized" union is even granted an interview even to represent the workers cause. A provision ought to be inserted in the Indian Trade Unions Act which may provide for the *ipso facto* recognition of a union however humble it may be. The shibboleth of "recognition" ought to be done away with at once. When there is a Union, the employer should not put artificial obstacles in the way of the representation of the cause of the employees.

125. The Indian Trades Disputes Act was passed by the Assembly on the memorable day when a bomb was thrown into it. It came into force on the 8th of May, 1929, although, quite contrary to practice, the rules to be prescribed under it have not yet been framed. It has been aptly described as a panicky sort of legislation chiefly designed to curb the spirit of the workers and to all intents and purposes, prohibiting their strikes and thus putting an end to launching an economic war upon the capitalists. The measure was passed by the Assembly in the teeth of the labourers' opposition. It is therefore a thoroughly unpopular law and it is time that it should be amended.

It penalizes the cessation of work by workers engaged in utility services without notice, but it does not penalize the employers who without notice, discharge, dismiss or punish otherwise an employee. It does not punish an employer who would give insufficient wages to his workers. "Black legs" have been protected. It allows the Tribunal to adjourn the proceedings. This adjournment for an indefinite time may be used as an instrument to starve the men out. The labour representatives are not necessarily members of a Tribunal or of a Board. No panel system is provided. The function of a Board of Conciliation and those of a Court of Inquiry overlap to some extent. The Inquiry may be held in camera. Lawyers are not to appear in the Court of Inquiry. No corresponding advantages are given to the utility services although they are put under certain disadvantages under the Act. Strikes under certain conditions are to be illegal. It virtually penalizes sympathetic strikes.

#### XVII.—Administration.

133. *Central and Provincial Legislatures.*—The labour legislation is a central subject and, therefore, all labour laws of All-India importance are enacted by the Legislative Assembly. This is as it should be. The conditions of labour are about

the same everywhere in India, therefore, all labour laws must be enacted by the All-India Legislature. In the Bombay Presidency, in Assam, and in Madras, certain labour problems have cropped up peculiar to those provinces, and, therefore, suitable provincial labour laws have been enacted there. In the Punjab, no particular necessity of any provincial importance has arisen to justify the enacting of a Punjab labour law, and, therefore, none has been passed by the Punjab Legislative Council so far. I do not know about the attitude of the provincial legislatures of other provinces towards the labour matters, but about the Punjab Legislative Council, of which I have been a labour member for about three years now, I can say with confidence that its attitude, on account of its being a communal and capitalistic body, has always been indifferent towards it. There are certainly reasons for it. In the first place, the Punjab is predominantly an agricultural province. Secondly, the labour problems of this province are not so wide, so acute and of political importance of such a magnitude as to attract the attention of the council often.

The attitude of the Central Legislature may be described as a "forced benevolent sympathetic" one. In the Assembly, the majority consists of big landlords and of big magnates of industry and commerce. It is an out and out capitalistic body. If it had its own way, it would certainly crush the labourers and workmen of India and reduce them to mere slaves. But thanks to the sympathetic attitude of the Government and some of the members of more advanced views based on far-sighted statesmanship, the Assembly generally takes a sympathetic attitude towards the labour problems and takes pretty keen interest in solving them. So far it has passed the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Trade Unions Act and the Trade Disputes Act. The Maternity Benefits Bill, of Mr. N. M. Joshi, and the Weekly Payment of Wage Bill, of D. Chaman Lall, have been rejected. Under these circumstances I would suggest that some more labour members ought to be provided for both the Assembly and the Councils, so that they may jointly do something for labour in their respective legislatures. One or two labour members cannot obviously carry the Council with them.

134. *International Labour Organization.*—So far as I know, the Government always brings a resolution in the Legislative Assembly not to ratify conventions passed by the International Labour Conference at Geneva. All sorts of reasons are advanced by the Government for not ratifying it. I would submit that all conventions of the International Labour Conference should be ratified by the Government if they are not declared expressly by the conference itself that they would not apply to India. The conventions of the International Labour Organization have their own effect on the labour legislation in this country. The sympathetic attitude of the Government and the keen interest taken by it in the labour legislation and labour problem of this country are certainly due to a large extent to the International Labour Office at Geneva. A branch of this office has recently been opened in Delhi also.

137. *Effect of Differences in Law or Administration in British India and Indian States.*—In no Indian state, so far, has labour legislation been introduced. So backward and so antiquated are they. No restrictions as regards the employment of child and women labour, no fixation of hours, no provisions for compensation, no formation of trade unions, no fear of trade disputes, no rules for safety, and no labour leaders so far exist there. It is, therefore, that some of the most selfish and greedy capitalists have shifted to the Indian states from British India. But with my experience of Indian states, I can say that they never prosper there and they are sure to retrace their steps towards British India again. Under these circumstances the labour laws of the Government of India should by order also be introduced *ipso facto* in all the Indian states.

#### XVIII.—Intelligence.

146. *Future Developments necessary.*—I have already stated that the Punjab is sure to develop its industries in the near future immensely, with the opening of the Mandi Hydro Electric Works at Jongindarnagar, and hence industrial labour in this province also will likewise become very important. It will, therefore, be necessary to set up all those labour machineries that have been set up by the industrially developed countries of the world. The establishment of a labour office with a labour commissioner in charge of it is very necessary indeed. All questions relating to labour should be entrusted to this office. A labour gazette should be issued by this office either monthly or quarterly as might be deemed necessary, giving all the statistical data after the labour gazette of Bombay. The Punjab is the nearest province to the Bolshevik Russia, and in order to save the

labouring classes of this province from becoming militant, it is not only necessary to keep them satisfied but it is also necessary to watch them with a lynx eye. This can be done if my humble suggestions contained in this humble memorandum of mine are so kindly accepted to the best advantage of all parties concerned.

DAGMAR CURJEL WILSON, M.D. (GLASG.), D.P.H. (CAMB.), WOMEN'S  
MEDICAL SERVICE, INDIA (RETD.).

*Introductory.*—My experience in Bengal industries has been published by the Government of India in the Bulletins of Industries and Labour, No. 31, "Women's Labour in Bengal Industries."

What I learnt about conditions among women and children on the Bihar coal-fields has been incorporated in a report to the Jharia Mines Board of Health, Dhanbad, from whom it is obtainable.

My survey of conditions among women and children employees in the mills and tanneries of the British India Corporation, Cawnpore, was done at the request of that firm, and submitted to them.

This present note refers to experience gained in the Punjab in the course of my work, first as Woman Assistant to the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Punjab, and latterly while working under the Indian Research Fund.

In the Punjab I have come in contact with women workers in the following industries:—(a) Cotton ginning; (b) women workers at Khewra salt mines; (c) women workers on Kangra tea estates; (d) women home workers at Amritsar.

III. 16. (a) *Cotton Ginning.*—The employment is seasonal, and the majority of workers come in daily from their neighbouring village homes.

IV. 23. No reliable mortality figures are available. Northern Indian women generally tend to marry early (at about 14 years) and go through a large number of pregnancies, so that the infant mortality rate is relatively high. The abortion rate is also high, as also the death rate between one and two years of age.

The atmosphere in a ginning factory is full of dust and any real ventilation is usually absent. In the districts where ginning factories are situated the people are accustomed to a fairly balanced diet, the amount only being limited by their economic condition.

Physique varies, on the whole, village women and children compare favourably with the poorer inhabitants of towns, and the yearly period of work in ginning factories is of short duration. These women, as is general in India, often suffer from the effect of prolonged lactation (reason: partly economic and partly due to the firm conviction that lactation prevents them becoming pregnant again). They are also like the rest of the population, frequent victims of malaria.

A recent survey which I made of Punjab children's teeth showed the presence of marked hypoplasia, co-related with clinical histories of fever.

24 and 25. *Medical Facilities.*—Village women who come into ginning factories know little of the medical relief which may be available at the town civil hospital. They would also plead that they have not the time to go and wait for treatment there. Female medical relief in the Punjab is advanced compared with many other Indian provinces; and in the towns where ginning factories are situated there is usually a woman sub-assistant surgeon attached to the civil hospital. Such women, however, though doing useful work in the town, suffer from the limits of their training, their knowledge of preventive medicine is very limited, and they usually come but little into contact with the woman workers in the ginning factories.

Often a trained midwife or dai is also attached to the women's department of the civil hospital. She may also carry on considerable practice among the better class town folk, but the village woman worker usually seeks the aid of her customary indigenous dai at the time of child birth.

If the management were willing to bear the expense, there seems no reason why the woman sub-assistant surgeon should not at least, one afternoon a week, attend at the ginning mill during the time women workers are employed there and the women workers be allowed to come to her for advice and treatment during their working hours. A medical woman, if tactful, has rarely any difficulty in attracting Indian women patients, who will not readily go to men doctors.

26. Sanitary arrangements are usually primitive, but those to which the workers themselves are still accustomed.



29. Malaria is the chief disease complained of, and anæmia is often present. The duration of employment in ginning mills is short, and there is no evidence to prove that these women's lungs are permanently affected. Tuberculosis in the Punjab is mostly a disease of the larger towns and cities.

V. I have no experience of any special welfare arrangements for women in ginning mills. Managers have told me they wished they could keep young children off the premises, but the short annual duration of the women's employment does not encourage the provision of creches or other amenities.

VI. There is but little literacy among the class of women who seek work in ginning factories.

IX and XVII. There is a general impression that during the cotton ginning season, women are worked overtime. The factory inspecting staff is very few in number, and millowners see no disgrace if possible in evading the law.

This question was brought up by me before a large audience of educated Indian women at the last meeting of the Punjab Provincial Women's Conference for Educational and Social Reform at Lahore, and it was decided that educated Indian ladies should try and create a public opinion against the evading of factory laws.

(b) *Kheura Salt Mines*.—The general observations made about Indian women workers under (a) apply also to the women workers at Khewra. Special points are that the facilities for medical relief are better, but there is ample scope for the provision of a trained woman health visitor to work among this special community.

As in many other Indian mines the least good condition are among the women surface workers.

(c) *Women Workers on Kanga Tea Estates*.—Women do coolie labour on tea estates a large part of the year, while living in their own village homes. They state their average earning as about 2 annas a day. For reasons which I am at present investigating in connection with my osteomalacia enquiry under the Indian Research Fund (aided by the Punjab Government), their diet is extremely unbalanced, and among them I have found conditions analogous to the "Hunger Osteomalacia" prevalent in Central Europe immediately after the war.

There is but little provision for female medical relief in the upper part of the Kangra valley, but where available the women eagerly seek treatment.

(d) *Women Home Workers in Amritsar City*.—In connection with my osteomalacia enquiry, I have been investigating the living conditions of women in Amritsar City. Women do not care to work among men in the carpet factories, but do a certain amount of joining together of small pieces in their own homes.

Amritsar is a damp town, the sub-soil water level being high with very narrow streets and high buildings.

Mahomedan women who observe *purdah* especially suffer from lack of sunlight, and the city is one of the centres of rickets and osteomalacia in the Punjab. There is also much tuberculosis.

There are efficient Government and mission hospitals for women, which are much used when the women and children are really ill; but of preventive medicine little is yet realized or practised, and there is a large scope for health education among the general population, especially through the schools.

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## THE CENTRAL LABOUR FEDERATION, PUNJAB.

The leaders of the trade union movement in Punjab organized a central body by the name of the Punjab Labour Board in the year 1926 on the initiation of Mr. N. M. Joshi, General Secretary of the All India Trade Union Congress, who arranged a meeting of the different leaders in the Y.M.C.A. Hall. There existed before this three bodies claiming to be the central organizations for the Punjab, but actually they were not the real central organizations of the trade unions in Punjab. Mr. M. A. Ghani was made General Secretary of the Labour Board. In the year 1927, when election of the office bearers took place, Mr. S. D. Hasan was elected General Secretary and Mr. M. A. Khan as President, but unfortunately Mr. M. A. Ghani refused to hand over charge of his office to the new General Secretary, who was directed by other members of the Board to start a new office under the name of Punjab Labour Board. Meanwhile, the Trade Union Act came into operation, and an application duly signed by the members of the Board was presented for the registration of the Punjab Labour Board. Mr. M. A. Ghani also counteracted this application by presenting another application for the registration of the Punjab Labour Board, showing himself therein as General Secretary of that body. The

matter prolonged, and the Registrar had to take explanation from both sides. In the meantime, legal trick was played and Mr. M. A. Ghani got the certificate of registration of the Board. When we were asked by the Registrar to change the name of our central organization and, after some consideration, the members decided that the name of the Punjab Labour Board should be changed into that of the Central Labour Federation, Punjab. This having been done, a certificate of registration was also granted to this body by the Registrar.

*The present organization of this body.*—It is composed of the leaders of the different trade unions in Punjab. The strongest organization, viz., The General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, with other small organizations, are affiliated to this body.

*Activities of the Federation.*—This Federation co-operated with the Simon Commission, and submitted a memorandum and gave evidence, urging before the Commission certain demands of the Punjab labour, so far as its political rights were concerned. There was a strike of Dhariwal workers, and the Federation gave help of 200 hundred rupees to the strikers, and visited the mill manager with a view to settle the strike. After the deputation was led by Mr. M. A. Khan, President, and Mr. Hasan, General Secretary, and other members of the Board, the demands of the strikers were discussed for about three hours with the mill manager, Mr. Lewis. The settlement being unsatisfactory and disapproved by the strikers, they refused to go back to work.

Messrs. M. A. Khan and S. D. Hasan, President and General Secretary respectively of the Central Labour Federation, were very graciously granted an interview by His Excellency Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, the Governor of the Punjab, on 26th October last year, when, after thanking His Excellency, it was submitted before His Excellency that the real trade union leaders have been ignored by the Government as to their appointment as Labour members in the Punjab Legislative Council. Also it was pointed out that no chance has been given to real labourists of this province to represent labour in the International Labour Conference of Geneva. His Excellency promised to give full consideration to the matter when time comes.

Another deputation of the Central Labour Federation met the Minister for Local Self Government, and urged the nomination of Labour members in the municipalities and district boards in different big towns like Lahore, Amritsar and Ludhiana, etc. It is yet to be seen whether the Government will nominate Labour members or not, but the Minister promised a consideration of the matter.

Steps have also been taken to help the re-organization of a union in Dhariwal, but due to the resistance of the employers, it seems to be very difficult unless the employers are compelled to recognize the registered trade unions, and are prepared to grant them the facilities for the organization of a union.

Mr. M. A. Khan, President of this Federation, has submitted a separate memorandum which deals with the terms of reference to the Commission, and a schedule of the subjects falling within them in connection with the General Workers' Union, North Western Railway, which is affiliated to this body, and most of the items to be replied by this Federation have been dealt with by him in that memorandum, and therefore it will be reiteration to discuss them again.

There are a few grievances of the Tonga Workers' Union. The main grievance being the operation by the traffic police. This can be ascertained from the number of the Tonga drivers having been fined during the last year. There will not be scarcely any Tonga driver in Lahore who would have escaped punishment from the Law Court. They are also treated by the police in a very contemptuous way, filthy and abusive language is a common thing. In the Law Court, they are not allowed even the chance of defence. Here it may be urged that the secretary of a registered trade union of Tonga workers or the general secretary of this Federation should be permitted to advocate their case in the Court whenever needed. There is another trouble regarding the recognition of its union by the Municipal Committee, even though it is a registered body.

The other unions affiliated to this body are Motor Drivers' Union, Laundry Workers' Union, Press Workers' Union, which are working on mutual benefit system.

## THE PUNJAB PROVINCIAL TRADES UNION CONGRESS, LAHORE.

### I.—Recruitment.

3. (i) There are numbers of existing methods of recruitment, but unfortunately some of them are condemnable. (a) A mate sometimes induces the poor labourer to follow him, and the former gets commission or remuneration from the employers

for supplying the labour. That commission or remuneration for all intents and purposes constitutes a reduction in the wages of the labourer. Though it must be conceded that the services of a mate in collecting the labour for the employer are not valueless in all cases. (b) The labour contractors are very helpful in supplying the labour to the employer. (c) The agents in the service of the employer to import the labour. (d) In case of railway and some other industrial departments some officials are employed in particular to recruit labour.

(ii) The desired possible improvement could be made by training the labour to seek for employment for themselves without intervention of an agency. This improvement will go to create reciprocal benefit both to the employer and employee : (a) Organized union of labour ; (b) Appointment of bureau.

(iii) (a) On various grounds it appears to be desirable to establish public employment agencies. To our mind some defects in the subsisting methods will be removed.

(b) There is a possibility of practical schemes in this direction. Various trade unions can function in supplying, respectively the required and particular kind of labour to the employer subject to constitutionally fixed conditions advantageous to both the employer and employee. The aforesaid various unions may have a central controlling body to which the requisition for labour may be sent directly. The expenditure of maintaining such central controlling office will be borne by the Government, with some reasonable contribution to be made by the employers. The honest and constitutionally recognized labour procuring firms or offices may be opened on the approval of both the Government and central controlling body and the trade unions concerned.

7. (i) (a) So far as unskilled labour is concerned, it is idle to complain much on the ground of unemployment in the Punjab, excepting abnormal cases of retrenchment and dismissal.

(b) In case of skilled labour of some particular class the question of unemployment makes its appearance. In case of clerks the complaint respecting unemployment appears to be general and real.

(ii) (a) The retrenchments and dismissals both in case of unskilled and skilled labour are deeply felt, and the aggrieved persons have seriously been resenting since last few years, which gives sometimes birth to discontent and economic trouble.

(b) Voluntary retirement, unless it is virtually forced, does not create a trouble, nor does it give rise to the controversy centering round the questions of unemployment.

(c) There are many other causes, as for instance too much inclination for State service, which appears to be due to lack of national and industrial education.

The unsuitability of the modern system of education in many cases constitutes a cause for unemployment ; non-realization of dignity of labour ; lack of real encouragement to indigenous industry.

(iii) *Possible methods of alleviating and remedying distress.*—(a) Industrial development in the country and opening of such useful works which may go to invite the unemployed and other persons without embarrassing the country economically.

(b) The legislature may provide to fix the percentage of profits to the capitalist or employer, and the remaining profit to be distributed amongst the employees.

(c) True trade unionism and its chief principles should be respected.

(d) Free trade should be done away with, subject to suitable legislative measure to prevent the propensities of getting exorbitant profits on the part of the manufacturers and dealers.

(e) National and industrial education.

(f) Strict compliance with the Trade Unions Act without any direct or indirect interference on the Executives. Unemployment insurance will go along to meet the difficult problem of unemployment to a certain extent. By various methods the unemployment insurance, when properly and constitutionally guided, might prove a very good remedy. It can successfully work by the following methods :—

(iv) *Unemployment Insurance.*—(1) Securing service on the payment of a fixed and reasonable premium as it is done in life and fire insurance companies. (2) In case of retirement or dismissal, getting monetary aid on the payment of a certain fixed premium, as in the case of insurance companies. (3) Provident fund to be opened by the employer or by the union whose member he is. (4) Co-operation with a view to support each other. (5) Application of international conventions relating to unemployment. Application of international conventions relating to unemployment is a very useful scheme and method indeed to some extent.

## II.—Staff Organization.

13. (i) Relations between staff and rank and file ought to be harmonious, but unfortunately, in many cases, the relation is constrained, and the constraint of the relationships affects the production of the labour materially and reduces the labour efficiency.

(ii) Jobbers do not lead to efficiency nor does it render the labour advantageously productive; so far as the value of such employment is concerned, it is of temporary character and not much.

(iii) Works committees are very useful bodies, their constitution by a combination of both employers and employees will be of material help. They are sure to make industrial achievements in number of manners.

(iv) Works Councils and Industrial Councils by their good administration render the factories more productive and minimize the chances of strike.

15. (i) Most of the works are done by contracts. The contracts of such works are generally those in which highly scientific and technical knowledge is not required.

(ii) The practice of executing by subcontracts obtains in the Punjab, and it goes a long way in expediting the work.

(iii) The controlling authority of employer or departmental head supervises the work so done and acts as controller.

(iv) *Effects.*—The execution of works by contracts and sub-contracts is more rapid and economical, especially in Government departments.

## IV.—Health.

30. (i) The international labour convention concerning the question of sickness insurance is suitable on various grounds.

(ii) The other systems to secure insurance are possible and feasible.

(iii) The difficulties could be met by the introduction of homoeopathic medicine, which is the most cheapest and suitable to Indian temperament.

31. *Maternity benefits.*—(i) In the Punjab no such system subsists as far as we know, but the system will work very well, and ameliorate the constitution of labour if the maternity benefit is extended.

## VI.—Education.

40. To our mind nothing but free and compulsory education will solve the great problem which is our greatest desideratum, capitalists owning big factories should provide good schools severally or jointly for the education of the workmen and their children. When there is a group of small factories, the number of which employees is more than one hundred, the Government should be approached to open a school in such industrial area, and promulgate a law whereby workers and children should have obtained compulsory education, and where there a group of big factories the education should be compulsory to the high standard and the curriculum should provide training on industrial subjects. Night schools would be more preferable.

41. So far as we know, no facilities and vocational training is provided by any employer for the employees, which is a great drawback to the efficiency of labour. Of course, there are few Government industrial schools and Maclagan College of Moghalpura, but their accommodation is very limited, and competition is great and hard. Hardly 5 per cent. candidates are admitted.

42. The effects of education on standard of living and industrial efficiency of workers cannot be questioned, when the eating of a fruit of knowledge tree by Adam and Eve opened their eyes and made them wiser, so how it could possibly be expected that the labour with open eyes will not crave for better living. But it all depends upon the degree and sort of education imparted. Anyhow, education will have a healthy effect on the person who receives in increasing the industrial efficiency to the mutual gain of the employer and the employees and the country.

## VII.—Safety.

43. The Indian Factories Act, 12 of 1911, Section 37, with the regulations for safety in factories in the Punjab. These rules are fairly exhaustive, but are not strictly carried out as it ought to be. There must be a provision for compelling a factory owner to have a suitable fire extinguisher and apparatus sufficient to meet an emergency. The existing regulations in factories, railways, mines and docks are fairly well considered, but are not so strictly applied.

44. With the increase in the number of the factories brought under the Indian Factories Act, there was a deplorable increase in the accidents, too. In 1919 the total number of accidents was 241, with an average of .62 out of 100 operatives, but only nine years after, in 1928, the total number went up to 1,019, showing the average of 1.97 out of 100 operatives.

This increase really is very alarming, and must be checked at once through strict application of the law.

46. The following suggestions may be safely put forward as prophylactic measures for these accidents :—

- (a) Prosecution of the employees for the non-compliance with the safety rules.
- (b) " Safety first " propaganda.
- (c) Wearing of tight clothes during working hours.
- (d) Changing of the pulleys in a safer manner.
- (e) Use of eye protectors.
- (f) To put competent workers on improved and newly imported machines.
- (g) Strict application of the Compensation Act.
- (h) And acquainting the workers with the " Safety rules."

Other suggestions can also be made on the subject.

48. This first aid is one of the most important items, and should be given a special attention. Workers should be trained in " First Aid " and be supplied with first-aid books free of charge. Homoeopathic medicines being cheaper and better are preferable.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. (i) (a) In July, 1924, the Workmen's Compensation Act came into force in India, but on account of their illiteracy was not fully availed of by the workers. The employers always try to suppress accidents by improper means or just to adjust the matter out of court with payment of a few rupees to the victim of accident or his bereaved family.

(b) Illiteracy, ignorance and poverty are the chief causes of paucity of claims.

(c) We would like to make the following suggestions :—(1) A written report of an accident should be submitted without further delay to the local police, and a copy thereof be forwarded to the proper authorities. The breach of this rule should be made penal ; (2) No cost of fee should be required in compensation case ; (3) The Commissioner appointed under the Act should take action *suo moto* ; (4) The legal aid should be given by the Government without charges ; (5) The enquiry should be held then and there ; (6) The evidence should be recorded immediately on the spot, without giving a chance to the employer to suppress it ; (7) No case should be compromised without the previous sanction of the Commissioner ; (8) The trade union of which he is a member should also be consulted in the matter.

#### IX.—Hours.

About 9 hours a day, or 60 hours a week is the ordinary period of work in factories, but 48 hours would be most useful for an effective work.

#### XII.—Wages.

Wages of the labourers have risen during the last ten years, but they are still inadequate in comparison to the rise in the cost of living. The scavengers are the most poorly paid labourers in the province.

The British Government is the largest employer, it should take the lead in enhancing the wages of the labourers, so that the private employers and quasi Government institutions may follow the suit.

#### XIV.—Trade Combination.

Trade unionism in the Punjab had been in the infancy. It requires encouragement at the hand of the Government. The instructions of the Punjab Government against the registration of the unions of the Government employees should be withdrawn.

### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

There were several strikes in the province. They were chiefly due to inadequate wages and ill-treatment. They lasted at the most for six months. They concluded on the compromise of the employers and the employees. They ended generally to the detriment of the labourers. The failure was due to inefficient organization and deficiency of funds.

### XVII.—Administration.

136. There should be a separate Ministry of Labour. All the mills, factories and industrial institutions should be under it. It should look towards the welfare of the labourers. The Government should provide legal help to the labourer in factories in the matter of accidents and recovery of wages.

There should be adequate representation of labour on all the local bodies and legislatures.

#### THE EAST INDIA CARPET COMPANY, LIMITED, AMRITSAR.

The East India Carpet Co., Ltd., have four factories in Amritsar:—

Hakeeman Gate ..	95 looms, out of which 48 working.
Hall Bazaar ..	64 " " " 43 "
Sultanwind Gate ..	66 " " " 2 "
Mori Gunj ..	42 " " " — "

Total .. 267 looms, out of which 93 working.

The labour is paid on the piece-work basis.

The wages earned by a master-weaver or loom-holder vary from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 per mensem, and even upwards, according to the ability of the weaver.

The factories are opened in the early morning. But the weavers do not generally start working as soon as the factories are opened. Even when they arrive at the factories when the gates are opened they avail of the washing facilities provided, and a considerable amount of time is lost before they settle to work.

The carpet weaving being given out on the contract system, no compulsion is enforced as regards working hours. The weavers are free to come into the factories and leave them as and when they please. The actual routine hours do not exceed 8 hours during the winter and 10 hours during the summer. The weavers' houses are quite near the factories and they naturally are continually passing to and fro.

Medical facilities are provided. A doctor visits the factories each fortnight and certifies the age of any new apprentice. No boy under nine years of age is admitted to apprenticeship. The weavers are at liberty to go to the doctor in case of need at any time. Medicines are provided free.

The health of the weavers and their general physique is good. The only complaint we have of our weavers is that they do not get sufficient work owing to the depression of trade and foreign competition, which has enforced us in the last eighteen months to reduce the number of our working looms from 267 to 93. But in a general way, and as long as there is work to give the weaver, he remains at his work in a permanent way and does not try for other employment.

One very unusual feature of this industry is the absence of indebtedness to money-lenders, as advances without interest are afforded by the Company when necessary.

Lieut.-Col. G. M. ROUTH, C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A.O.C., CHIEF ORDNANCE OFFICER, RAWALPINDI ARSENAL, OFFG. DEPUTY DIRECTOR OF ORDNANCE SERVICES, NORTHERN COMMAND, RAWALPINDI ARSENAL.

The total personnel employed, about 2,000, are made up as follows (nearly):—

(a) Officers and other British Ranks ..	100
(b) Sepoys ..	300
(c) Clerks (Permanent) ..	100
(d) Artificers (Workshops) ..	500
(e) General Labour, for storekeeping, internal transport, etc.	1,000

Of these (a) and (b) are regular soldiers.

(c) are civilians.

(d) and (e) are on daily rates paid monthly.

2. (a) and (s) live in Rawalpindi and neighbouring villages. They are in every sense casual labour. They have no security of tenure, neither do they now lose anything but their job if they stay away (more than 6 days). They are subject to short time (5 days a week) if the reduced arsenal labour budget necessitates. They are recruited by mates and Mistris who, "bring them in." The arsenal has no concern with men out of working hours. No industrial dispute has arisen within my knowledge.

3. Efforts are made to keep the balance between castes, but these efforts are personal rather than statistical.

Men are employed from father to son if they so wish, but no efforts in this direction are made by the administration. When men become too old for work, they are usually, but not necessarily, put up for a bonus in proportion to their record, but any long period of absence often invalidates their claims. The bonus may vary from three months' pay to perhaps a monthly pension or grant of land in very special cases.

4. These men have no organization whatsoever. Economic causes and the absence of much other local employment mean that the Chief Ordnance Officer has no need, other than humanitarian or with a view to improving out-turn, to show the men any consideration at all. Speaking generally, in fact, none of the problems usually connected with labour arise in any form in this arsenal. It is a fact, however, that the absence of competitive spirit or incentive in selection has definitely reduced the standard of labour in the arsenal as compared with civil industries in the neighbourhood. It is hoped some form of bonus system may improve this.

5. Artificers of a sort are very easily obtainable. Trade testing, however, shows the local standard to be deplorable. Trade Testing in Rawalpindi Arsenal did not, as in Ferozepore Arsenal and Kirkee Arsenal, cause unrest partly because artificers are too easy to get and could not afford to complain, and partly because the arsenal standard in Rawalpindi Arsenal was not so noticeably below the local standard as in Ferozepore Arsenal and Kirkee Arsenal and did not thus lead to such a general reduction in wages.

. . . . .

**KHAN BAHADUR GUL MUHAMMAD KHAN, EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER IN BALUCHISTAN.**

The industrial development of Baluchistan is still in the most primitive stage.

2. The total area of the province is 134,638 square miles of which only 46,960 square miles represents British Baluchistan and British administered territory, the remainder being under native states and tribal territory. The total population of the province including native states and tribal areas is 834,703 of which British Baluchistan and British administered territory represent only 379,646. The subjoined table will show that according to the census of 1921, out of a population of 379,646, only 13,084 persons were employed in industrial undertakings of which 139 were females.

	Males.	Females.
1. Extraction of minerals, coal mines and petroleum .. .. .	1,149	7
2. Textiles .. .. .	341	2
3. Hides and skins .. .. .	17	—
4. Wood workers .. .. .	689	—
5. Metals .. .. .	1,400	—
6. Potters and brick makers .. .. .	93	—
7. Food industries .. .. .	1,039	24
8. Industries of dress and the toilet .. .. .	2,031	102
9. Furniture makers .. .. .	36	1
10. Building industries .. .. .	1,027	1
11. Construction of means of transport .. .. .	25	—
12. Jewellers and printers .. .. .	417	2
13. Transport by road .. .. .	4,681	—
Total .. .. .	12,945	139

Strictly speaking, however, the majority of these 13,084 workers are not working in any organised industries. Taking the largest item in the table, i.e., "Transport by Road," all these 4,681 persons are pack animal drivers and owners. The next largest item of "Industries of dress and the toilet" includes largely washermen (dhobis), private tailors, and tailors employed by military contractors, private shoemakers and barbers. Similarly "Building Industries" includes largely private masons, contractors and irrigation channel excavators. Organized industrial institutions of a permanent nature are but few. According to the returns of establishments, industries and factories in which the average daily number of employees during the year 1928 was 30 or more, there were all-told five such establishments, industries and factories in British Baluchistan and the British administered territory besides coal and chromite mines, namely:—

	Average daily number of persons employed.
<b>1. Government and Local Fund Factories.</b>	
Engineering (general) .. .. .	106
Ordnance Department factories .. .. .	947
Railway workshop, including engine shed .. .. .	88
Total .. .. .	1,141
<b>2. All other factories.</b>	
The Quetta Murree brewery .. .. .	66
The St. John Steam Flour Mills .. .. .	34
Total .. .. .	100
Grand total .. .. .	1,241

Of these there were 26 juveniles employed in the Quetta arsenal. No females were employed in any of these industries.

	Open working.	Above ground.	Below ground.	Total.
<b>3. Mines.</b>				
(a) Coal mines .. .. .	—	33	122	155
(b) Chromite .. .. .	105	44	35	184
Totals .. .. .	105	77	157	339



It is clear from these facts and figures that Baluchistan can hardly boast of being more than an unknown entity in the field of industrial undertakings and I, therefore, feel diffident that I can furnish any information in respect of this province which will prove of any value for the purposes of the enquiry entrusted to the Royal Commission on Labour.

## CHIEF COMMISSIONER, DELHI.

### *Memorandum on Labour Conditions in Delhi Province.*

#### I.—Number of Industrial Labourers in Delhi.

In the absence of any Government agency or labour organizations it is difficult to form an accurate estimate of the number of non-factory labourers or to arrive at any accurate idea of the condition in which such labourers live. The difficulty is enhanced by the fact that non-factory labour is scattered all over the city except in the case of chamars, who are to be found living together in small colonies, or as they are called "bastis." It has only been possible to consult a few large employers of labour, the labourers themselves and certain social workers.

It is estimated that there are about 60,000 industrial workers in Delhi of whom, according to the last report on the working of the Factories Act, 10,443 are employed in factories registered under the Act. Without statistics for non-factory labour it is estimated that the labour may be classified approximately under the following heads :—

(1) Building trade .. .. .	20,000
(2) Textile .. .. .	8,000
(3) Gold and silver thread lameta work embroidery and thread ball making .. .. .	7,000
(4) Engineering, general .. .. .	6,000
(5) Tanneries and leather works .. .. .	4,000
(6) Iron and brass foundries and allied works, including trunk making .. .. .	3,500
(7) Printing .. .. .	1,500
(8) Biscuit manufactory, preserves and pickles, and aerated water factories .. .. .	1,500
(9) Woodwork .. .. .	1,500
(10) Soaps, chemicals, dyeing and printing .. .. .	1,200
(11) Gold and silver leaf, pottery and hosiery .. .. .	1,200
(12) Cap making, ivory and paints .. .. .	500
(13) Miscellaneous .. .. .	4,100

According to the factories report the labour employed in factories during the year 1928 was 9,990 men, 190 women and 263 children between 12 and 15 years of age. Of these 7,011 are employed in textile factories, 1,196 in the Public Works Department workshops, 357 in ironworks, 706 in printing presses and 1,173 in all other factories. Eighty per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the year. Work in iron foundries as well as in the cotton ginning departments attached to the three cotton weaving and spinning mills remains slack during the months of May to October each year. Ice factories remain closed during the period October to April. Of the total number of women and children 167 of the former and 228 of the latter are employed in the textile mills.

#### II.—Sources of Recruitment of Labour.

Recruitment of labour is not a serious problem for the factory owners. They attach little importance to references except in the case of the supervising and mechanical staff. The employer frequently takes a worker for a week or more on trial, during which period wages are not always paid.

Labour in textile mills was originally imported from Ahmedabad and Bombay, but little is now obtained from outside the province, the occupation being passed on from father to son.

The local labour market is unable to provide more than a small proportion of the labour required for large building works like the construction of New Delhi. The bulk of the labour, both skilled and unskilled, was imported from Rajputana and Northern and Central India. Most of these workers were agriculturists by origin, and even the artisans are more often than not small agriculturists who desire to supplement their income. The unskilled labour has now for the most part settled

down, but the stone masons, who are drawn from Northern and Central India, return to their homes and lands at the busy agricultural seasons. As the amount of work in the Public Works Department has considerably decreased during the past two or three years it has caused a surplus of unskilled labour in Delhi.

The labour employed in small industries is scattered all over the city. The occupation is generally passed on from father to son. Those employed in iron foundries are recruited locally, and the industry having been one of the chief industries of Delhi for centuries, the workers have become highly skilled in this line. The province also possesses a number of skilled potters who are employed in the pottery works. This industry is, however, not as flourishing as it was twenty or thirty years ago. The total number of persons employed in the pottery works registered under the Factories Act was 123 during the year 1928.

### III.—Medical Relief, Health and Sanitation.

The city and suburbs are well provided with hospitals and indigenous dispensaries where free medical aid can be obtained. The Delhi Cloth Mills employ a compounder to render first-aid when necessary, but the location of an up-to-date municipal dispensary in the neighbourhood has saved the mills any further expenditure on medical relief. The Birla Mills have a qualified practitioner, who attends the mill premises morning and evening for two hours. The company also provides a sufficient supply of medicines. The Khalsa Spinning Mills give an allowance to one of the municipal doctors, who pays a weekly visit to the mill area and attends at other times when specially summoned.

The health of workers employed in small industries in the city is said to be fair on the whole, while in the larger factories it is generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is not possible to say what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness, as the factory registers merely indicate absence from work. The larger mills are mostly well ventilated and healthy to work in, but there is much room for improvement in smaller factories, specially those built in congested city areas. No occupational disease has yet been reported. Lead melting is carried on in two of the printing presses, but sufficient precautions are taken against lead poisoning.

The chief medical officer notes that chronic bronchitis has been noticed in some of the labourers, and general debility is appreciably present among the low-paid workers in the mills.

Coolie camps in New Delhi are a special feature, and a note on labour conditions at New Delhi by Major Webb, health officer, New Delhi, and assistant director of public health, Delhi Province, is appended.

As regards general sanitary conditions in the factories the Inspector of Factories writes :—

“ Sanitary conditions in the larger and well-organized factories on the whole are satisfactory ; in case of smaller factories sanitation frequently leaves much to be desired owing partly to the ignorance of operatives and partly to the lack of interest on the part of the factory management.

“ Latrines are provided for workers according to rules laid down in the Delhi Factory Rules ; they are flushed and kept clean by persons specially appointed for the purpose. The habits of the labouring classes being generally dirty, latrines are frequently found to be in a very insanitary condition, due more to the workers themselves than lack of provision and supervision. There is a tendency on the part of big millowners to instal flushed latrines where possible.”

The lack of proper nourishment, the insanitary conditions and surroundings in which the labourers live and the want of recreation and amusements places them in an unfavourable position for resisting disease.

As regards the health conditions of the boy labourers the certifying surgeon states as follows :—

“ The boys recruited for working in the mills and factories are brought to me for medical examination before being employed. Those that are found to be under the age of twelve, and those physically unfit are rejected, those between twelve and fifteen being employed for half-day work, and those of fifteen or over for full day. These boys between twelve and fifteen have no occasion to appear for examination again until they are fifteen. It is likely that some of them may develop such constitutional diseases as rheumatic fever, tuberculosis, chorea, etc., but being armed with a fitness certificate are allowed to return to work as soon as the acute symptoms of the disease have passed over, thus getting no rest for long periods to acquire a complete cure or compensatory development in their organs. Such cases are often met with in the out-patient departments. I beg to suggest that this class of boys should be brought up for medical inspection periodically before a Government medical officer.”

The Chief Medical Officer is of opinion that boys between fifteen and twenty should not be allowed to work long hours in steam-heated rooms, and he considers that medical officers should be appointed by Government, their pay being charged to the millowners. During the year 1928, 1,056 children were examined. Of these 168 were found under age, 10 were declared unfit on account of disease, 576 were found to be fit and between the ages of twelve to fifteen, while 302 were passed as fifteen or over.

#### IV.—Efficiency and Education.

As regards efficiency the industrial surveyor, Sardar Mehtab Singh, writes :—

“The efficiency of industrial labour is claimed to depend on the chief factors affecting the standard of comfort and general health. With the rendering of the conditions under which industrial classes live more healthy and consequently more attractive, the relative efficiency is expected to show a definite and substantial rise, particularly in the case of organized industries. From the point of view of economic development, the problem of improvement of efficiency of the industrial operative which is known to be less than that of the corresponding class of worker in western countries has to be solved in the interest of facilitating effective competition with foreign industries. There is ample evidence to show that the discomfort of working conditions has invariably tended to produce adverse effect on the output. The evils of intemperance among the labouring population also affect to an appreciable extent their efficiency.”

The Inspector of Factories observes as follows :—

“I am of opinion that the efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased considerably during the past five or six years. The industrial educational institutions have, to a great extent, been responsible for this. But in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed; in fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in the factories. In my opinion health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of a worker. Unless the labouring classes are well fed by a corresponding increase in their wages it appears a difficult problem to effect any appreciable improvement in this behalf.”

Practically all labourers are uneducated, and very few employers take any interest in providing educational facilities for their employees. The Birla Cotton Mills, however, maintain a primary school for the education of the children of their employees, while the Delhi Cloth Mills have provided rent-free accommodation in their premises for two municipal primary schools. There is also a night school for adults.

The introduction of compulsory primary education within municipal limits will gradually remove this defect among the working classes. It may, however, be noted that the working classes generally do not look favourably on primary education, and would prefer some more practical form, while unskilled workers cannot afford to keep their children at school as they count on their assistance in adding to the family earnings from an early age. Coolie labour is constantly changing so that continuity of education is difficult.

As regards technical education the industrial surveyor observes :—

“The introduction of some form of primary education supplemented with elementary technical training among the labouring population appears desirable from the point of view of the development of a practical industrial bias in the workers.”

Industrial education is provided in the Government Industrial School which has 275 boys on the roll, 186 primary and 89 middle. The number of boys in the middle department is lower than it should be owing to the ease with which partly trained boys get work outside. The boys attending the school belong almost entirely to the artisan classes. The boys are mostly very poor. The school is not well situated to attract the boys of the working classes, and it seems probable that there is considerable room for the expansion of industrial education by the location of branch schools in those parts of the city which are more largely inhabited by artisans.

#### V.—Housing and Standard of Living.

On the subject of housing the industrial surveyor writes as follows :—

“The provision of housing accommodation for the industrial population employed by the industrial undertakings in the province is a voluntary act on the part of the employer. The industrial establishments employing a limited number of workmen or carrying on business operations during a part of the year have evidently no intention to house their labour. The enlightened employer in the organized industries, such as textile and flour milling industries, has however made a provision on a fairly appreciable scale for the accommodation of his operatives, either free or at a rate

from 30 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent. The dwellings provided consist usually of the single storey lines in single-room units, with either a small projecting verandah or in some cases a narrow enclosed courtyard. The new coolie quarters of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, are an improvement in the direction of better housing. In a city like Delhi the problem of sanitation is an all important one and deserves special attention from the employers as well as the local authorities concerned. There is room for improvement in the arrangements for the supply of water, latrine accommodation and provision of light and ventilation. The desirability to provide for the housing of industrial labour on an extended scale and to improve the slum property appears evident at this date."

The inspector of factories observes :—

"Quarters are generally provided for the permanent staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., and in the bigger factories such as textile mills, flour mills, etc., quarters are provided for a number of their labourers as well. Housing of all workers is aimed at by the mill authorities, and a great advance towards this end has been noticed during the past three or four years.

"Workers in the smaller factories are not provided with quarters to any great extent. There are temporary coolie lines erected adjoining the big workshops of the Public Works Department.

"Quarters where provided are cleaner, well built and sanitary, and are appreciated by the labourers as the same are rented by the mill authorities at a less cost than such accommodation could be obtained otherwise."

The chief medical officer notes :—

"In general the labouring classes dwell in one room tenements and in poor bastis of the city where the rents are very low. Overcrowding to a marked extent prevails in quarters inhabited by them. An attempt has been made by the three big mills of the city, viz., Khalsa Mills, Birla Mills and the Delhi Cloth and General Mills Co., Limited, to provide residential quarters for some of their labourers. The labourers' quarters, built at Qarol Bagh by the Delhi Cloth and General Mills Co., Limited, require special mention, as they are built on sanitary principles. The only defect therein is that the drainage system is defective. The management of the mills is anxious to provide sanitary drains as soon as a sewerage system is provided at Qarol Bagh."

As regard the standard of living, Rai Bahadur Mr. Sohan Lal, Secretary to the Municipal Committee, Delhi, writes as follows :—

"Except the textile and flour mills, which have provided quarters for about 25 per cent. of their workers, the labour is left to make its own arrangements in the city. Most of these men, and especially the chamars, who are engaged in the leather trade, live in overcrowded and insanitary houses. They are forced to do so as house rents are high in Delhi, and with their scanty savings these men find it difficult to keep soul and body together. They have, to a certain extent, to blame themselves for the position in which they find themselves. It is a well-known fact that an ordinary labourer on receiving his wages or after earning extra money by overtime, etc., must absent himself from his work for a few days till his ready cash is exhausted. He has not learned the habit of thrift and is not far sighted enough to collect anything for a rainy day. Sickness, marriages in the family and other religious observances forces him into the hands of the moneylender, and he is never able to get out of their clutches the whole of his life. It has to be admitted, however, that the employers of labour in Delhi are getting solicitous for the welfare of their workers and have begun to realize that their prosperity depends on the contentment and uplift of their employees. The worker also is getting out of his lethargy and is getting conscious of his strength. There is less drunkenness amongst them, and there is a desire to curtail their unnecessary expenses. At present their standard of living is low indeed."

The following note by the Inspector of Factories bears out the view taken by Mr. Sohan Lal :—

"The standard of living of the labouring classes is low : this is due on account of their poor earnings. Their wages are hardly sufficient to fetch for them and their families the bare necessities of life. The food of an average worker is far from being nourishing, and he is invariably found in dirty clothes. With a view to effect any improvement in the living of an average worker and consequently in his efficiency and earning capacity it is essential that he should be given compulsory elementary education."

Sardar Mehtab Singh, industrial surveyor, adds :—

"Speaking generally, the industrial labourer is content with a comparatively low standard of comfort and does not appear to possess power to increase his earning capacity by an enhanced efficiency. The food of an average worker is poor and his

clothing often dirty. There is practically no improvement possible in the standard of living of the industrial operative till such a time as a general policy of his betterment is adopted, a satisfactory scheme for his education is introduced and a suitable provision for housing him is made. With the provision of education for the children of industrial classes under tolerable conditions of life, a new generation of workers is expected to spring up which aim to regard industry as their fixed occupation. Any increase in the comfort of the industrial operative means a proportionate increase in his efficiency which adds to the interest of the employer while the factor contributing to the latter is expected to prevent loss from the economic aspect of the problem."

#### VI.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

So far as Delhi is concerned, the relations between the employers and the employed are generally satisfactory. Some of the larger factory owners have made deliberate efforts to foster cordial relations with satisfactory results, and as a result of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act the more intelligent employers have insured their labour against accident. A good deal, however, remains to be done in the way of provision for recreation, etc.

The general friendliness of the relations between the employers and the employed is, however, shown by the fact that Delhi has been free from industrial disputes for the past ten years, with the exception of one or two strikes of a very minor nature.

Up to the present labour in Delhi has been mostly unorganized, and trade unions are practically unknown. Efforts have been made recently to form trade unions of textile workers but met with little success.

There is a considerable amount of unemployment, especially among the unskilled workers, who have been prejudicially affected by the contraction of activities in the Public Works Department workshops. In the textile mills there has been very little unemployment of late. Labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have led to a great increase in output in Delhi. As a matter of fact, some of the workers from Bombay and Ahmedabad have come north to Delhi in order to get employment in the mills here.

#### NOTE ON LABOUR CONDITIONS AT NEW DELHI BY MAJOR J. R. D. WEBB, I.M.S., HEALTH OFFICER, NEW DELHI.

*Housing : During Construction.*—Originally Government spent Rs. 5 lakhs in providing quarters for coolie labour at New Delhi when the Imperial capital was started. Brick quarters were put up at selected sites. Water and other sanitary arrangements were made. These camps were given out to the labour under definite rules. Those relating to health were under the control of the health authorities and were laid down in printed pamphlet form.

*Present Time.*—Special plots of ground are now allotted for coolies. These coolies are not employed by Government. They are servants of the various contractors working in the area with the exception of the coolies employed by the Superintendent, Horticultural Operations.

The coolies build their own huts by digging the ground. The mud resulting is used for the construction of the walls, while thatch or odd pieces of iron sheeting form the roofs. Materials for roofing, etc., are provided by the contractors. These huts are thus partially underground and are about 5 ft. in height. Each hut houses about five people, making up one coolie family.

*Work.*—The coolies work in families, but children under twelve years of age are not allowed to work. Their hours are 6.30 a.m. to 6 p.m. in the summer, with two hours off in the middle of the day (12 to 2 p.m.). Winter 7.30 a.m. to 5 p.m.

Women do lighter work than men. Families are brought to the various works, i.e., infants and children. These children play about while their parents work.

*Wages.*—Coolies earn 8 to 12 annas per day.

*Food.*—Consists of inferior quality atta (flour) dal (pulses), rice, and some ghee or oil. It is of poor quality and this quantity is, roughly, about one seer (2 lb.) per adult per day. The food is bought from bunyas' shops which exist in the camps. The supplies are inspected by the health department to see that cleanliness is observed. The coolies are invariably in the debt of the bunyas.

*Education.*—No Government schools exist in the camps, yet one effort has been made of a very minor nature by private enterprise. As the labour is constantly changing, continuity of education would be difficult.

*Propaganda.*—This is done by the health department by means of cinema and lantern lectures relating particularly to disease and welfare conditions. It is much appreciated, and some good results have been obtained.

*Fuel.*—This is collected by the coolies and is stored in the camp in bundles. Bramble bushes are chiefly used as opposed to cow dung cakes, because animals (cows) are, generally speaking, not kept in the camps.

*Medical Aid.*—For the major diseases the coolies have facilities in the civil hospital, where they receive treatment. As, however, a visit to the hospital entails the loss of a day's wages, they do not readily avail themselves of treatment from this source, unless very seriously ill.

*First Aid, and Maternity and Child Welfare.*—In consequence the municipality opened first aid and maternity, and welfare posts at each camp. The coolies readily avail themselves of the advantages gained in this way. This work is now well established.

*Epidemics, other Diseases and Injuries.*—In ordinary years malaria affects this labour considerably. In dry years, such as 1928, this disease was conspicuous by its absence. The incidence of this disease has improved also with the general anti-malarial work which is being carried out in the area of the Imperial capital by the health department.

All coolies are regularly vaccinated against small-pox. In consequence the disease is conspicuous by its absence.

Plague has been unknown in these camps.

Cholera has occasionally appeared, but with prompt action, such as inoculation of coolies, purification of the water supplies, isolation at the isolation hospital, these outbreaks have been of a very minor nature with no cause for alarm.

Tuberculosis is not as common as might be expected under the overcrowded conditions of life. The outdoor life of the coolies may be responsible.

Injuries were at first common. There is a negligible number of injuries now.

*General Sanitation.*—This is carried out by a staff of sweepers employed and controlled by Government. Rubbish and sweepings are removed by motor lorry and are burnt or buried at distant places from the camps.

*Flies.*—Are generally conspicuous by their absence in the camps, except during the months of August and September.

*Roads in the Camps.*—These are kutcha, but are kept neat and clean by the sweeping staff.

*Latrine Accommodation.*—This is adequate. This is provided by Government, as in most cases the latrines are on the water-borne flush system. In some few instances there are dry latrines scavenged by a gang of sweepers to pail depots on the water-borne system.

*Drinking Water.*—This is by a piped purified water supply to the camps and is excellent. Coolies when in work in the area drink from any and every source, and a frequent sight is to see them drinking from the unfiltered water supply which is taken all over the area by pipes for horticultural purposes in the capital.

*Stoneyard Camp.*—This has, perhaps, been the largest in the world. Here labour is housed, but at present it is under private control, and is not a Government undertaking.

The picture given above is not a rosy one, yet is excellent in comparison with labour conditions as they exist at the brickfields at Shadara or Rajpur.

It might be interesting for the Commission to visit one or two of these camps while at Delhi.

#### Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES.

##### *Labour in the Factories in Delhi Province.*

As shown in the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in Delhi is 10,443, of which 9,990 are men, 190 women, and 263 children (between 12 and 15 years of age).

Of the total number, 7,011 are employed in textile mills, 1,196 in Public Works Department workshops, 357 in ironworks, 706 in printing presses, and 1,173 in all other factories. Eighty per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the years as most of the factories in Delhi are perennial.

Work in iron foundries as well as in the cotton ginning departments attached to the three cotton spinning and weaving mills remains slack during the months of May to October each year. Ice factories remain closed during the period October to April.

Of the total number of 190 women and 263 children, 167 and 228 are employed respectively in the textile mills.

### I.—Recruitment.

1 (i) When new factories are opened most of the skilled labour required is imported chiefly from places where similar concerns are already in progress. Labour in the textile mills was originally imported from Ahmedabad and Bombay, but of recent years it has practically become local as for the past many years the occupations are passed on from father to son and very little labour is now imported from other provinces.

Labour in the Public Works Department workshops employed in connection with the construction of New Delhi was to a great extent imported from Rajputana and Central India; it has now settled in Delhi. As the amount of work in Public Works Department factories has considerably decreased during the past two or three years, there is a surplus of unskilled workers in Delhi, resulting in labour being easily obtainable.

A number of Chinese wood workers were also brought to Delhi for employment in the Public Works Department wood workshops. A Chinese labour contractor was at one time engaged to recruit labour for these shops.

The workers employed in iron foundries are recruited locally. This industry being one of Delhi's chief industries for centuries, the workers have become highly skilled.

The province also possesses a number of skilled potters, who are working at present in the pottery works. This industry, however, is not so flourishing to-day as it was twenty or thirty years ago. The total number of persons employed in pottery works registered under the Act was 123 during the last year.

(iii) The only noticeable change during the recent years is the gradual inclination on the part of the workmen to take up factory work; this is probably due to the rise in wages paid by the employers: the change is, however, very slow.

3 (i) Recruitment in factories is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who can usually meet the supply. Much recruitment is also made by personal acquaintance. Most of the permanent workers, such as engineers, mechanics, and other skilled workers appear to have friends or relations looking for an improvement on their job, and references regarding ability and certificates not being of great value, changes of service frequently occur. Unskilled and casual labour is recruited through the labour contractor and mostly paid by him at the end of the day. There is no guarantee given by the contractor that work will be forthcoming the following day as it all depends on the amount of work that is then available.

(ii) I do not know of any improvement which can be effected with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour; the existing method with regard to the recruitment of unskilled labour: the existing method is simple and effective. Labour being illiterate, would look with suspicion upon any change that might be contemplated in the present system.

7 (i) Unemployment is prevalent amongst the unskilled workers chiefly owing to the contraction of activities in the Public Works Department workshops.

In textile mills there has been very little unemployment during the past three or four years. This is due mainly to the fact that labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have increased the work in textile mills of Delhi, which have not only greatly expanded during the past four years, but have also worked at full pressure by day, and three of them have worked fairly regularly both day and night for the past two years. This has provided employment for all the textile workers available in Delhi, so much so that some of the workers from Bombay and Ahmedabad have travelled northwards and found employment in the Delhi mills.

A certain amount of unemployment prevails amongst the workers in iron foundries, in which the major work is that of manufacturing or repairing crushers used in the preparation of sugar. This industry depends to a great extent on the sugar crop, as a result of which employment is not very secure.

### II.—Staff Organization.

11. The managing staff in the textile mills in India throughout originated in Bombay or Ahmedabad whilst the managing director of the biggest mill is a local man. But in the case of smaller concerns the managing staff is recruited locally.

12 (i) Subordinate supervising staff is to some extent supplied from the various industrial and technical institutions. It is also imported to some extent from abroad. There is a marked difference between the unskilled and skilled workers, the former seldom, if ever, attain positions of skilled workers or supervisors.

13 (i) In well established mills, particularly those run by responsible companies, the relations between the employer and employed are good and compare favourably with other countries from what I have seen. In the case of smaller factories difficulties occasionally arise amongst the proprietors, managers, and workers chiefly on account of the non-payment of the wages.

15 (i) Recruitment of labour in factories is usually carried out by a labour contractor, who is generally able to meet the demand.

(ii) It is difficult to say to what extent sub-contracting is carried on, but since the labour contractor usually lives near the factory area and seldom undertakes to contract for more than two or three factories, it is unlikely that he would resort to sub-contracting.

(iii) The contractor has little or nothing to do with the working conditions of the labour he supplies. His duty finishes when he has supplied labour to the extent required by the factory manager.

#### IV.—Health.

28 (i) Exhaust and overhead fans are fitted in the workrooms of well-organized factories and workers themselves frequently fit up fans worked from a pulley of the power shaft. Stoves are provided in some factories during the winter months, but factories are usually kept warm enough by the power plant. Apart from this, little attempt is made to control the temperature of the factory rooms.

Two textile mills have installed elaborate cooling systems throughout their mills, considerably improving the conditions under which operatives work. The cooling plants have been expensive experiments, but the mill managers report that there has been an increase in the output as a result of better working conditions.

(ii) Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity came into force only last year. There are four cotton spinning and weaving mills in the province in which artificial humidity is being used at present, affecting about 7,011 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29 (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has been reported or has come to my notice. Lead melting operations are carried out in one of the printing presses in the province, the fumes from the melting stove being taken away with the help of an exhaust fan, and there is no danger from lead-poisoning.

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

32 (i) Welfare work in the textile mills includes the providing of recreation grounds, an annual fair in the case of one mill, free distribution of clothes and sweetmeats and the provision of hot tea to the workers in the case of another mill during the rest interval at night for the purpose of keeping the labourers from sleeping. Whatever little is done for the welfare of workers is undoubtedly appreciated and the mill owners admit that they get a fair return from the workers in the shape of loyalty and increased production.

Factories other than textile mills take little interest in their labour so far as welfare work is concerned, except in the case of Delhi Iron Works, which is one of the largest and best of its kind in Delhi. In this factory the workmen are given many comforts, including a bonus in the profit at the end of the year. This factory is also outstanding as having in its shops many men who have been in the firm's continuous employ for twenty or thirty years.

43. Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of the workers. Apart from the every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing their to notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures and to other requirements of the Factory Law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention.



44. A reference to annual report on the working of the Indian Factories Act in the Delhi Province will show that accidents have increased in the recent years.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes :—(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners due to some extent to the strict administration of Factory Law. (b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the Factory Inspector's office. (c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting they might get compensation. (d) Another reason is that since the war up-to-date machinery of entirely new patterns has been introduced into the country whilst the workmen have not had the proper training to keep pace with the new type of machinery. It is noticeable that accidents increase with the introduction of new types of machines. (e) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers still take frightful and unnecessary risks. (f) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

49 (i) During the year 1928 112 inspections were made, resulting in 22 prosecutions to enforce factory regulations. The bigger and well-organized mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules, and make an effort to do so.

### IX.—Hours.

#### A.—Factories.

55. Factory law permits working 11 hours a day but not exceeding 60 hours a week; this is taken full advantage of.

56. Factories work for six days a week and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, is observed as a complete holiday.

57 (i) So far as workers are concerned they have welcomed the 60-hour week since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers in this province; few factories have yet adopted the clocking in and out system; as a result a considerable amount of time is wasted in getting to and from the actual job. It is improbable that in a 10 hours day the average worker is on his job more than 8½ hours.

60 (i) (a) The break after putting in six hours' work is very useful and does go a long way in preventing undue fatigue. (b) The break after six hours' work is utilized chiefly as a rest. The workers do not generally take their meals at this time, their meal hour being earlier in the morning (9 to 10) and again after their work in the evening.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

(iv) Ample holidays are given or taken by the workers, apart from the weekly holidays there are public holidays which are mostly given to workers either as extra holidays or substituted for the weekly holidays.

61 (i) The day of rest is usually Sunday except in the case of Muhammadan factories, which observe Friday as their day of rest. It is, however, possible to change the weekly rest day at any time by giving previous notice to the Inspector, and this is done whenever the necessity arises; public holidays are often substituted for Sundays.

(ii) The existing law seems to have worked satisfactorily in this direction.

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

#### A.—Factories.

82. The admission of infants into factories is discouraged. It is, however, difficult to always keep them out because they are too young to be separated from their mothers.

83. The present regulations with regard to the employment of women in factories are quite suitable. Hours of employment for women are the same as for men except that the former may not be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m.

84. The present law with regard to the employment of children appears to have worked satisfactorily.

## XII.—Wages.

96 (i) The prevailing rates of wages for the past five years are given below :—

Classification of labour.	Average per Month.				
	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.
<b>I.—Skilled Labour.</b>					
Engine driver .. ..	Rs. a. p. 47 0 0	Rs. a. p. 50 0 0	Rs. a. p. 52 0 0	Rs. a. p. 52 0 0	Rs. a. p. 52 0 0
Carpenter .. ..	56 0 0	56 0 0	54 0 0	53 0 0	54 0 0
Blacksmith .. ..	55 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0	50 0 0
Mochi .. ..	29 0 0	28 0 0	28 0 0	26 0 0	27 0 0
Moulder .. ..	35 0 0	35 0 0	36 0 0	35 0 0	36 0 0
Turner .. ..	31 0 0	31 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Oilman .. ..	35 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0	32 0 0
Fireman .. ..	33 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Weaver.. ..	70 0 0	65 0 0	62 0 0	60 0 0	62 0 0
Spinner.. ..	38 0 0	35 0 0	34 0 0	32 0 0	33 0 0
Dyer .. ..	30 0 0	30 0 0	31 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Reeler (woman) .. ..	22 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Press distributor .. ..	22 0 0	22 0 0	22 0 0	22 0 0	23 0 0
Press compositor .. ..	34 0 0	34 0 0	34 0 0	33 0 0	34 0 0
<b>2.—Unskilled Labour.</b>					
	Average per Day.				
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Coolie (man) .. ..	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
Coolie (woman) .. ..	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 5 6

## XVII.—Administration.

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation ; although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the Rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to know what the posters really mean.

139 (i) In this province, which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction, namely, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, the Factory Inspection Staff consists of :—

One full-time Inspector.

One Industrial Surveyor under the control of the Director of Industries, Punjab, stationed at Delhi, who is notified as additional Factory Inspector under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act for the province of Delhi.

The number of factories in this province under the operation of the Indian Factories Act at present is 61 and the staff is adequate. It may be noted here that the Local Government in the case of the Punjab have decided to appoint one full-time Inspector with effect from April 1, 1930, in the place of the five Industrial Surveyors of the Punjab under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act. Thus from April next there will be one Chief Inspector and one Inspector in the Punjab.

This advanced method of inspection has not yet been considered by the Delhi Government, but with the extension of modern machine methods in working factories the services of another Inspector qualified to be notified under all sections of the Act would be useful and is becoming necessary. The present method of inspection has worked fairly satisfactorily up to this time, but the duties of the Industrial Surveyor are fast increasing and the time he can devote to factory inspection is decreasing as a result.

(iii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of Factory Law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results.

(iv) During the year 1928, 22 cases under the Factory Law were instituted against the occupiers and managers of five factories. Of the total number of cases 18 resulted in conviction.

## THE INDUSTRIAL SURVEYOR, DELHI.

## I.—Recruitment.

1. The bulk of the industrial labour in this province was originally imported from Ahmedabad, Bombay, Rajputana and Northern and Central India. Generally speaking, the recruits for the industrial labour market were provided from the agricultural classes, who were either uprooted from the soil or were left, under the baneful influence of fragmentation, small holdings not enough to support them and their families. The labour employed in the building trades, since the transference of the capital to Delhi, whose strength is considerable, was mostly recruited from the agricultural working classes from Rajputana and some from Northern India.

The agricultural population in rural areas in this province constitutes not a significant source of labour supply for industrial undertakings. The agriculturist generally finds attraction for industrial employment for short periods to supplement his earnings. The workers in the seasonal occupations are, however, recruited from agriculture, and to some extent from the artizan classes in the neighbouring villages, and they are therefore mostly migratory.

There are no available statistics showing the extent of migration of the industrial labour in this province. The seasonal occupations in industries are limited mostly to iron foundry and ice production, and the extent of migration is consequently not considerable. The skilled labour is mostly permanent, but the unskilled workmen are migratory to some extent.

The continued industrial depression combined with the contraction in the activities in the Public Works Department, New Delhi, has caused a surplus of industrial labour, particularly unskilled workers, in this province. The recruitment of labour is consequently not a problem for the industrial undertakings generally at present.

2. (i) The extent and frequency of return to his village of the industrial operative is mainly determined by the nature of his employment. The workers living with their family members are roughly estimated to constitute about 40 per cent. of the total strength of the labour employed in industrial undertakings in this province. The family members, particularly of unskilled workers, are also generally employed in industrial undertakings, and add to the family income. Such working classes are the last to return to their villages. In fact, a fairly important section of the industrial labour in this province has now practically settled down, and has either no village home or little family ties to serve as attractions for frequent returns.

(ii) There are no reliable statistics, but roughly speaking about 60 per cent. of the total labour force in this province is permanent.

3. (i) The employer often sends his agent, who generally belongs to the labouring classes and wields a certain amount of influence amongst them for purposes of recruitment of industrial labour in the surrounding districts. The recruit is paid his expenses incurred in journey and food from his village to the place of his destination. There is a labour contractor also whose services form an important factor, particularly in the building trades. He collects and supplies workpeople to the employer. The type of worker he supplies is, however, generally not a superior one.

(iii) The desirability of the establishment of public employment agencies for the collection and periodical publication of statistics deserves consideration. This is believed to operate to the advantage of the employer and the employee equally.

4. The bulk of the industrial population is now settled down in Delhi, and there is therefore very little disturbance of family life. There does not appear to be any appreciable disturbance in the case of migratory labour, whose work is mostly of a seasonal character. A section of the labour who has got his home in the neighbouring districts returns to his family at every possible opportunity.

7. (i) The extent of unemployment is not known.

(ii) I am not aware of any appreciable degree of dismissals nor of any voluntary retirements. There has been retrenchment in some industries owing to several causes. In order to minimize the cost of production, there is a general tendency for the introduction of labour-saving appliances and high-speed machinery in the industrial undertakings generally. The iron foundry industry, which was once known for its principal product in sugar-cane crusher or *kohlu*, and enjoyed a considerable export trade as far as the North-West Frontier Province on the one side and Bihar and Orissa on the other is in a depressed condition owing mainly to the reported poverty of the yield of sugar-cane crop in the surrounding districts coupled with increased external competition in recent years. The manufacture of gold and silver threads and lametta, which is the premier cottage industry of the capital city, has suffered a set-back by the continued chaotic political conditions of the frontier territory—one of the important consuming markets for the varied products of the industry.

The oil-milling industry is in a moribund condition. The internal suicidal competition is too patent in the thread-ball industry. The continued diminished activity in the building trades has already adversely affected the employment of labour, particularly unskilled operatives. The flour milling industry is passing through a trying period. The leather-tanning and leather-working industries are in a depressed condition.

(iii) In spite of the adverse conditions prevailing, there is no marked distress noticeable amongst the industrial population in this province. Yet it appears that employment in cottage industries is perhaps the best solution to alleviate such economic stress.

The development of home industries is known to play an important role in the national welfare of a country. The population being mainly agricultural, cannot afford to overlook the economic value of the home industries in periods of forced idleness. The solution of the problem of economic salvation of the masses fundamentally lies in the organization and development of home industries. The village can hardly remain a sound economic unit in the absence of the provision of alternative occupations suited to the existing conditions. The rural population forms the backbone of the people of the province, and in order to ameliorate conditions, an endeavour has to be made to inaugurate and develop home industries as well as secondary seasonal occupations for the agriculturist.

(iv) There is no unemployment insurance known in this province.

8. (i) and (ii) The small extent of the shifting composition of the industrial population generally renders the average duration of employment fairly long in the organized industries. The recruitment of labouring classes locally as feed for industries in other parts of the country is practically not known. The extent of casual employment is roughly estimated at 5 to 10 per cent., though no reliable figures are available.

(iii) The chief causes of absenteeism are malarial sickness and ceremonial observances and fairs. The extent of absenteeism due to sickness is calculated at 10 per cent. for a period of about two months in a year, between August and October, when malaria breaks out in the province. The casual illness and observance of religious ceremonies and attendance at marriages and fairs are responsible for about 5 per cent. of absentees, throughout the year.

The average wage earned by an industrial worker in the industry in this province is calculated at ten annas a day, as will appear from the statement of wages of workers in industries in this province under XII.—Wages. Six thousand workers lose 60 working days, while 3,000 workers lose 320 working days, on an average, during the year. The aggregate loss of wages therefore approximates to eight lacs and twenty-five thousand rupees.

## II.—Staff Organization.

15. (i) The intermediary contractors are practically not known in the establishments under the Factories Act, but in the building trades they are not uncommon.

The piece-wage and contract systems of work are gaining popularity with the industrial undertakings generally, as they are regarded to lead to economy and efficiency. The employer is saved any strict supervision, and the worker puts in an increased effort to augment his earnings.

(ii) The system of sub-contract is looked upon with disfavour by the industrial undertakings generally, except in the building trades.

(iii) Generally speaking, there is little control exercised by the contractor over working conditions in an industrial undertaking in this province. In the building trades, however, the contractor exercises sufficient control over working conditions.

(iv) The effects of contract work appear to be generally satisfactory to the parties concerned.

## III.—Housing.

17. The industrial employer is given facilities for the grant of Government land on favourable terms for purposes of building workers' houses. The provision of facilities in the matter of acquisition of land by the employer for housing his labour appears desirable.

18. The quarters provided to house the superior staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., are generally satisfactory from the health point of view. There is provision for lighting, conservancy and water-supply.

The dwellings provided in the organized industries for the accommodation of the workers consist usually of the single-storey lines in single-room units, with either a small projecting verandah or in some cases a narrow enclosed courtyard. The provision made for lighting, conservancy and water supply is on a restricted scale. The new coolie quarters of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, are an improvement in the direction

of better housing from the point of view of sanitation. The Birla Mills, Delhi, are now engaged in making an extended provision of water-flushed latrines in their coolie lines. In a city like Delhi the problem of sanitation is an all-important one, and deserves special attention from the employers as well as the local authorities concerned. There is room for improvement in the arrangements for the supply of water, latrine accommodation, and provision of light and ventilation generally. The coolie camps housing the industrial operatives employed in the building trades in New Delhi present not a pleasant spectacle and suffer by comparison.

The huts constituting a coolie-camp in New Delhi are built of mud dug from the ground covering them, with thatched roofs. Each hut, which is partially underground and measures about 5 feet in height, houses one family consisting of about five members. The general sanitation of the coolie-camps is controlled by Government with an adequate provision of fairly suitable latrine accommodation and water-supply for drinking purposes.

There is no demand made on the part of the working classes in regard to the standard of accommodation provided by the industrial employer. The housing accommodation provided is generally satisfactory, and in some cases superior to that to which the average worker is accustomed in his own village. This refers to the permanent housing accommodation provided by the employer in the organized industries.

19. The workers have never failed to take advantage of the accommodation offered for the purposes of housing them, by the industrial undertakings in this province.

20. The quarters provided for the superior staff, such as managers, engineers, etc., are generally rent free. The accommodation to house the workers is provided at a rate from 30 to 50 per cent. below the economic rent.

#### IV.—Health.

23. The general health conditions of workers employed in industrial undertakings under the Indian Factories Act and Mines Act in this province are on the whole satisfactory. The conditions obtaining in the industrial establishments not covered by the provisions of Factories or Mines Acts under which working classes have to work for sufficiently long hours in a day as well as to live, can hardly be described as conducive to general health of the operatives. The working conditions in the well-organized factory establishments on the other hand are fairly satisfactory from the point of view of general health, though there is room for improvement in small-scale concerns, particularly those built in congested areas in the city of Delhi.

Broadly speaking, the food of an average worker is poor and mostly consists of inferior quality of flour, pulses, rice and oil or ghee. He often shows a poor physique, and appears contented with a low standard of comfort. His clothing is often dirty.

24. The city of Delhi and the suburbs are fairly well provided with hospitals and indigenous dispensaries where free medical aid is available. The institutions are maintained by Government and local bodies.

The provision of medical facilities by the employer generally is on a restricted scale. The importance of the creation and maintenance of a healthy and contented labour force is, however, recognized by the intelligent section of the employer. The Birla Mills, Delhi, employ a whole-time qualified physician and surgeon with four compounders, and maintain a hospital where free medical aid is made available to their employees. A maternity home is also recently started under the charge of a trained midwife employed by the mills. The Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, maintain a compounder to render first-aid, if necessary. The mills are served by the Municipal Bara Hindu Rao Dispensary situated in their close proximity. The secretary of the mills donated a sum of rupees, ten thousand, towards the building of the dispensary for the purpose. The Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbi College Hospital is also close to the coolie-quarters of the mills. The Lady Reading Health School serves the female workers employed in the mills. The Khalsa Mills and the Delhi Flour Mills have engaged one of the local sub-assistant surgeons to render periodical free medical attendance to their employees on a monthly allowance. The Delhi Electric Tramways and Traction Company, Limited, Delhi, have also engaged the part-time services of one of the local assistant surgeons, for the purpose. A provision also exists on a small scale for the free supply of more common medicines in well-organized industrial establishments.

30. *Sickness insurance.*—There does not appear to be any general dislike towards the acceptance of Western medicine. The difficulty, if any, might however possibly be met by the provision of a substituted recognized indigenous system of medicine.

In so far as the distribution of industrial regions in this province is concerned, there appears to be no real difficulty in securing qualified medical men in sufficient numbers willing to undertake the work.

The migration of labour in this province does not appear to affect the problem of sickness insurance to any great extent. The grant of medical attendance or pecuniary accident or sick benefit, funeral benefit and confinement and maternity benefit in case of sickness, accident, death or child-birth is realized to dispel the uncertainty of livelihood from the mind of the insured worker, making him more contented and perhaps less migratory than at present.

The financial resources required for the establishment of the institution may be provided from contributions partly by the insured worker and partly by his employer, together with a contribution by the State.

31. Amongst the industrial undertakings in this province, the Birla Mills, Delhi, have recently made a provision for maternity benefits with an allowance of three months' wages to be given two months before and one month after child-birth.

The employers of this province who were consulted in the matter were generally sympathetic towards the provisions of Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefit Bill. The desirability of such a legislation is recognized, and the security which a woman-worker must feel if she knows beforehand what her fate is to be on such occasions must be a source of strength and a great consolation to her.

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

33. The Birla Mills, Delhi, have employed a labour secretary, whose principal functions are to look after the general welfare of their labour, housed in their coolie lines. To increase his interest in life and consequent efficiency of the industrial operative, the desirability of the employment of welfare officers and workers in industrial areas deserves consideration.

34. The Birla Mills, Delhi, provide cinema displays periodically, and maintain a small library for the use of their staff. There is a provision for refreshments on payment. A *dai* is employed to take care of and feed babies with milk in a separate enclosure within the mill premises, when their mothers are at work in the departments. An *Akhara* (wrestling ground) is also provided for the physical exercise of the labourers. The organization of an annual labourers' *mela* (fair) is a special feature of the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi. A variety of entertainments in the shape of dramatic representations, cinema shows, laughing galleries, distribution of sweets and prizes is provided on the occasion. There is a provision for refreshments, on payment. There is a certain amount of propaganda work carried by the mills on the evils of intemperance by means of lectures amongst the working classes. It seems desirable to make a provision for open spaces with facilities for recreation, including sports and athletics, libraries, reading-rooms and cinema displays as means of instruction and amusement, and liberal medical assistance for the industrial population, on an extended scale.

35. The welfare activities have resulted in the contentment of the labour force, to some extent. There are also some signs of decline in drunkenness amongst the industrial population.

36. Broadly speaking, little or no serious attempt seems to have been made by the employer generally to provide for the education of the labouring classes in industrial undertakings. The ignorance coupled with conservatism of the uneducated workman is felt to tend to delay the progress of industrial development. The advantages of education among the working classes are, however, recognized by the enlightened employers and schools are provided for the education of the employees and their children in the Birla Mills and the Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi. The Birla Mills maintain their own schools, including a night school for adults at their expense, while the Delhi Cloth Mills contribute rent-free buildings towards the maintenance of the schools opened by the Delhi municipality in their premises. The schools are used by the workers and their children to a fair extent. There are about 30 adult workers, 50 half-time workers and 300 workers' children receiving education in the Birla Mills' schools. The Delhi Cloth Mills' schools provide education to about 150 workers' children.

A section of the working classes does not view with favour the education of children who are the earning members of the family.

37. There is no provision for old age and premature retirement except that of a provident fund established in the Delhi Cloth and General Mills, Delhi. The desirability of such a provision is, however, recognized.

38. There is no co-operative organization amongst the industrial population in this province. The provision of co-operative societies with a view primarily to reducing his indebtedness is expected to improve the economic condition of the industrial operative. The industrial worker is generally in debt to the money-lender, who charges interest at exorbitant rates.

#### VI.—Education.

40. The introduction of compulsory primary education within the municipal limits is hoped to gradually assist in the removal of illiteracy among the industrial population.

The introduction of some form of primary education supplemented with elementary technical training among the labouring population appears desirable from the point of view of the development of a practical industrial bias in the workers.

41. The Government Industrial Middle School is the only Government institution in existence in Delhi in which facilities are provided for industrial education. There is room for ready expansion in industrial education, which is regarded as an essential investment for the production of intelligent and efficient workmen from the point of view of industrial development of the province. The establishment of a properly equipped technical school appears desirable to ensure successful recruitment to industry of the province.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. *Workmen's Compensation Act.*—With the extension of the Workmen's Compensation Act to organized industries, the intelligent employer has insured his labour against accident and the measure has proved of great benefit to the working classes covered by the Act.

The introduction of a scheme of compulsory insurance will be rendered necessary consequent on the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries with a view to placing the employer in a position to be able to pay compensation due in the event of a serious accident. The compulsory insurance by the employer is regarded to restore to the workman the security against his inability for payment of compensation.

52. The desirability of the extension of the scope of the Act deserves consideration. In the intricate modern industrial system, it is realized that there is hardly any justification for the exclusion of persons employed in branches of industry other than organized and hazardous from the operations of the Act. The complex machinery and intensive production of the industrial world of to-day are claimed to lead to frequent accidents, and a sufferer in an unorganized industry may be equally affected in the absence of relief by way of compensation as one engaged in an organized industry. The mere hazardous character of an occupation is regarded hardly sufficient justification for depriving those who suffer from the hardships involved in the rare accidents from the benefits conferred by the Act. The scope of the Act might be widened to include all classes of permanent workmen employed in both organized and unorganized industries.

53. (i) The desirability of raising the minimum scales of compensation resulting from the application of Schedule IV of the Act deserves consideration. The existing practice of lump sum payments in the award of compensation appears both sound and safe.

(ii) The present waiting period is admitted to be too long, and to result in hardship, as no compensation is payable in respect of the first ten days of disablement. The reduction of the waiting period by three days is considered advisable to minimize the effect.

The proof of dependence by the claimant claiming compensation to the satisfaction of the Commissioner under the Act is considered essential, not only to afford protection to the employer from fraudulent claims, but to secure relief to the dependants of a workman incapacitated to earn a livelihood to fulfil the intention of the Act.

(iv) The undesirable effect of enabling a workman to decide in a particular case for the ultimate liability for compensation to lie on the principal or the sub-contractor directly employing him as provided under sub-section (2) of Section 12 of the Act is recognized beyond dispute. The amendment of the existing section in accord with its general principle is accordingly suggested in such a manner as to make the employer directly engaging a workman liable for compensation in the event of an accident.

In order to enable Government to determine the extent to which injured workmen succeed in securing compensation, it appears desirable that the provisions of section 16 of the Act be so amended as to make the employer to submit returns in respect of all accidents irrespective of the payment of compensation.

The desirability to amend the provisions of section 22 of the Act in such a manner as to relieve the dependant of a deceased workman claiming compensation of the necessity of approaching the employer for the settlement of the claim, and to enable him to apply to the Commissioner in the first instance is considered obvious.

### IX.—Hours.

#### A.—Factories.

59. There appears to be no possibility of reduction in maxima as was indicated in the recent speech delivered by the employers' delegate from this country at the last International Labour Conference, when Mr. N. M. Joshi, the Labour's delegate suggested such reduction.

60. In the existing practice, the interval relates to the worker's meal time and fatigue during the same hour. The working hours during which the factory is at work are suitable.

There are other holidays mostly of religious character, in addition to the prescribed factory holidays observed in the various industrial establishments. The number of such holidays varies from establishment to establishment.

61. In the existing practice, Sundays as well as week-days are observed as holidays.

#### B.—Mines.

63. The working hours of the operatives in mines averaged to 36 a week, as shown in the Annual Report on the working of mines, in this province, for the year 1928.

The total number of mines subject to the control of the Indian Mines Act in this province is six only, comprising kaolin mines. The mining operations were conducted for 61 days during the past year.

#### D.—Other Establishments.

80. (c) *Other industrial establishments.*—The desirability of regulating the working of industrial establishments, employing a large number of persons and working with or without motive power deserves consideration. In many of the non-regulated industrial undertakings, the lighting and ventilation arrangements are defective, no restrictions are observed as to the working hours, long hours being the rule and holidays are seldom given. A large number of women and children are indiscriminately employed, machinery is often badly fenced or left unguarded, and even elementary sanitary requirements such as latrine accommodation and proper drainage are not satisfactorily provided. The consequence is that not only the health of operatives under such working conditions is endangered by disregard of the fundamental and cardinal essentials, but the industries themselves suffer by the impairment of efficiency of the operatives consequent on the deterioration of their health.

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

#### A.—Factories.

88. The night work of women and children is prohibited by the provisions of the Factories Act. The textile mills employing an appreciable number of women and children work by double shift and engage them during the day. The young adults are, however, employed at night, but there are no statistics to show the adverse effect of such employment on their health.

### XII.—Wages.

96. (i) There are no accurate statistics available with regard to industrial wages in Delhi Province in the absence of any authorized agency for the collection of such data. From the enquiries conducted within the short time at my disposal, however, the existing average wages earned by the workmen in industrial undertakings in the province are shown to the last column of Appendix C.

(ii) The payment of wages in the surrounding agricultural areas is generally in kind. The average wage earned by a worker is calculated to approximate 4 annas a day. The piece-wage system is the rule.

(iii) It is difficult to ascertain the extent of difference between money wages and money value of earnings. The money value of earnings is, however, much less than the money wages.



97. (i) There has been practically no movement in the average rates of wages in recent years.

A statement showing the fluctuations in the purchasing power of money in Delhi, since the basic period, i.e., the pre-war period of 1912-14, is attached as Appendix A. The general trend of prices will be seen from the index numbers expressed in the different years as percentages of the retail prices of the commodities in the basic period.

(iii) There are no accurate statistics available to show the extent of relation between the wages and the prices and cost of living. The rates of wages, however, has fluctuated to some extent with the oscillations in prices and cost of living as will appear from the Statement at Appendix C.

(iv) There is no relation between the rate of wages and the amount of profits of the industrial undertaking generally. The bonus earned by the worker is, however, mainly determined by the profit made by the employer during the year.

104. The enhancement of wages, even to a slight extent, generally acts as an attraction for the labour and a similar reduction repels it.

105. In order to arrive at some satisfactory conclusion with regard to the minimum living wage, a detailed examination of the family budgets appears necessary for the two classes of industrial workers. Taking a representative family consisting of five souls as a basis for the purpose, the family budgets are drawn below :—

I.—*Family Budget of the Skilled Worker.*

Item.	Existing monthly expenditure (average).			Modified monthly expenditure (possible).		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Food .. .. .	18	0	0	17	0	0
Clothing .. .. .	10	0	0	8	0	0
Shelter (rent) .. .	3	0	0	2	8	0
Thirst (water and other drinks) .. .	2	0	0	1	0	0
Medical aid (attendance and maternity) ..	2	0	0	2	0	0
Education .. .. .	2	0	0	2	0	0
Luxuries (cinema, etc., and ornaments) ..	3	0	0	2	0	0
Miscellaneous (ceremonies like marriage, kaj, etc.)	4	0	0	3	8	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

Average daily existing expenditure, Re. 1-7-6 pies.

Modified daily expenditure, Re. 1-4-3 pies.

II.—*Family Budget of the Unskilled Worker.*

Average daily income—		Rs.	a.	p.
Man .. .. .	.. .. .	0	10	6
Woman .. .. .	.. .. .	0	7	0
Child .. .. .	.. .. .	0	4	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>.. .. .</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

Average daily expenditure—

Item.	Existing monthly expenditure (average).			Modified monthly expenditure (possible).		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Food .. .. .	17	0	0	16	8	0
Clothing .. .. .	9	0	0	8	0	0
Shelter (rent) .. .	2	0	0	2	0	0
Thirst (water and other drinks) .. .	2	0	0	1	0	0
Medical aid (attendance and maternity) ..	1	8	0	1	0	0
Education .. .. .	0	8	0	0	8	0
Luxuries (cinema, etc., and ornaments) ..	2	0	0	1	0	0
Miscellaneous (ceremonies like marriage, kaj, etc.)	3	0	0	2	0	0
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

Average daily existing expenditure, Re. 1-3-9 pies.

Modified daily expenditure, Re. 1-1-0 pies.

The conditions affecting skilled and unskilled industrial labour are different from the economic point of view. The earnings of a skilled operative are generally limited to the wages of the man whereas the income of a family of the unskilled workman is frequently supplemented by wages earned by the woman and children. This important economic factor necessitates separate analytical treatment of the family budget of two groups of industrial workers.

*Family Budget of the Skilled Worker.*—The average daily expenditure of the family works out at Rs. 1-7-6 pies, which is higher than the average earnings of Rs. 1-2 annas. From a consideration of the various existing factors contributing towards the depression in the level of the actual wages earned by the industrial operative, it is no wonder that most of the families are hardly able to make both ends meet.

To ascertain the minimum living wage, an elimination or reduction in the items of the schedule of consumption in the budget may be possible but the degree of such a modification appears to be restricted in view of the present concise regulation of the expenditure of the family. The modified expenditure as against the existing budget will indicate that there is left practically little or no scope for further reduction below the figures of Rs. 1-4-3 a day. The possibility for the reduction is likely to be too narrow if the curtailment of efficiency is not desired. Any further reduction in the scale of wages may tell not only upon the inclination and capacity of the industrial operative but it may also operate unfairly on the industry generally.

*Family Budget of the Unskilled Worker.*—The figures lead to the conclusion that the average daily expenditure of a family of the unskilled labourer composed of the man, woman and a child as earning members, is slightly lower than the average income. But owing to the fact that such a sight is not very common and that the actual wages earned by the family are generally depressed by voluntary and involuntary unemployment, the unskilled workers do not present a picture of contentment and enthusiasm. The margin of curtailment of the average daily expenditure of Rs. 1-3-9 pies of the family appears to be meagre because of their proverbial hand-to-mouth mode of living. The extent of possibility for the reduction in the items of consumption in the family budget seems evidently small and the modified expenditure as against the existing schedule may be made to stand at Rs. 1-1 anna a day, involving the sacrifice of efficiency.

In the light of the above circumstances, the existing level of earnings of the workmen in industrial undertakings appears to approximate to the living wage. The presence of this economic factor above all others is believed to explain the existence of harmonious relations between the employer and the employed, and the absence of strikes of any significant character in the industrial undertakings in their present stage of development in this province.

106. (i) The imposition of fines is almost universal. The deductions in respect of fines for breaches of discipline and for bad or negligent work or injury to the materials or other property of the employer are prevalent in the industrial establishments in this province. The deductions based on absence from work are also not uncommon. The amount of fines inflicted varies generally from a day's wages to a week's deductions in extreme cases.

(ii) The sums collected as fines are suggested to be credited to funds devoted for the welfare of the labour.

(iv) The legislative measures to regulate fines and deductions do not seem to be inopportune or premature at the present stage.

107. (i) and (ii) The system of monthly payment of wages is common with the industrial undertakings in this province. The contractor's employees are, however, paid on a fortnightly basis. In the existing practice, the payment of wages earned in one month is made in or about the middle of the succeeding month.

(iii) The desirability of legislation to remedy the evil of deferred payment of wages deserves consideration. The provision of payment of wages within a week where the system of monthly payment or any longer basis is in vogue, within four days in the case of fortnightly payments, within two days in the case of weekly wages, and within a day in the case of daily wages is hoped to dispel the uncertainty from the mind of the industrial operative and to tend to diminish his economic difficulties.

108. The industrial operative is generally in monetary difficulty. In the absence of receipt of his wages at the close of the month, he begins borrowing money at exorbitant rates of interest. In some instances, workers do not succeed in clearing themselves of the burden of debt they incurred first in taking up work in an industrial establishment.

109. The bonuses are acquired by stipulation on the basis of either increased production or profit made by the employer in the organized industries on a limited scale.

110. The workmen generally are not allowed any leave during the year. They are generally not paid their wages for the period of absence. The supervising staff in some of the industries is, however, given leave for varying periods during the year with pay.

There is no adverse effect on back-lying wages owing to absence from work. The payment of such wages is made to workers on their resumption of work.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. *Employers and Employed.*—(i) The following are the more important combinations of employers, with their headquarters established in Delhi:—(1) Punjab Chamber of Commerce; (2) Delhi Factory Owners' Federation; (3) Delhi Piece-Goods Association; (4) Delhi Hindustani Mercantile Association; (5) Delhi Cloth Market Company; (6) Kirana Association; (7) Bankers' Association; (8) Iron Merchants' Association.

(ii) So far as the organizations of the employees are concerned, the Delhi Provincial Postal and R.M.S. Association, Khadi Association and Postal Audit Office Union are the important combinations in the Delhi province.

The industrial labour in this province is generally speaking, unorganized, ignorant and unable to voice its own opinion. The endeavours of the local labour union, called Mazdoor Sabbha, formed in the year 1928, so far as I am aware, met with no success in the matter of organization of industrial classes generally.

119. The Delhi Provincial Postal and R.M.S. Association aims at amongst others in organizing the Post Office and R.M.S. workers with a view to securing a voice in the administration of the Post Office, promoting brotherhood amongst members, promoting and safeguarding the interests, rights and privileges of the Post Office and R.M.S. employees, and obtaining redress of such grievances as may be brought to its notice by all constitutional means. The Khadi Weavers' Association was formed during September, 1927, with the object of regulating the relations amongst the members and of popularizing the use of pure hand-spun, hand-woven cloths through various means, such as hawking, delivering magic lantern lectures, publishing pamphlets, writing articles in the press and holding exhibitions. The Postal Audit Office Union is the organ of the employees for securing redress of their grievances by constitutional methods.

The Delhi Mazdoor Sabha or Labour Union, Delhi, came into existence in the year 1928, with the main objects to organize industrial workmen for their economic, mental, social, moral and material welfare, to secure fair and equitable conditions of life and work, to provide for sickness, maternity, death, accident, old age and other benefits; to secure compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act, to redress grievances, to provide for education, to work for the establishment of cordial relations between the employer and the employee; to settle industrial disputes by mutual negotiations, if possible, and to relieve the distress of its members in cases of strikes or lock-outs.

121. The All-India Postal and R.M.S. Association, Delhi branch, is the only union recently registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, in this province.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. This province is free from industrial disputes of any significant magnitude. During the year 1928-29 there have been two strikes in this province. The aggregate time loss amounted to 1,302 working days.

#### XVII.—Administration.

137. There is undue competition in industry from the Indian states not under the purview of the Indian Factories Act.

138. The working classes, being illiterate, are generally ignorant of the provisions of the factory legislation.

## APPENDIX A.

## Variation in the Cost of Living in Delhi.

Basic Period—1912 to July, 1914.

Year.	Rice.	Wheat.	Jowar.	Bajra.	Barley.	Gram.	Salt.	Sugar.	House rent.	Social functions.	Cotton piece-goods.	Average.
1912-14 .. ..	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
1915 .. ..	100·0	128·0	120·0	121·0	113·0	117·0	100·0	64·0	100·0	100·0	80·0	104·0
1916 .. ..	110·0	110·0	100·0	96·0	113·0	113·0	122·0	98·0	100·0	120·0	150·0	112·0
1917 .. ..	101·0	112·0	100·0	90·0	110·0	110·0	138·0	117·0	140·0	125·0	175·0	120·0
1918 .. ..	119·0	143·0	193·0	172·0	134·0	137·0	194·0	80·0	140·0	130·0	200·0	149·0
1919 .. ..	165·0	178·0	203·0	221·0	179·0	217·0	155·0	129·0	150·0	150·0	250·0	182·0
1920 .. ..	186·0	153·0	143·0	154·0	151·0	193·0	166·0	147·0	150·0	150·0	250·0	167·0
1921 .. ..	165·0	169·0	216·0	221·0	179·0	231·0	155·0	239·0	150·0	150·0	200·0	188·0
1922 .. ..	147·0	164·0	150·0	154·0	141·0	175·0	150·0	237·0	130·0	145·0	175·0	164·0
1923 .. ..	129·0	117·0	103·0	115·0	89·0	103·0	194·0	156·0	120·0	140·0	155·0	130·0
1924 .. ..	131·0	128·0	113·0	115·0	110·0	110·0	155·0	92·0	110·0	140·0	145·0	122·0
1925 .. ..	212·0	156·0	157·0	152·0	145·0	181·0	140·0	349·0	110·0	140·0	150·0	167·0
1926 .. ..	194·0	146·0	163·0	170·0	148·0	160·0	140·0	344·0	120·0	135·0	155·0	170·0
1927 .. ..	201·0	136·0	150·0	136·0	134·0	151·0	133·0	320·0	120·0	135·0	150·0	160·0
1928 .. ..	220·0	136·0	160·0	159·0	138·0	165·0	133·0	301·0	130·0	135·0	145·0	166·0

*Note.*—The sources of statistics of prices of commodities in the above statement are the official records of Government. As regards rentage, social functions and piece-goods statistics, it may be mentioned that although they give a fairly adequate indication of the variations covering the period, they cannot be taken as representing wholly the extent to which standard of living has been subject to those factors. Every attempt, has however, been made to cover as large a ground as possible to the best of the resources at my disposal.

## APPENDIX C.

## Variations in Industrial Wages.

Classes of workers.	Pre-war period 1912-14.			Period 1919-21.			Period 1922-24			Period 1925-28.		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Average per month.												
Driver .. .. .	30	8	0	47	0	0	42	8	0	45	0	0
Mistri .. .. .	45	0	0	68	0	0	60	0	0	65	0	0
Oilman .. .. .	16	0	0	22	0	0	18	0	0	21	0	0
Fireman .. .. .	20	0	0	32	0	0	27	8	0	30	8	0
Carpenter .. .. .	30	0	0	58	0	0	48	0	0	54	0	0
Mason .. .. .	30	0	0	47	0	0	40	0	0	45	0	0
Blacksmith .. .. .	27	0	0	46	8	0	41	0	0	45	0	0
Turner .. .. .	20	0	0	34	0	0	30	8	0	32	0	0
Moulder .. .. .	21	8	0	37	8	0	33	0	0	35	8	0
Weaver .. .. .	—			63	0	0	56	8	0	60	0	0
Spinner .. .. .	—			34	0	0	29	8	0	32	0	0
Dyer .. .. .	—			—			25	0	0	27	0	0
Mochi .. .. .	—			25	8	0	22	0	0	24	8	0
Reeler .. .. .	—			22	0	0	18	0	0	19	8	0
Fitter .. .. .	35	0	0	52	0	0	46	8	0	50	0	0
Drawer .. .. .	—			26	8	0	20	8	0	22	0	0
Press distributor .. .. .	20	0	0	27	0	0	21	8	0	22	0	0
Press compositor .. .. .	25	0	0	35	0	0	26	8	0	30	0	0
Warper .. .. .	—			40	8	0	36	0	0	38	0	0
Sizer .. .. .	—			40	0	0	34	8	0	38	0	0
Bleacher .. .. .	—			—			19	8	0	22	0	0
Folder .. .. .	—			25	8	0	20	0	0	24	0	0
Potter .. .. .	—			—			33	8	0	36	0	0
Thread-baller .. .. .	—			—			19	0	0	22	0	0
Carver .. .. .	30	0	0	50	0	0	36	8	0	40	0	0
Embroiderer .. .. .	20	0	0	30	8	0	25	8	0	28	0	0
Painter .. .. .	16	8	0	25	0	0	21	8	0	24	0	0
Doffer .. .. .	—			15	0	0	12	8	0	14	0	0
Coolie (man) per day	0	7	0	0	12	0	0	9	0	0	10	6
Coolie (woman) .. .. .	0	5	0	0	8	0	0	7	0	0	7	0
Coolie (minor) .. .. .	0	2	6	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	4	0

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This Note deals with The Imperial Capital (New Delhi).

*Brief History of Coolie Labour.*—At the maximum period of construction some 30,000 labourers were employed at New Delhi. This number has now been much reduced and to-day about 13,000 labourers reside in the area. At first a very large number of the labourers were housed in an area, known as the Brickfields South to South-west of the New City. To-day the labour is housed in four distinct camps while a few labourers live near the site of their activities. The labour is imported from Rajputana, Northern and Central India and there is much fluctuation amongst the coolies which depends very largely on their agricultural activities in their homes.

A small proportion of the labour is skilled; these are chiefly connected with stone work, masonry, carpentry, blacksmiths and painters while the larger proportion can be termed unskilled. In this latter class come a large section employed on the manufacture of bricks. In the earlier days the labour was entirely controlled by the P.W.D. (Government). A large proportion of the labour was housed in barrack-lines. The barracks were constructed with bricks in mud with thatched roofs. The coolies did not pay rent for this accommodation.

A minor proportion of the labour was housed on camps, in huts built by themselves, made in mud with thatched roofs. In several of the camps Government provided a piped-pure-water supply, water flush latrines and set aside a recurring cost for the maintenance of an adequate sanitary staff (see costs later), while in a few camps the

labourer had to depend on a well water supply and dry latrines. Otherwise sanitary arrangements were similar to those already quoted. The remains of some of these permanent camps can still be seen in the area. Government maintained dispensaries and S.A.S. doctors to attend to the minor ailments of labour, while a creche was started for the infants of women workers.

This creche did not meet with as great a measure of success as was hoped and was closed at a later date. A welfare centre was opened about that time, under the auspices of the Delhi Health and Baby Week Committee. The labour arriving at New Delhi, especially at the brickfield area, was medically inspected and segregated for two weeks from existing labour, to avoid epidemic outbreaks. Plague never occurred. Minor epidemics of cholera occurred, these were always promptly brought under control. Small-pox occurred in small proportion but due to the satisfactory system of vaccination introduced by Government this disease did not spread.

*Malaria* was a disease which affected the labour in the spring and the autumn months and greatly incapacitated them, especially in malarious years. (See further).

*Present Conditions.*—The P.W.D. (Government) to-day employ their labour through the agency of contractors.

A clause exists in the contract whereby contractors are held responsible for the proper housing of their labour. There are two types of labour camps:—(1) those which are still partly maintained at Government expense and which represent the old camping grounds already referred to above; and (2) those maintained entirely by contractors.

*No. 1 Type of Camps.*—There are three camps in which the larger proportion of present day labour is housed in these camps. This labour may be divided into two categories; (1) some directly employed by Government on horticultural work at New Delhi (931 souls); (2) the largest proportion of labour working on Government works for numerous contractors; (3) labour working for contractors on private works.

In this last mentioned category is some labour employed outside the imperial capital, for instance on work at Delhi City. The total number of labourers housed in these three camps is 12,000.

*Housing.*—The housing in these camps is (1) partly in the barrack lines which were originally built by Government and have in some cases been added to by the contractors and (2) in huts built by the labour themselves. In the former case, the labour does not have to spend any money on constructing their homes. In the latter case the home costs them anything between Rs. 8 and Rs. 30, to construct. The huts are made by the labourer, who digs a hole in the ground, the resulting mud forms the walls of the hut, while the roof is thatched. The roof is not weather-proof. In this case the contractors have not paid for these huts. The conditions have grown as a transitional stage between the period when Government controlled the labour and the present control by contractors.

*No. 2 Type of Camps.*—There is one such large camp at present situated at the brickfields. The contractors have supplied housing, dry latrines and maintain two sweepers for general sanitation. Rubbish is dumped away from the camp and night soil is trenched. There is one tap water supply but the labourers usually drink well water. The camp is generally vacated during the wet weather months when the labourers return to their homes for their agricultural work. Labourers at this camp receive first-aid care and maternity care from the welfare unit situated at a neighbouring camp. (See further). A few other minor collections of labourers are housed at the site of their works, but these are in small numbers. The total number of labourers housed in this camp is about 1,000.

The present housing presents a difficulty, because as the land where a camp is situated is sold for the extension of the capital, so the labour must be moved to another site.

*Wages.—Present day.*—(a) The labouring male coolies earn 9 annas per day; (b) the labouring female coolie earn 7 annas per day; (c) the child (of 12 to 15 years) earn 4 annas per day.

An average family will earn about Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month collectively.

A mate or supervisor is paid at a rate of Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 per mensem according to his class of work. The raj or bricklayer is paid Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 2 per day. The santraj or stone mason earns Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 3 per day.

*Formerly, i.e., 1912-14.*—The male labouring coolie received a wage of 6 annas per day. The female 4 annas per day. The working child 2 annas per day. A mate or supervisor received Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 per mensem, bricklayers received 14 annas to

Re. 1-2 annas per day. Stonemasons received Re. 1 to Re. 1-4 annas per day. There has thus been a rise of 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. on the old wages as compared with present day.

*Receipt of Wages.*—The contractors pay their labour rather irregularly, generally once in two or three months.

*Diet*—This consists of:—*Vegetables*, i.e., onions, carrots, peas, radish, green gram tender shoots of the leaves of grain and peas; *grains*—palak, dal, wheat, bajra, hawar, maize, barley, rice.

*Meal.*—Some is eaten only in certain classes.

Taking into account the cost of cooking, the daily average cost of food for a family of five persons is 5 annas 3 pies. An adult eats on an average five chappaties per day and a child three chappaties. If to this is added other expenditure of living, such as clothing, simple luxuries, etc., the daily figure of expenditure for a family of five would be Re. 1-1 annas to Re. 1-4 annas.

A demonstration of the diet, in the said state, being cooked and being eaten can be given. At one time a general grain-grinding machine operated at one camp, this does not exist now. Each camp possesses its shopping centre which is carefully supervised. The average living cost for a family of five is therefore Rs. 31-14 annas to Rs. 37-8 annas. per mensem. This does not leave much in the nature of a saving when the income is considered (see above).

*Since 1912-14.*—Wages have risen by about 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. as shown above. Yet living has risen out of proportion. Whereas the chappatie cost 3 pies in 1912-14 to-day the same chappati costs 9 pies. The rise would be in the region of about 70 per cent.

*Clothing.*—A labourer lives in the clothes he has on his back. The outfit costs Rs. 10 per annum per man, Rs. 8 per annum per woman and Rs. 2 per annum per child. The extra winter clothing consists of a dohar or sheet costing Rs. 5.

*Savings.*—Generally speaking, the coolie labour is in the hands of the moneylender. From personal enquiries I find that on an average the labouring family is indebted to the moneylender (buniya) to the extent of about Rs. 80 per annum which includes the heavy interest of 37.5 per cent. per annum. Some fortunate labourer, who happens to save some money, spends it in buying jewellery or land and cattle in his own home. Much money is spent on ceremonies. The average coolie wedding costs Rs. 200 to Rs. 400. and about Rs. 200 for death.

*Hours of Work.*—From October to March the hours of labour are 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. with an interval of half an hour mid-day.

From April to September the labour hours are 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., with an interval of one hour mid-day. Much care is exercised in getting the muster-roll taken in the early morning.

*General Sanitation of Camps.*—As already mentioned above, Government pay for sanitation in the majority of camps at New Delhi.

The initial cost for installing latrines and water in the three existing camps was, approximately, Rs. 15,000, while the annual recurring cost of refuse removal, staff and sanitation generally is Rs. 18,000 per annum. (Detailed figures can be given if necessary.)

*Diseases: Malaria.*—In past years the most noticeable disease was malaria. Malaria eradication is essentially a labour problem of the first importance.

In India, out of a population of 320 millions (one-fifth of the total world population), well over one million deaths occur annually from malaria. Carter says: "It is not in the death-rate, however, that the gravest injury of malaria lies, it is in its sick rate; in the loss of efficiency which it causes rather than in the loss of life."

An estimate based on Van Dine's figures show that there is a loss of over 300 million working days per annum in India apart from the loss due to the million deaths per annum.

Carter calculates that a death from pneumonia corresponds to 125 sick days or work days lost. Working on this basis, a death from malaria corresponds to 2,000 to 4,000 sick days. This estimate can be doubted, because the man infected with malaria is half sick all the time. On this estimate the number of days lost to India by malaria would average 3,000 million, if we take the deaths at one million. This corresponds to a loss to India of 1,500 million of rupees per annum, or over £100 million sterling. Whenever malaria prevails the population is generally subnormal physically, mentally and economically.

Delhi has always been regarded as very malarious. The reasons cannot be discussed here.

Christopher, in his report on malaria at Delhi, 1926-27, shows that epidemics recur with considerable regularity at some years interval, e.g., 1884, 1890, 1892, 1897, 1900, 1908, and minor epidemics in other years. Christopher, in his report, gives a tabular statement showing the mortality rates per mille per annum for the month at which malaria epidemics were at their highest, which figures are striking in relation to the appalling damage done by malaria at Delhi.

Christopher's report shows that in 1926 the imperial capital was heavily infected with malaria. He says cases of malaria treated were as follows:—

1924	..	..	..	..	..	1,047
1925	..	..	..	..	..	1,546
1926	..	..	..	..	..	2,270

Christopher, in his report, pays particular attention to the labour camps, then situated at New Delhi, and gives map and table showing the spleen rates then found in the area. These spleen indices ranged from 13 to 75 per cent. These figures are an indication of the serious damage to coolie labour, and its economic position at New Delhi.

Following on Christopher's investigation came an exhaustive investigation by Senior-White, which dealt with the many aspects of the case. Since 1928 weather conditions have not been favourable for malaria, while a considerable amount of work for the control of malaria has been carried out. The results obtained to-day are so far satisfactory. To quote an example: whereas in 1926 one of the largest camps at New Delhi gave a spleen index of 54 per cent., to-day the same camp shows a spleen index of 7.5 per cent. This year all possible mosquito breeding-places in the new capital were under control. Those who are interested might wish to see the practical application of mosquito and malaria control at New Delhi. We cannot claim that this malarial problem is by any means solved, and much major engineering and minor malarial control work remains to be done, and for which money is essential. So far the money still remains to be secured.

*Cholera.*—Unlike malaria, cholera on appearing in a community generally causes a panic. Cholera, small-pox and plague produces a dramatic element which generally assists towards securing money for necessary public health action. Cholera has occasionally appeared in our labour camps. This disease is imported into the camps. The brickfield area is generally the first to be infected. The last epidemic appeared in May, 1929, when three deaths occurred before the disease was brought under control with mass inoculation and other public health measures.

*Small-pox.*—Vaccination against the disease is most strictly observed amongst our labour, resulting in comparative complete control of the disease.

*Plague.*—Is fortunately a disease which has not so far affected the labour at New Delhi.

*Hookworm.*—This disease is not found.

*Veneral Diseases.*—The welfare workers state that this is by no means a common disease amongst our labour, while alcohol (country spirit) is not much indulged in.

*Leprosy.*—An investigation is now in progress.

*Other Diseases and Accidents.*—Trachoma of the eyes is fairly common. Minor ailments are dealt with at the camps, while severe diseases are attended to at the hospital at New Delhi. An infectious diseases hospital exists at New Delhi. It is well used by the labourers in times of need.

*Education of Labour.*—At one time a standard size cinema was employed at one of the camps. This is not now used. It was closed down with the reduction in labour. Miniature cinema displays and lantern lectures are given by the public health staff. No Government educational schools exist in the camps. In one camp a private school has been started through the agency of the labourers themselves. There is only a small attendance, while a fee of Rs. 2 per month is charged per child.

*Sickness Insurance.*—I do not believe that an insurance scheme against sickness could be successfully introduced at present. My reasons are as follows:—Such insurance schemes cannot successfully operate until we have reduced the incidence of disease to a reasonable figure. This is unfortunately not the case.

*Maternity Child Welfare and First-aid.*—As already mentioned, when Government controlled the labour at New Delhi, camp dispensaries and male doctors were employed. One creche was tried at the secretariat. The details relating to this



can be given verbally. At a later date one welfare centre was opened to serve the whole of New Delhi, under the auspices of the Delhi Health and Baby Week. In early 1928 a considerable expansion of maternity, child welfare and first-aid work for the labour was made. The existing work was taken over by the New Delhi Municipality and the costs were borne by that body.

Each camp now possesses its small maternity and child welfare centre and first-aid post in immediate charge of a trained and qualified nurse-dai. At the largest camp a lady sub-assistant doctor is also in attendance. Her duties are chiefly in association with this camp, but in addition she regularly visits the other camps in the area and deals with technical medical matters, particularly concerning the women workers and their children. This lady doctor also conducts school medical examination and treatment of girls attending the schools at New Delhi. In charge of the whole organization is a lady superintendent (Miss Weller), whose duty it is to supervise the six maternity and welfare centres which now exist and have come into operation since August, 1928, in the New Delhi area. The temporary buildings for two of the camp centres were provided by contractors. The total budget estimate for all maternity and child welfare and first-aid work at New Delhi was estimated to cost Rs. 50,000, spread over a period of five years. The initial cost for starting one camp centre amounted to about Rs. 400, while the recurring cost is Rs. 1,500 per annum for one centre.

A system of maternity fees for the better-paid employees of Government has been recently introduced, as it is our intention that free maternity benefits can only be given to the poorer classes. This system is an interesting one.

For those interested in this subject I attach a copy of the 1928 annual report.\* The work has progressed considerably during 1929. There is no possibility of introducing legal maternal enactments for midwives in our present state at Delhi. Maternity benefits for pregnant women might be considered.

*Clerical Labour : Housing and General Sanitation.*—This labour is housed in excellently constructed quarters. Public health sanitation is good, and all their needs have been provided for by Government. More and more quarters are being erected. There is some scarcity of quarters, which no doubt will right itself as the imperial capital grows to maturity.

*Education and Welfare.*—Schools exist for the education of children. At these schools a careful system of school medical examination and treatment exists. School medical inspection is a work which has been especially organized in the Delhi Province at a cost of Rs. 11,000 per annum. Its extension is desirable. Welfare institutions exist under our above-mentioned scheme for maternal and child benefits, while the medical care in this area is in charge of the civil surgeon and his medical staff.

*Foodstuffs.*—A shopping centre exists, which is under the charge of the New Delhi Municipality.

*Epidemics.*—A few cases of major epidemic diseases occur annually, but these have always been promptly eradicated. Malaria is the chief disease which attacked clerks in former years, just in the same way as I have related above in connection with coolie labour.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT OF MAJOR J. R. D. WEBB.

##### *Notified Area Civil Lines.*

1. *An Ordinary Coolie.*—(a) Daily income, 8 annas per diem. (b) Average family, four to five members. (c) One average meal for an adult.

Article.	Quantity, Ounces.	Cost. Rs. a. p.
(1) Wheat flour mixed with gram flour or barley flour or maize flour (sample) .. ..	12	0 1 3
(2) Salt, onions, chillies, mint and tamarind (crushed together) or onion is taken separately .. ..	—	0 0 6
(3) Cowdung cakes to serve as a fuel .. ..	—	0 0 3
Total .. ..	12	0 2 0
Weekly, Rs. 1-12 annas.		
Monthly, Rs. 7-8 annas.		Total, two annas.

\* Not printed.

1. *An Ordinary Coolie.*—contd.

<i>Extras</i> —	Article.	Quantity.	Cost.		
			Ounces.	Rs.	a. p.
(d) (1)	Cheapest kind of vegetable or pulse .. .. .	—	0	0	3
(2)	Gur (raw sugar) .. .. .	2	0	0	3
(3)	Parched grams .. .. .	2	0	0	3
(4)	Oil .. .. .	1	0	0	3
Total .. .. .			0	1	0
One anna only.					
Family of five per month .. .. .			26	4	0
Including extras .. .. .			13	2	0
			39	6	0

i.e., say, Rs. 40 per family of five with extras.

2. *A Better-off Labour.*—(a) Daily income, Re. 1 to Re. 1-4 annas per diem. (b) Average family, four to five members. (c) One average meal for an adult :—

	Article.	Quantity.	Cost.		
			Ounces.	Rs.	a. p.
(1)	Rice .. .. .	4	0	0	6
(2)	Wheat flour .. .. .	8	0	1	0
(3)	Pulses .. .. .	2	0	0	3
(4)	Ghee .. .. .	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	6
(5)	Oil .. .. .	1	0	0	3
(6)	Onion, salt, chillies, spices, turmeric .. .. .	—	0	0	6
(7)	Fuel (cowdung cakes and firewood) .. .. .	—	0	0	6
Total .. .. .			0	3	6

Three annas and six pies only.

Weekly, Rs. 3-1 anna.

Monthly, Rs. 13-2 annas.

*Extras*—

(d) (1)	Potatoes or other vegetables .. .. .	4	0	0	6
(2)	Tea (sugar and milk included) .. .. .	—	0	0	9
(3)	Curd .. .. .	—	0	0	6
Total .. .. .			0	1	9

One anna and nine pies.

3. *Bathing and Washing.*—Providing common bathing and washing-places for the coolies and ventilators in their quarters is a dire necessity (on no account a luxury), and should be met by the employers at any rate.

The bathing and washing arrangements as prevalent at present with these people, especially their womenfolk, is extremely deplorable (demonstrated at the Chandrawal Exhibit, Old Delhi). A kind of clay (multani) takes the place of soap. The only reason is cheapness.

Similarly, there is no sense in building huts and providing no ventilator, even ; there is no extra cost involved.

4. *Clothing and Bedding* are usually very poor, as seen at to-day's exhibit.

The meagre wages are hardly enough to provide two square meals for the family, and there is no saving to buy dresses and bedding. Dirtiness of the clothes is due to (1) lack of sense of cleanliness, (2) poverty, (3) lack of facilities for bathing and washing, (4) want of leisure.

5. Unemployment is now becoming very acute. Idleness of women is due to (1) unemployment, (2) pre-occupation in looking after house and children, (3) nervousness among certain classes of women to work with male labourers, (4) hatred for manual labour and in some cases caste prejudices. The last-named cause is wearing out.

6. In cases where both male and female members of a family work, that family is far better off than a middle-class labourer whose female family members do not do any work to supplement the male breadwinners' income. At any rate, the middle-class man is hard hit.

## NEW DELHI.

Raw Food Grains showing Average Daily Cost of Food for a Family of Five Coolies.

Name of Foodstuffs.	Price per Seer.			Amount Required.			Approximate Weight.
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	
Onions .. .. .	0	1	0	0	0	3	4 chatks.
Carrots .. .. .	0	0	9	0	0	1	½ "
Raddish .. .. .	0	0	9	0	0	2	4 "
Green gram .. .. .	0	0	6	0	0	1	3 "
Carrot leaves .. .. .	0	0	9	0	0	2	4 "
Dal .. .. .	0	4	0	0	0	6	2 "
Wheat.. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ seers
Bajra .. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ "
Jawar (1912-14, 8 to 10 seers per rupee) .. .. .	0	2	0	0	5	6	2½ "
	(at 8 srs. a Re.)						
Palak sag .. .. .	0	0	6	0	0	1	3 chatks.
Maize .. .. .	0	1	6	0	4	3	2 srs. 14 chs.
Barley .. .. .	0	1	6	0	4	3	2 srs. 14 chs.
Rice .. .. .	0	3	0	0	0	3	1½ chatks.
Meat .. .. .	0	2	0	0	0	6	4 "
Oil (sweet) .. .. .	0	10	0	0	0	6	½ "
Gur .. .. .	0	4	0	0	0	6	2 "
Ghee .. .. .	2	0	0	0	1	0	½ "
Wood .. .. .	0	0	6	0	1	0	2 seers.
Chillies .. .. .	0	8	0	0	0	3	½ chatks.
Salt .. .. .	0	1	0	0	0	2	2½ "
				0	15	3	
				Rs. a. p.			
Excluding extras costs.. .. .				28	9	6	
Including extras .. .. .				13	2	0	
				41	1	6	

i.e., say Rs. 40 per family of five.

## THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA PRESS, DELHI, PRESS UNION AFFILIATED TO THE CALCUTTA PRESS WORKERS UNIONS.

*General Health and Climate of Delhi.*—Our pay is hardly sufficient for our subsistence only. We are unable to incur the heavy expenses of proper medical treatment of our wife and children even in cases of urgent necessity. It is, perhaps, not an unknown fact that the health of Delhi is notoriously bad and that besides frequent cases of pneumonia, typhoid and other serious maladies, no family can escape the attacks of malaria of a serious type during the period of July to December each year.

2. That due to the extreme climate of Delhi we can ill afford to provide the necessary clothing to save ourselves and our family from the inclemencies of the weather, to which we are more or less exposed and we are thus unable to take any precaution against the maladies set forth in the previous paragraph. In this connection, we beg to point out, that there is no medical aid from the office.

3. That we having hailed from outside Delhi, have to maintain double establishments one at our native place and the other here in Delhi. Because due to our poor pay we do not dare bring our entire families out and live a miserable life altogether in a foreign and unhealthy place. We have to go to our native place not to enjoy a holiday but to attend urgent and unavoidable family calls whenever we are compelled to do so. This entails a deal of expenditure which we are unable to meet.

4. *Leaves and Holidays.*—The privileges of leave, which are granted by the Fundamental Rule have been restricted to the industrial employees generally and thereby to the salaried hands when under the Fundamental Rules every 11 months of service caused one month of privilege leave and one month medical leave. But the new industrial leave rules give one month of privilege leave and any medical leave taken will be on half pay.

5. That the local holidays, which are enjoyed by the employees of other local offices are denied to us. As such, we do not get the much desired rest after periods of hard labour. We therefore, work continuously without occasional rest and thus run or are rather compelled to run the risk of contracting some disease due to overwork and insufficient nourishment and of becoming inefficient and being invalidated prematurely.

6. *Education of Children.*—The Government affords no facilities for the education of the children of the poor press employees generally the press workers have a number of children each, but the Government has not instituted any school for their free education. It is a pity to note that in these days of compulsory secondary education, the Government is so heedless about the education of the children of its hard and faithful labourers.

Since the introduction of piece system in Government presses no inconvenience was felt by Government as regards speedy out-turn of work and smooth working under single controller of printing, stationery and stamps with a small staff of his own. But by the instalment of various machineries and hereby creating a huge office of the present Controller with fat salaried hands has snatched away bread from our many poor countrymen out of the Press Grant in the Government of India Budget—it will be seen if all the old, and new records are examined.

In the end we beg to approach the Commission in very simple wordings for justice and sympathy. We are fallen victims to the venomous vexations and our hearts are wounded to see that a poor labourer under the benign Government is so badly pinched and squeezed among narrow circumstances that he cannot spare even a pie for the coffin of his dearest and nearest when unfortunately one pays the debt of nature in his family and which is only done through subscriptions.

We hope the Holy Commission will prove themselves to be an antidote for us for which we shall sincerely pray before His Almighty.

(Signed) LALA SHANKAR LALL,  
*Secretary.*

N. M. JOSHI.  
*Member, Legislative Assembly.*  
*President.*

[The general observations given above were accompanied by a number of specific requests submitted by the various classes of press employees. The following is printed as an example:—]

#### **Binders.**

1. That the best portion of our lives and energy have been spent in serving Government honestly and loyally, and in spite of whole-hearted devotion we were allowed a small fixed pay in 1927 as a result of the reorganisation. But to our utter misfortune we have been losers by this arrangement inasmuch as our present pay happens to be less than that we were getting under the piece-working system.

2. That while most of the employees of the office or of other Government offices enjoy a time-scale rate of pay, the same has been denied to us with the result that after doing faithful work throughout the year, there is no improvement in our wages, either in the shape of increment or in any other way.

3. That we have to work  $8\frac{1}{2}$  solid hours a day and have to be in an office for  $9\frac{1}{2}$  hours, besides our overtime which is not counted towards pension at all and have to do arduous work throughout the whole day long with the result that our tiffin period is excluded of our working period.

4. That we have been memorialising to the Government regularly for our confirmation on the posts while having served the Government loyally and faithfully for the considerable period of 15 and 16 years but to our utter disappointment our prayer was not acceded to, and being temporary hands for so long a period we have not been given any sort of privileges either temporary or permanent during the said existing period. Notwithstanding the fact that we have all been in service from 1 to 16 years, been confirmed together in 1922 with the result that both juniors and seniors have been brought on to the same platform of rights under the same rules without any regard for service.

5. That we have been allowed only 10 days casual leave up till June, 1929, but to our utter misfortune, the leave is disallowed on the adoption of the new leave rules under which only a month's leave on average pay and medical leave on half average pay in a year is all that we can get. There are persons who having long service of 24 years with 17 years permanent service, having been treated under the same new rules. A notification was circulated in September, 1929, that we are brought under ministerial service instead of industrial under the Fundamental Rule 9 (17) without any beneficial result.

6. That we have been provided with quarters the rent of which is deducted 5 per cent. of over pay. The quarters which we are living in bear some accommodation but the new quarters under construction for the press employees especially the daffries quarters are too small in which a bachelor will have to suffer many difficulties whereas we poor people having big families will be required to reside.

7. Under these circumstances mentioned above we earnestly pray :—(a) that our pay may kindly be revised to the time-scale of pay in order to enable us to enjoy a pension of the last grade at the time of our retirement ; (b) that the tiffin time may kindly be included within 8½ hours' duty ; (c) that casual leave may kindly be allowed to us along with other respective leave ; (d) that we may kindly be allowed the same concession of holidays as are given to other offices located at Delhi ; (e) that we may kindly be provided with quarters bearing sufficient accommodation so that we may not have to undergo any hardships and difficulty to reside with our families.

THE HONORARY SECRETARY, THE DELHI FACTORY OWNERS'  
FEDERATION, DELHI; AND RAI BAHADUR BAISAKHA SINGH,  
CONTRACTOR, NEW DELHI.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. (i) Industrial workers are generally recruited from amongst the ranks of those uprooted from the soil whose ancestral land has under the baneful influence of fragmentation dwindled to point at which it will no longer support its owner and his family, and from those in debits to the village moneylender.

(ii) Migration has been accelerated to a great extent in modern times on account of an extraordinary increase of the means of communications and transport.

(iii) Clauses of particular streams of migrations are (a) wages and (b) investment of capital ; for an increase in the supply of capital, leads to the demand for labour. An increase in the supply of capital means in other words an increase in the supply of appliances for production and consequently cheaper goods, and hence their greater demand, which would lead to an increase in the demand of labour.

3. *Change of Fashion and Taste.*—The modern industrial system labour-saving machinery, which depends upon the growth of capital, signifies an increase in the productive power of the country, for if the demand for the commodity is elastic, displaced labour might be employed in the making of fashion and taste.

(iii) Changes in recent years are due to the increasing facilities of the means of communication and extended knowledge possessed by the working classes of life in parts outstanding their immediate localities.

2. (i) On account of the far more increasing facilities of communications, there is a greater frequency of return and still more so is expected in times yet to come.

(ii) Permanent labour force is in an insufficient proportion in India as compared to her enormous population of well over 300,000,000. The industrial development in India is still in its infancy and only a very small proportion of her people is found concentrated in specially industrial areas, working in textile mills, iron works, or any other of the typical units of modern industry.

3. (i) India is above all an agricultural country and it is only in cases of bad harvest, scarcity of cultivation, that recruits for the industrial labour market are generally available direct to the employers.

(ii) Improvements are possible, if labour exchanges, i.e., States bureau similar to those of Great Britain by the Act of 1909, are established, where unemployed persons can register their names and occupations and to which the employers in need of labour may apply. These may also be instrumental in transferring labours from districts when no labour is wanted to the districts, when there is a shortage of them.

(iii) Public employment agencies should be discouraged, as these would be harmful, considering the present labour condition in India.

4. Socialities, peculiarities of national character in respect of language, religion, political institutions and mode of life do in a fair measure affect the mobility of labour, but these are now for the most parts crossed over and the effect is not very unwholesome.

7. The question of unemployment is not very much pressing to the skilled as well as unskilled labouring classes.

(ii) (a and b) It is comparatively less due to the voluntary retirement than due to the retrenchments and dismissal.

(iii) Employment bureaux and workhouses should be established (although there is not much difficulty in the way of the labourers to get themselves employed), where a fair measure of trading should be given to the unskilled workmen and where they may get themselves registered for future employment.

(iv) Unemployment insurance should also be encouraged.

(v) The application of international conventions is not very much desirable to safeguard against any possibility of unemployment, in howsoever insignificant a degree it might be.

## II.—Staff Organisation.

11. Selection of managing staff is generally not at all based on any sound principle whatsoever, for technical training, both in its theoretical and practical aspect, is not made the sole criterion in this respect.

12. (i) As to the recruitment and training of supervising staff in its superior and inferior grades, the methods in force are not at all very hopeful for there are not institutions solely designed to impart industrial training in any particular line out of its multifarious ramifications. Apprenticeship is the only way of acquiring some insight into the technique of any particular type of industry.

(ii) Apprenticeships, guild system and trade unions, are the only means for affording greater facilities in the way of training.

13. (i) Relations between the staff and the rank and file are not at all very encouraging.

14. (i) The manager is to keep time-keeping, piece-work contractor, and attendance registers, which are to be checked regularly by the factory inspectors.

(ii) The wages are paid to the workmen either by the manager or by the employer or through a responsible officer of the staff.

15. (i) Most of the work of ordinary type is given on contract.

(ii) Such sub-letting is also witnessed in certain cases.

(iii) Contractors and sub-contractors fully control the working conditions.

(iv) The general effect is fairly satisfactory.

## IV.—Health.

23. General health of the workers is not very good. Birth-rate is less and infant mortality is comparatively great. Working conditions at workplaces are good. At home they are absolutely bad and unsatisfactory. Directory is generally very poor. Physique is generally very weak. There is a general decrease of birth-rate amongst labour as the result of the disturbances of sex ratio in the industrial cities. The general increase in mortality is due to the bad system of housing and general ignorance prevailing amongst the workers.

24. Medical facilities are partly provided by the employers and partly by the Government. It is rarely done by other agencies, such as municipal bodies and corporations as well. Provisions for women doctors and trained midwives are very poor.

25. Medical facilities are generally not very much utilized. Women are as a whole too superstitious to avail themselves of the medical practitioners provided.

26. Sanitary arrangements with regard to latrines, drinking water, bathing and washing are fairly good at workplaces, but comparatively less at home.

27. Proper official supervision is generally lacking. Boards of health are too few and far between. Inspection is very irregular at mills and other industrial areas.

## XV.—Industrial Disputes.

123. India is at the present moment suffering more severely from labour troubles than probably any other country in the world. For about a year and a half, strikes, particularly in the Bombay cotton mills, have been going on, as well as at Calcutta, which is the seat of the jute industry.

The causes of the troubles are (i) communist agitation and (ii) the growing feeling of unrest amongst the Indian labourers. The scope of the welfare activities is very limited and hence have accumulated the conditions of poverty, squalor and ignorance, which make the industrial population of India an easily worked field for the communist agitators and others. The shifting conditions of Indian labour are mainly responsible for the difficulty experienced; industrial conditions are fairly satisfactory, but in the smaller workshops and factories much more is yet to be desired. Of late

years much more is done by the provincial departments towards the fostering of the cottage and village industries in which the workpeople can have the advantage of living and this is a highly fruitful line of effort. The interest of India and her people would be better served by the development of village industries in their own homes, amidst the conditions best suited to them, side by side with being able to compete with goods brought from abroad or from other parts of their own country.

Mr. C. D. DIDWANI, MANAGER, Messrs. BIRLA BROTHERS, LTD., DELHI.

#### I.—Recruitment.

1 (i) In the beginning of the textile industry in this city, trained labour for spinning, weaving and other departments of the mill had to be imported from those centres where trained labour could be found, namely, Cawnpore, Ahmedabad, and Bombay. Later on, when local and provincial labour got trained and took to mill work, migration of labour was considerably stopped. Some of the immigrants settled here and they have been here for the last twenty years or more. At present the immigration of labour from other provinces is very nominal, but the immigration from neighbouring villages and districts still continues.

(ii) These villagers generally depend on agriculture, but there are naturally slack seasons and times of bad harvest, and at such times the villagers come out of their respective villages and seek employment in the mills and factories. Moreover, the surplus population of the province also migrates and seeks work in mills. Also the holdings of the villagers are very small and the land also has to remain uncultivated for long periods and consequently the villagers have to migrate.

(iii) There has been no appreciable change in the forms of migration during recent years.

2. About 75 per cent. of our mill workers have settled in Delhi, and they seldom visit their native place. The remaining 25 per cent. go home once a year and stay there for a month or two. Thus the extent of our permanent labour force is about 75 per cent.

3. (i) The existing method of recruitment is mostly through jobbers. Sometimes a little malpractice is seen in this system on the part of the recruiting officer, who makes some money out of the business.

(iii) It is hoped that if suitable public agencies are opened for the purpose the work may be done more economically and even conveniently. It may prove a practical proposition if organized on proper lines. Such an agency should keep itself in touch with all the industrial centres and should keep statistical data, showing the surplus labour which could be available at the required time. The mill owners should make known to them their requirements, which should be met by such agencies.

I might also mention here that such agencies should only act as intermediaries between the employers and the employees so far as the question of their employment is concerned. These agencies should not interfere with the work of the management, as thereby more harm than good will be done. Agencies of this nature have proved quite successful here as well as at other places, so far as the employment of clerks and officers is concerned, and there seems to be no reason why this will not prove successful in the case of labour.

7. (i) Factory employment being more attractive in these days, people are rushing in this direction, and every month the number of trained workers increases, which, as a result, brings unemployment. Unskilled villagers come out of their villages with a view to enter the mill service, but they do not get employment so conveniently. A skilled labourer who has worked on a particular job for a few years seldom remains unemployed. It is generally the unskilled and newly-trained labour which suffers from unemployment.

(ii) It is difficult to give the extent of unemployment due to the lack of statistical data in this respect. The main causes of unemployment are :—(a) More men are entering mill life every month than required ; (b) new labour-saving devices and machinery improvements displace a lot of mill labour, such as high speed warping, automatic loom, etc.

A few years back one weaver used to attend to only one loom, whereas now every weaver attends to at least two looms, and in some cases even more. The labour, therefore, being more skilled can manage to attend to more machines than what they could do before. This improvement on the part of the workers, although desirable for the healthy growth of the industry, automatically results in unemployment.

(iii) Out of the many possible methods of alleviating or even minimizing this increasing unemployment in this country, I may particularly lay stress on a few methods:—(a) About 80 per cent. of the Indian population depend on agriculture, but as the condition of agriculture has been deteriorating the agriculturists have to painfully give up this ancestral occupation and look for some other job. If the condition of the agriculturists is improved, which can only be done by the help of the Government, this increasing unemployment will certainly be minimized to a considerable extent as the unemployed might again revert to their respective villages; (b) new and necessary industries should be organized in the country; (c) cottage industry should be freely introduced among all classes of people. This is, in my opinion, the most important item, which should be thoroughly considered. The Indian agriculturists are idle for a few months every year, during which time they can add something to their income by the cottage industry. It is said that Japan has made remarkable progress in respect of its cottage industries, and it can safely be said that India needs it for improving its economic condition.

(iv) The Unemployment Insurance question does not seem to me to be a practical proposition at the present time.

8. (i) The average duration of employment of a worker in our mill is about five to six years. In some departments it is more, whereas in the weaving shed the duration period of employment is somewhat less.

(ii) The approximate figure of the casual employment of our workers may be 10 per cent.

(iii) The average percentage of absentees in our mill is about five to six. The workers generally absent themselves from work for a short period which varies from two to three days. They prefer taking their discharge notes to remaining absent for long periods. The reasons for their absence are various:—(a) Due to illness of themselves or their relatives; (b) due to marriage or other religious ceremonies; (c) for a day or two after their monthly pay is distributed, etc.

(b) The absenteeism is generally seasonal in character. During the monsoon, when malaria prevails, workers generally suffer from it, and this is the period when the number of absentees increases. In particular months of the year marriage ceremonies take place, and during this season also the number of absentees increases.

(c) In monthly wages as well as piece-work system the workers have to lose their pay. When the worker has no money and needs it he might take it in advance against his work, or, on the recommendation of the doctor, he receives from our mills some financial help for his food and other expenses during the period of illness.

## II.—Staff Organization.

12. (i) In our mill we generally keep some educated apprentices whom we train for some particular departments, and when vacancies occur we give them a chance.

(ii) So far as labourers' training is concerned, we allow the workers to train their relatives, and in some cases we also allow them a scholarship of Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per mensem. After they have learnt the work, their stipend is stopped and they are given work. The ordinary workers who show their competency of work are promoted to jobbers, etc.

13. (i) Except in some rare incidents, the relationship between the management and labour is smooth.

(ii) I do not find any defect in employing jobbers. It is rather necessary to employ them to control and look after the work of a small unit of labour.

(iii) There are no Work Committees here at present to look after the condition of the workers, give them technical training, improve their efficiency, and guide them. It does not seem desirable to start them now, unless the labourers understand their respective duties in this connection.

14. (i) Labourers in our mill are engaged in two ways:—(a) On monthly wages system; (b) piece-work system. The time-keeper takes attendance of the workers who are engaged on monthly wages system, and work is registered of those workers who work on the piece-work system. Checkers are kept to check the work of time-keepers.

## III.—Housing.

16. (i) About 60 to 70 per cent. of our workers have been provided with quarters by the mills. In these houses, about 50 per cent. are our own and 50 per cent. are rented by the mills. A nominal rent, i.e., 30 per cent. below the economic rent, is charged for the workers.



(ii) Nothing has been so far done for the housing of our labour by either the Government or any other public agency.

(iii) The remaining 30 per cent. of our workers take advantage of the houses made for the purpose by private landlords.

(iv) The workers do not have their own quarters.

17. The industrial surveyor sometimes recommends to the Government regarding the want of land required for the housing situation of some indigenous industrial concerns, and the Government generally allow "Nazul" land for this purpose on a lease.

18. (i) Our workers are quite satisfied with the quarters provided for them. They sometimes like a shaded verandah in front of their quarters, which, due to want of accommodation, could not be arranged in old quarters. In those quarters, which are under construction at present, verandah, kitchen, and bath have been added.

(ii) From the health point of view I can say that they are quite good. There are three windows and one door and one roof ventilator in each quarter. Thus the room is very airy and allows a good deal of daylight. There is pucca floor in front of the houses, which the workers utilize. The drainage system, in our opinion, is very sanitary, and there is scientific septic tank and flush system latrine.

(iii) Electric light is supplied in each quarter. Many hand pumps have been fitted in the lines for the supply of water. Great care is taken about the sanitation of the lines.

19. The workers utilize wholeheartedly the accommodation given to them.

20. Generally the scale of rents is based about 30 per cent. below the economic rent.

21. Sub-letting of quarters is not allowed. Also workers working in other factories are not allowed to put up in quarters provided for by our mills. About a fortnight's time is given to those workers who are asked to vacate their quarters. Labourers working in the mills are not asked to vacate their quarters unless they either leave their job or are dismissed.

22. In my opinion, the housing condition in industrial areas often affords a chance to men of a bad type to spread some vices.

The labourers often think that some liquor, after the day's work, helps them to remove fatigue, and therefore they get addicted to it. As their earning capacity is little and they spend a good deal on drinks, their family life becomes much worse. The children, too, try to copy their parents in this respect.

Due to their illiteracy, they cannot understand things well. We tried temperance measures and were remarkably successful in our efforts. The majority of our labourers have discarded this vice, as a result of which they now realize that their private life has considerably improved. So far as illiteracy is concerned, we are trying to educate them, and have opened day and night schools also for them.

#### IV.—Health.

24. (i) One assistant surgeon is kept in our mill, with four compounders and two dressers. We have got a dispensary as well as arrangements for the indoor patient. Medicine is distributed amongst the workers and their relatives free of charge. Our doctor visits the workers' quarters twice a day, and looks after the sanitation of the line and about the health of the workers. We have also engaged a trained midwife for our maternity ward.

(ii) The municipality has got some dispensaries in different parts of the town, as well as some hospitals, and the workers are to some extent benefited by these. In the case of an accident, we generally send the patient to the Civil Hospital.

(iii) So far as I am aware, there is no other public agency which gives medical facilities to the workers.

(iv) We have one trained midwife and a dai for the women workers as well as for the ladies of these workers who serve in the mills. The female workers get three months' leave, with pay, at the time of pregnancy. The period is 1½ or 2 months' before delivery and 1 or 1½ months' after that period. During their delivery time they are looked after by the midwife.

25. (i) About 95 per cent. of our workers take medicine from our dispensary and want to get themselves treated by our doctor at the time of their illness.

(ii) Special medical facilities for women have only been started recently, and they all welcome our newly-made arrangements.

28. The control of temperature is effected to some extent automatically by proper humidification, for which great pains are taken in our mill. Apart from humidification in other departments, we have in our spinning department the carrier system of cooling arrangement.

30. Some provision should be made for the sick workers, who have generally to lose their income for the days they remain ill. In this scheme I think the employers, the employees and the State all should participate. I think it is specially necessary for those workers whose income is not more than Rs. 25 a month.

31. We have got a small maternity ward where a midwife and a dai are kept to attend to the females at the time of their delivery. The midwife also looks after the sanitary condition in the labourers' quarters. The female workers are allowed three months' leave, with full pay, at the time of delivery.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. (i) We have established a Welfare Fund to which the workers contribute to the extent of 1 per cent. from their income every month, and the mill contributes an equal amount. The fund is managed by Birla Mills Labour Welfare Committee, on which labour finds greater representation than management. This Committee has been doing a good work and its expenses will steadily increase.

The main activities of the Welfare Committee have so far been as follows :—

(a) Day school for boys, in which about 300 boys are receiving education; (b) one girls' school, in which 35/40 girls are receiving training; (c) a night school, in which about 50/80 adults receive education; (d) arrangement has been made for small children to be kept at a particular spot where they are attended to by the dais; (e) a cinema show is arranged on every holiday, and lectures are given for their uplift; (f) a restaurant is maintained inside the mills where useful articles are kept and sold at very reasonable prices; (g) a shop is opened at the workers' line, where all good provisions are available at reasonable prices; (h) a Scoutmaster gives training to the boys. Thus all the welfare work is done by the employers and the employees jointly.

(ii) Nothing is done in this respect by other Agencies.

33. A secretary has been appointed to look after the work of the Welfare Committee. There are teachers under him.

34. (i) A refreshment hall has been organized in the mill premises where the workers can get good refreshments at very reasonable prices. A shop is opened in the lines where workers can have good stuff at very reasonable prices. Creches system in our mills is in its infancy, although we have a mind to make it very decent in the near future. The dais are kept to look after the babies, who are put there by their mothers. There are some Indian-fashioned "jhulas," where the boys get some milk, etc., during the day.

(ii) So far as the provision for physical culture and amusements are concerned, we have got one "Akshara" (wrestling place), parallel bars, etc., in our compound which are open for the workers. The workers are shown cinema on every holiday.

35. The effect of the welfare work has been very satisfactory. The workmen's social life has been uplifted. They have generally given up liquors and other bad habits. They have known the importance of sanitation, and now they live in a far better way than they used to do before. They get mutual sympathy among themselves, as well as from their masters and officers.

36. (i) For adult workers we have opened a night school, but at present the attendance is rather poor, i.e., it ranges between 50/75. It seems that the adult workers are not inclined to receive educational training.

(ii) For half timers we have arranged a school in the afternoon, but they are not inclined to attend it. They generally try to come in the night school in a smaller number. We are trying to increase the number shortly.

(iii) For workers' children we have got a day school wherein about 300 boys receive training. It has six classes and is running satisfactorily.

37. I would certainly wish to see some scheme adopted for the provision for old age of the factory workers, and I think a good way to do this is to open a Provident Fund Institution wherein the workers should be made to deposit a fixed percentage of their income and get a similar contribution from the employers deposited in that institution. Thus they will get a decent sum at the time of retiring after some years.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

51. I have nothing to say against the Workmen's Compensation Act. I would rather say that this Act removes, to some extent, the fear of factory life from the workmen's hearts. We have got all our workers insured on our behalf in accordance

with the Workmen's Compensation Rules, and whenever an accident occurs the injured person gets a decent sum from the insurance company. The scale of compensation, in my opinion, is low, and there is room for increasing this amount to a certain extent.

#### IX.—Hours.

It is necessary, or desirable, to reduce the daily hours of work. A ten hours working day is most essential in Indian textile mills, and at the same time reasonable. The period of interval during working days is one hour after five hours' work. This is also quite reasonable. The number of holidays in a month is four/five, and holidays are observed in accordance with the Indian Factories Act.

#### XII.—Wages.

96. The rates of wages in different departments vary. They range between Rs. 22 to Rs. 60 per month. It is generally said that the wages in factories are comparatively much better than what is earned in the surrounding agricultural areas.

97. There has been some movement during recent years in connection with wages of workers, and it resulted in the increase of their income to some extent. In my opinion, the scale of wages in the different departments of the textile mills is rather peculiar. A labourer working in the spinning department, where he has to work for the same period of 10 hours and has to stand in an atmosphere full of cotton fibres, cannot get more than Rs. 25 a month, whereas a weaver generally earns more than Rs. 50 a month. One, therefore, cannot get spinning workers so conveniently as he can get weavers. Some scale ought to be made wherein this volume of difference in the wages of the spinning and weaving departments may be eliminated. In countries like Japan the scale of wages in the spinning and weaving departments are nearly the same.

99. Payments of wages are made in cash.

102. The basis of payment for overtime work is 25 per cent. more than their ordinary wages.

106. (iii) In our mills, the amount of fines realized from the workers is credited to the Workers' Relief Fund Account, and this amount is only spent for the help of the workers when they need it.

107. The period of wage payment in our mills is monthly, but I would prefer a fortnightly system of payment. The workers would also like to have fortnightly payments. Although they get money in advance against their pay, still when they stand in need of money they have sometimes to wait for a month to receive their wages, but if they receive their wages every fifteenth day they would arrange matters more conveniently. The month's wages are given to the workers by the 15th of the next month. Their wages have no relation to the profit made by the factory in which they are employed.

109. Bonus is given to all the workers on production exceeding a certain quantity. This is very essential for better efficiency, because on account of temptation of bonus the labourer works wholeheartedly.

There is no hard and fast rule for bonus to the workers on profits earned by the mill, but when the mill shows a profit the workers generally get half their monthly wages in the form of annual bonus.

110. The ordinary workers are not allowed their wages for the days they remain absent from their work.

The efficiency of the Indian workers has, no doubt, increased to a considerable extent, due to their long experience in the line, but they cannot, however, compete as yet with the foreign workers.

114. This is perhaps due to there being all conditions more favourable in foreign countries than in India.

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### THE DELHI MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE.

#### Introductory.

The Delhi Municipal Committee is not an employer of industrial labour to any large extent. Its works, involving capital expenditure, are executed through contractors, and it keeps only a small supervising staff. It has a small workshop for

repairs of plants and tools, and a gang of beldars for the maintenance of roads. This memorandum therefore deals particularly with questions relating to housing, health, welfare and education of workers, and gives only general remarks on some of the other questions.

### I.—Recruitment.

Delhi is by no means an industrial city. Its population, according to the census of 1921, was below 3 lacs, and may be taken to be well over 4 lacs by now ; the transfer of the capital of India to Delhi having attracted an appreciable number of persons to the city for various reasons.

In the absence of any reliable agency for the collection of labour statistics, it is difficult to give any accurate information as to the exact number of persons engaged in industrial undertakings, but the best opinions available take them to be in the neighbourhood of 60,000.

(1) The construction of the New City is responsible for a major portion of workers engaged in the building trade. The unskilled labour is drawn chiefly from Bikanir and other Rajputana States, with a sprinkling of the agricultural class residing in the surrounding villages. The skilled labour is provided by Northern India, to which the prominent contractors belong.

The textile labour came originally from Ahmedabad, Bombay and Central India, but it has already been replaced to a large extent by local labour reinforced by labour drawn from villages.

The other permanent industries find no difficulty to secure labour in the local market.

(i) and (ii) The extent of migration of industrial labour is not serious. It is more or less confined to textile labour in the lower grades. A worker of that class earns about Rs. 17 a month, and if he can earn that rate of wage, under less irksome conditions, there is no strong incentive for him to stick to the work that he has in hand. There are no particular streams of migration.

(iii) In recent years there has been a decided change for the better. Labour is getting more stable. A general awakening is discernible amongst them. It is not so simple and ignorant as it used to be. Its outlook is being broadened. It has begun to feel that it is not being treated fairly, and is trying to assert itself and make its presence felt.

(2) Out of the 60,000 labourers hardly 5,000 are drawn from villages, and as most of them have come here with their families they have little cause to pay any frequent visits to their village homes. Moreover, all the circumstances are tending towards the relaxation of family ties. The contact of the city with villages through industrial labour is not very strong.

4. As a major portion of industrial labour is permanently settled down in Delhi there is very little disturbance of family life. The section of labour which is drawn from outside has to a large extent moved to Delhi with its family members, and the remaining portion does create sufficient opportunities for itself to frequently visit their home.

7. No reliable information is available as to the extent of unemployment, but that it does exist at present to a considerable extent cannot be denied. The reasons which have led to this unfortunate position are :—

(a) The general slump in trade throughout India which has persisted for the last four or five years.

(b) The building of the New City is nearing completion, and a large number of workers of the building trade are being thrown out of work. These men have made Delhi their home permanently. The city is thus face to face with an acute problem as the wages of labour has already been affected and brought down.

(c) Some of the hand industries are fast dying out, as they are unable to withstand competition with machinery.

(d) No serious systematic effort has been made so far in Delhi to foster and protect small industries, and the cities which have better organized themselves in this respect are capturing Delhi market to the disadvantage of local labour. Attention is particularly drawn to Lameta embroidery, gold and silver thread works, which were once a very flourishing industry of the city, but Surat and Bangalore, where these works have been introduced as a cottage industry, have hit Delhi workers hard.

(e) In the absence of any demand due to general poverty, spread of materialism and westernization, persons who were engaged in fine arts, such as hand painting and handwriting, have lost their occupation.

8. Except in undertakings under the Factories Act the average duration of employment is from 9 to 10 hours, with no holidays. In a good number of trades a labourer is a piece worker, and has to work longer hours to earn sufficient bread for himself and his family members.

A worker absents himself from his work on account of sickness, to observe religious ceremonies, marriages in the family, and very often for no valid reason at all. For a certain section the payment of wages in a lump sum at the end of a month has a bad effect. A worker of that class has no care for the morrow, and wastes his time and his money for the first two or three days in drunkenness and gambling.

The average pay of an industrial worker may be taken at 12 annas a day, and he absents himself for five days in a month. As the estimated number of workers is 60,000, the loss to the city through absenteeism is estimated at Rs. 27,00,000 a year.

### III.—Housing.

16. An industrial labourer is expected as a rule to arrange for his accommodation. The textile mills, however, have built fairly decent quarters for 25 per cent. of their employees. The houses are built in single storied long lines, with some times a shed in front. One room is allotted to one family, consisting at an average of three or four persons. The room is generally of the size 10 ft. by 10 ft., but never more than 12 ft. by 10 ft. There are common latrines and common water taps. The rent recovered is below the rate prevailing in the locality for similar houses. With all their defects and shortcomings these quarters are decidedly more sanitary than the houses to which the workers living in them are accustomed.

The coolies working at the construction of New Delhi live in a specified area in huts made of mud with thatched roofs. These huts are unfit for human habitation, and it is a wonder that they were ever allowed. These huts belong to the various contractors, and the only saving grace about them is that they are situated in an open space with plenty of sunlight and air, and the conservancy arrangements which are under the Health Officer of that locality are satisfactory.

The industrial workers live in rented buildings, and only a few of them own their houses. In building these houses the landlord has looked to his own interest than to the convenience of his tenants.

A few years ago the houses of Rahgars in a certain locality of the city were compulsorily acquired, and they were given land in Western Extensions, where a number of houses built by them have sprung up. This quarter is known as Basti Rahgar. This Basti has not developed so rapidly as it was expected to do, for the reason that it is a little out of the way place, and is still lacking in certain amenities of life.

There is a big slum area in Saddar Bazar inhabited by Rahgars and Chamars. This place is known as Harphool Singh-ki-Basti. The land belongs to one Harphool Singh, a Jat, and the residents thereon are his tenants. This area has been a standing reproach to us, and is the plague spot of Delhi. Most of the epidemics are known to have originated from this place. The Committee has, at last, with the money generously provided by the Government of India, decided to acquire 55,000 sq. yds. of this land, pull down all the houses and make a proper lay-out. A fair-sized plot of land in the vicinity at Shidipura is being acquired on which model dwelling houses will be constructed for some of them. A portion of Harphool Singh-ki-Basti will be vacated, and the men thus dislodged will be brought to Shidipura. The improvement of the land thus vacated will be taken in hand at once, and as soon as it is ready for occupation it will be possible to have another portion of the acquired land thus treated. Both the bastis will be provided with proper drainage, electric lights and water supply. Provision is also being made for a school and a welfare centre.

This is the first serious effort made by the Municipal Committee for the clearance of slum areas from the city, and on the success of the experiment will depend the treatment of other small sized slum areas scattered all over the city, which are particularly inhabited by industrial labour belonging to the depressed classes.

Harphool Singh-ki-Basti gives a fair idea of the conditions under which industrial labour lives, and it is hoped that the Commission will find time to see things for themselves.

17. No special facilities have been provided for the acquisition of land by the workers. Land inside the city is fairly expensive, and is beyond the means of an ordinary person. The city proper has been unfortunately placed, and is hemmed in by all sides. To the north is the Notified Area Committee, Civil Lines, which under no circumstances would allow houses of Indian type to spring up, to the east is the river and the Fort zone, and to the south is the New Delhi with its high ideas and ambitions. The west is the only outlet to which we can cast our eyes. Here most of the available lands belong to Government, which has its own scheme known as the Western Extensions Scheme. The lands are given out on long lease to anyone who cares to have them. The rate varies between 8 annas and Rs. 5 per month per 100 sq. yards, according to its locality. All have an equal chance. There is a certain class which is shy to invest money on a land which is leased. We think that these extensions will have a better chance of development if a clause is added in the lease that the occupier may purchase the land outright by paying a specified sum.

## IV.—Health.

23. (i) Though separate figures of mortality amongst workers are not available, yet there is no reason to believe that they have a higher mortality rate as compared to other classes in the city. As explained under the head Education, there are only a few small areas inhabited by the persons engaged in leather trade which may be called industrial areas. The workers are as a rule mixed up with the general population, and live wherever they can find accommodation according to their means. To find out the health conditions of workers therefore, one has to look to the general mortality rate of the city.

(ii) The population of the city proper was 2,47,935 according to the census of 1921, and calculated on the bases of births over deaths since then it should be 267,193 in 1928.

There were 13,457 births, excluding still-births, during 1928, and of those 6,998 were males and 6,459 females. The number of still births was 280.

The total number of deaths, excluding still-births, during the same period was 8,535. The number of deaths excluding still-births of children under one year of age was 210·45 per 1,000 of infants born.

A study of the figures of infant mortality excluding still-births, shows that in ten years ending 1922, the rate gradually fell from 346·40 to 187·46 per 1,000. In 1923 it rose to 226·42 and fell again the next year to 174·02. In 1925 it was 182·56, and jumped to 237·51 in 1926. In 1927 it dropped again to 200·51, and has gone up to 210·45 in 1928.

The general death rate has been as follows during the last few years :—1924, 30·54; 1925, 29·37; 1926, 43·58; 1927, 32·78; 1928, 34·54.

Out of 8,535 deaths recorded, only 5,952 were verified for want of sufficient staff. The statement below gives the percentages attributed to the various diseases :

1. Pneumonia and broncho-pneumonia .. ..	1,857 deaths	30·1 per cent.
2. Phthisis .. ..	759 ..	12·8 ..
3. Small pox .. ..	395 ..	6·6 ..
4. Infantile diarrhoea .. ..	390 ..	6·6 ..
5. Typhoid fever .. ..	366 ..	6·5 ..
6. Premature births .. ..	265 ..	4·5 ..
7. Malarial fever .. ..	233 ..	4·1 ..
8. Asthma .. ..	227 ..	3·9 ..
9. Senile debility .. ..	207 ..	3·6 ..
10. Infantile debility .. ..	199 ..	3·6 ..
11. Other diseases combined .. ..	1,054 ..	17·7 ..
	5,952	100 per cent.

The method of registration of births and deaths is simple, and is working fairly satisfactorily. Under the municipal bye-laws the head of a family is held responsible to notify to the Municipal Health Department the birth or death of any member of his family within 24 hours of its occurrence. This report is checked by the daily information supplied under the rules by sweepers of the various localities. As houses in the city are not provided with water-flushed system, a sweeper has to visit each house twice a day. As the sweeper has a customary right to serve that house, he is more or less a permanent feature, and is well acquainted with all important happenings in that house. In the case of a death a sub-assistant surgeon employed by the Municipal Committee visits the house to verify the cause of death.

(iii) The working conditions of persons employed in undertakings under the Indian Factories Act are satisfactory on the whole, but the conditions under which certain classes of labour are obliged to work and live is really deplorable.

We do feel strongly that there should be some legal provision, municipal or provincial, by which all buildings used as working places should be required to be licensed as to their suitability in respect of light and air, conservancy arrangements and the maximum number of persons to be allowed to work therein should be specified.

The real difficult problem for us to solve, however, is the working condition at home of certain trades, particularly the shoe making. The workers engaged in this trade belong to the depressed classes. They live in small wretched houses which are overcrowded, ill ventilated and ill lighted, and hardly 8 ft. high. Seven or eight persons live in one or two-room tenements. The size of each room is hardly 12 ft. by 10 ft. The same rooms serve as kitchen, sleeping and sitting rooms and work house. Their earnings are so low that they cannot afford to move into better lodgings, and in many cases, even if they had the means, it is doubtful if with their slum minds they would prefer any change.

(iv) Their food is simple and far from nourishing. Milk and ghee, which once formed the chief portion of their diet, are no longer used, as their price has been doubled during the last 25 years, and these articles are being adulterated to an extent which is unbelievable.

24. (i) The city is well provided with medical facilities. The Birla Mills have a full time qualified medical practitioner, who lives on the premises. A dispensary is located within the mill compound.

The Delhi Cloth and General Mills have a compounder to render first aid. The services of a better qualified man was not considered to be necessary as a municipal dispensary is situated within a stone's throw of the mill.

The Khalsa Mills has a part-time qualified person in its employ, who comes to the mill on an emergency and makes a weekly round.

(ii) The Municipal Committee maintains a large up-to-date hospital with nine branch dispensaries. It has also four indigenous dispensaries, in which Unani and Ayurvedic treatment is given. It contributed over a lac of rupees towards the construction of Dr. Shroff's Charitable Eye Hospital, and gives it a grant-in-aid of Rs. 6,000 a year. The Committee also supports a Homeopathic dispensary, and contributes Rs. 5,000 a year to the Tibbia and Unani College, which is doing a yeoman's service towards popularizing the Indian system of medicine. Lord Hardinge performed the opening ceremony of this college in 1912. The cost of medical department of the municipality during 1928 was Rs. 2,81,297.

(iii) In addition to these the city is full of private practitioners, Hakims and Vails, who treat the poor free.

(iv) The city is equipped with three up-to-date hospitals (1) Victoria Zenana Hospital, which has practically been taken over by the Municipality; (2) St. Stephen's Hospital, which receives a grant in aid from Municipal funds; (3) Lady Hardinge College and Hospital. These hospitals have won so much confidence, that they are always full to its utmost capacity, and admissions have to be refused. They are so admirably situated that there is no chance of their overlapping the activities of each other. Schemes for the establishment of a separate maternity hospital and a large infectious diseases hospital are under consideration.

25. The industrial class takes full advantage of the medical facilities provided for them. The following figures for 1928 show the popularity of the various Municipal medical institutions :—

	Indoor patients.	Outdoor patients.
Civil hospital and its dispensaries ..	9,000	3,11,796
Unani dispensaries .. .. .	—	1,44,477
Vedic .. .. .	—	1,51,919

To our welfare centres are attached classes for the training of midwives. They prepare for the examination of Punjab Central Midwives Board. The indigenous dais are paid a fixed fee per case from municipal funds, whenever they requisition the services of a trained midwife in municipal employ. It is admitted that there is yet a great need for the training of an increasing number of midwives.

26. Adequate arrangements do exist for water supply and latrines in the larger concerns, though some of the mills will be well advised to give their workers a filtered supply of water instead of making them use well water. In smaller concerns there is room for a good deal of improvement in both these directions. In the case of undertakings under the Indian Factories Act at least, we would recommend that the employers be required to provide bathing places for their men.

The labourers at present use the same clothes at work and at home. We recommend that the textile mills be made to give their men sets of clothes to be used while at work. A man when leaving the mill should have a wash and get into his private clothes while going out. A privately scavenged latrine which is often cleaned once a day in a small house is neither pleasant nor conducive to health. In poorer quarters therefore the provision of latrines are being discouraged, and are being generally replaced by public water borne latrines centrally situated.

A number of public bathing places were provided in the city, but they were closed on account of scarcity of water. The city mains are being re-modelled and enlarged at a cost of Rupees twenty lacs, and it will be possible in the near future to re-open these bathing places.

27. No special arrangement has been made for the supervision of industrial areas where they exist. The *chamars* as a rule live in Bastis, owned by private landlords, who are responsible for their sanitary condition. We are afraid that these landlords are negligent in their duties.

In the mill areas the local Inspector of Factories is the only supervising authority and he is overworked with other branches of work. We suggest that as in jails a number of non-official visitors be appointed. It also seems advisable to make some arrangements for the periodical inspection of small concerns which are not under the Factories Act, and in which more than 10 persons are employed.

31. The women workers are on daily wages, and have to forego their pay for absence during child-birth. We are of opinion that a woman who has been in the service of a concern under the Factories Act for six months or over should be granted 20 days maternity leave with full allowances, and that this concession be allowed by legislation. The textile mills should also be made to provide maternity beds in co-operation of the Municipal Committee.

#### V.—Welfare.

32 Till recent years no serious interest was taken by employers in welfare work. A beginning has, however, been made by two textile mills, but it falls far short of actual requirements. The Delhi Cloth and General Mills were first in the field, but they have simply confined themselves to the provision of occasional cinema shows and the organization of an annual workers' day, which is much appreciated and has proved a success. The Birla Mills have started on the right lines, but have still far to go. Like the Delhi Cloth Mills, they have their cinema shows. They have provided a wrestling ground, and have made a special enclosure within the mill premises, where women workers can leave their babies to be looked after by a Dai. In our opinion the latter idea should be further developed in all concerns where women are employed in large numbers, and they should be encouraged to bring their children below the age of 6 years with them; special arrangements should be made, and a qualified staff kept to amuse these children and teach them the habits of cleanliness, service and discipline. In all other concerns an employer leaves its workers to their fate after working hours.

The Municipal Committee and the Baby Week Committee are the only other agencies which are trying to do something for the workers. The child welfare scheme was first introduced into the city as an experimental measure in 1918, and has now been placed on a permanent footing. It was intended for all classes, but experience has shown that predominantly Chamar women have taken advantage of it. There are now seven welfare centres in working order under the charge of a fully qualified lady doctor. The cost of the scheme is 27,000 rupees a year, and half of it comes from general revenues.

33. It is only the Birla Mill which has employed a labour secretary, who gives his whole time to look after the welfare of the workers living in its coolie lines. What is required is a systematic effort for the physical and moral development of the workers. Playgrounds should be attached to the mill area, and the workers should be taught the value of spending their spare time more profitably.

34. Both the Delhi Cloth and Birla Mills have arranged for sweetmeat and provision shops in the mill premises. A worker is enabled to take things on credit up to a certain amount, and his bill is adjusted at the close of the month when he receives his wages. In our opinion these shops should be on a co-operative basis.

We also suggest that the provision of a provident fund in concerns which keep 20 persons or more should be made compulsory. One anna in the rupee should be deducted from the pay of every worker, and a similar amount be paid by the management.

The fines inflicted, the undisbursed pay and the amount of provident fund withheld be formed into a fund for the help of the families of workers who die in straitened circumstances. The administration of this fund should be in the hands of a joint committee of workers and the employers themselves.

We also advocate the payment of weekly instead of monthly wages.

#### VI.—Education.

40. As industrial labour, with few exceptions, is scattered all over the city, the children of the labouring class share the same facilities for general education as are open to the other members of the public. The Delhi city is well provided with schools which are situated at convenient places within an easy reach of a boy's home. In no case has a boy to walk more than half a mile at the outside to get to a public school.

The Municipal Committee, aided by a liberal grant in aid from Government, maintains 51 primary schools for boys and 20 schools for girls. In addition to this it gives a generous financial help to recognized boys and girls' schools.

The interest of the children of the labour classes who are to be found in large numbers in any particular industrial area, has received special consideration. Schools have been opened in their midst. The number of such schools in non-mills areas is six.



Within the compound of the Delhi Cloth Mills is a municipal school, and also a day and night school in their coolie lines; the Khalsa Spinning and Weaving Mills has a municipal school within two furlongs.

The Birla Mills has its own school.

Night schools have been opened by the Municipal Committee for the education of children employed in factories and of adults.

The figures of expenditure on education quoted below will show the rapid strides made in this direction during the last few years:—

	Boys' education.	Female education.	Total.
1925-26 .. .. .	1,49,441	38,245	1,87,686
1926-27 .. .. .	1,83,673	47,898	2,31,571
1927-28 .. .. .	2,29,423	60,583	2,90,006
1928-29 .. .. .	2,52,636	91,244	3,43,880
1929-30 .. .. .	2,87,200	1,20,600	4,07,800
(Estimated) .. .. .			

If it is remembered that the total income of the Delhi Municipal Committee excluding Government grants, is about 22 lacs, it will be admitted that this city is contributing more than its due share towards the removal of illiteracy from the land.

41. Unfortunately there is only one industrial middle school throughout the Delhi province, and it is not up to the standard that one would like it to be. It was opened by the Delhi Municipal Committee and was handed over to Government control from 1927. Its cost to a large extent is still being met from municipal funds as under the conditions of transfer the municipal contribution is to be reduced by 20 per cent. yearly, and it will completely be provincialized after five years. A scheme is already before the committee to open at once as an experimental measure six primary schools to serve as feeders to the Government Industrial School. Four of them will be opened in industrial areas.

42. *Effect of education.*—Over 90 per cent. of the workers are still illiterate, and until education becomes universal it is difficult to form an opinion.

## THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA—DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR.

*Note.*—This memorandum is based mainly on the official records of the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour; but the Government of India should not be understood as accepting responsibility for every particular statement of fact or expression of opinion in it.

S. LALL.

### Chapter I.—Development of Indian Industries and the Emergence of the Labour Problem.

India is, and has always been, pre-eminently an agricultural country. The most striking characteristic of the economic structure of the country is the overwhelming importance of agriculture over all other occupations. More than 70 per cent. of the adult male population derive their livelihood from land and most of the workers in other industries also have agriculture as a subsidiary occupation. The preponderance of agriculture did not, however, mean that other industries did not exist till recently or were of no importance. Before the advent of British rule in India, Indian workmanship reached a high water-mark of excellence and the products of Indian industry enjoyed a world-wide reputation. The Indian section of the Great Exhibition of 1851 drew forth the compliment from a Frenchman, M. Blanqui, "Les Indiens sont les Français de l'Orient pour le génie industriel."\*

Before 1880 the industries in India were essentially cottage industries as opposed to the large-scale industries of the modern age. The vast majority of the industrial population of India lived in villages and each individual craftsman worked independently on his own account. The capitalist and the *entrepreneur* of modern times had not then come into existence. Under such an organization there was no room

\* Gadgil, *Industrial Evolution of India*, page 36.

for specialization, or division of labour, and the essential feature of the modern industrial system, viz., the concentration of workers in factories, was absent. The latter half of the 19th century, however, saw the rapid decline of the indigenous handicraft industry. It is not necessary here to examine the causes which produced this result, but the point which it is important to bear in mind is that this decay had set in before modern industrialism had been established to any appreciable extent, with the result that the population of the country was to an increasing extent thrown back on the land. In spite of its inherent weakness the older type of industrial organization has not, however, disappeared from India, and there are, even at the present time a certain number of cottage industries, e.g., hand-weaving, which are able to compete successfully with modern industry. The cottage industry is more suited to the habits and customs of the people, and secures a happier existence for the craftsman who works under comparatively healthy conditions in his own home in the midst of his family.

The factory industry, which has been steadily displacing the older handicrafts of India, was not established without considerable difficulty. The earlier pioneering attempts of the East India Company were almost all failures. The cotton and the jute industries, the two foremost among modern Indian industries, were started by about the middle of the 19th century. Their progress in the beginning was slow and uncertain, but since 1879 a steady progress has been maintained. In 1880 the total number of cotton mills was 58, employing about 40,000 persons, but in 1914 the number of mills was 264 and the total number of persons employed in them about 260,000. Similarly, the number of jute mills rose from 22 in 1880 to 64 in 1914, and the number of persons employed in them from 27,000 to 216,000. Similar progress was maintained in other industries, e.g., coal mining and the petroleum industry. The result of this steady progress of large-scale production was the growth of factory towns like Bombay, Calcutta, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Nagpur, Madras, Jamshedpur, etc., where modern labour problems, as understood in the west, are slowly but surely coming into prominence. Owing to the fact that the industrialization of the country has proceeded very slowly, there was not the rapid growth of a landless proletariat class in factory towns solely dependent upon industrial employment, as in England, where the industrial revolution was responsible for the creation of a large class of factory workmen permanently divorced from the land. The industrial development of the country was, however, greatly accelerated during the war and immediately after, during which period imports from abroad had of necessity to be restricted. This gave Indian manufacturers a degree of protection from foreign competition which in normal times would only have been secured by a high tariff. In 1922 India obtained recognition by the League of Nations as one of the Eight States of Chief Industrial importance. The grounds on which this claim was based are stated in the memorandum prepared by the India Office, which gave the following salient figures to illustrate the industrial importance of the country:—"28,000,000 agricultural workers (excluding peasant proprietors), 141,000 maritime workers, lascars, etc., a figure second only to that for the United Kingdom; over 20,000,000 workers in industries, including cottage industries, mines and transport; railway mileage in excess of that in every country except the United States."

But in spite of this impressive progress it is still true to say that the greater part of the labour force in industrial employment retains its agricultural connection, and, except perhaps in Ahmedabad, Jamshedpur and Sholapur, where a settled factory population is gradually springing up, the Indian industrial labour army consists of very few regulars.

#### **Chapter II.—Industrial Labour—its Origin, Extent of Migration and Methods of Recruitment.**

*Scarcity of Industrial Labour.*—From the brief account of the development of Indian industries it will be apparent that industrial labour must of necessity be drawn from the villages which are to be found dotted all over the face of the country. The vast majority of the industrial labourers belong to the poorer classes of peasants who have been driven by adverse circumstances from the fields in their native villages to seek employment in a factory. In the preceding chapter reference has been made to the increasing pressure of the population on the land owing to the decay of the Indian handicraft industry. In 1880 the Famine Commission observed that "the numbers who have no other employment than agriculture are greatly in excess of what is really required for the thorough cultivation of the land." The Agricultural Commission, after a study of the figures of the increase since that date of the urban and rural population of India, came to the conclusion that "the observations of the Famine Commission were even more pertinent to-day than when they were made in 1880."\* Owing to this increasing pressure of the population on the

\* Para. 506 of the Report.

land there should be a plentiful supply of cheap labour for industrial undertakings. But the Indian industrialist is quick to deny that labour in India is either plentiful or cheap. The Industrial Commission in 1918 referred to the "growing scarcity of labour in most parts of the country" \* and in the United Provinces Census Report of 1921 it is stated that the success of the factory organized on modern lines "is limited in one and that a vital respect—by the difficulty of obtaining and retaining labour" †. The scarcity of labour in India is due not to any deficiency in numbers but to the various factors which prevent potential labourers from being drawn into industrial areas. The true explanation of the scarcity of labour is to be found chiefly in the unattractive conditions of employment and also partly in the conservatism of the labourer, who is always reluctant to wrench himself away from his fixtures. There is greater difficulty in finding skilled than ordinary labour, and this is due to the fact that facilities for training labour for modern industry are inadequate.

*Migration of Labour.*—The industrial centres in India are able to supply only a very small proportion of the labour force required, and there is consequently a considerable migration from other parts of India to these centres. The extent and nature of this migration is given in detail in Chapter III of Volume I of the Census of India, 1921, and the position is briefly stated in the following extract from the report:—"The labour reserves are found chiefly among the lower classes of the centre and south of the country. The centre supplies the tea plantations and mining industries of the eastern provinces, the south meets the southern industrial demand and the bulk of the Burma and overseas demand, while the more technical industries in the cities of the Western Provinces are supplied chiefly from the neighbouring agricultural tracts."

The table on page 167, which is taken from the Census Report of 1921, shows the principal provinces which gain and which lose on the balance of migration and compares the statistics with those of 1911 in each respect.

It will be observed that the provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of migrants are Bihar and Orissa (about 1½ million), the United Provinces (about one million), and Madras (about three-fourths of a million). On the other hand, Assam contains the highest percentage of foreigners. Inter-provincial migration is mostly either periodic, i.e., due to seasonal demands for labour, or semi-permanent, i.e., when the inhabitants of one place earn their livelihood in another but maintain connection with their own homes and ultimately settle there. The only province to which migration is largely of a permanent character is Assam, where the tea gardens and the cultivable waste land in the Brahmaputra Valley are the two main attractions for the poorer classes of villagers in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, the Central Provinces, the United Provinces, and Madras. It would be difficult to analyse within the brief space of this memorandum the causes of particular streams of migration, but, generally speaking, it may be stated that the men who migrate belong to the lowest stratum of village society. They are either landless labourers, generally of the lowest castes, or petty cultivating ryots who, owing to the smallness of the family holding or the weight of the debt incurred on account of illness, bad monsoon or the performance of a costly religious ceremony which is necessary on the occasion of a birth, marriage or death in the family, are driven to the industrial areas in search of a supplementary source of income. The lot of the former class in their villages is not a happy one, and, as the isolation of the Indian village is steadily breaking down, the landless agricultural labourers and the village menials are now able to better their position by migrating to the towns. The latter class, which is by far the more numerous, consists of agriculturists, pure and simple, whose hearts are in their villages to which they return at intervals more or less frequent.

*Changes in Recent Years.*—A comparison of the census figures of 1921 with those of 1911 shows that there have been no important changes in the main streams of migration during the course of the ten years. Assam and Burma have gained both in immigration and in emigration, while the United Provinces have lost in both. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Madras and the Central Provinces the number of immigrants has decreased, whilst the number of emigrants has increased. On the other hand, in the Bombay Presidency and the Punjab the number of immigrants has increased while the number of emigrants has decreased. Amongst the most notable changes may be mentioned an increase of nearly 400,000 immigrants into Assam, and an increase of 132,000 emigrants from Bengal and of nearly 100,000 emigrants from Madras.

*The Sources of Labour Supply.*—A brief analysis may now be made of the supply of labour on which some of the more important industries depend:—

(i) *Bombay City.*—The cotton mill industry is by far the most important industry in this centre. The other industries are connected with railway workshops and

\* Para. 7 of the Report.

† Census Report, Volume XVI, Part I, page 164.

engineering shops, dockyards, oil and flour mills, tanneries, iron and brass foundries, chemical factories, electric works, printing presses, etc. Bombay is very largely dependent on imported labour, and in the 1921 census no less than 84 per cent. of its inhabitants were returned as having been born outside the city. The Deccan and the Konkan, especially Ratnagiri district, are the chief sources from which labour is obtained. But there is also a steadily increasing stream of migration from the Punjab, the United Provinces, Madras and the French and Portuguese Settlements. Most of the migration, particularly from the distant parts, is of a semi-permanent nature as will be apparent from the sex ratio which is 525 females to 1,000 males.\*

(ii) *Ahmedabad and Sholapur*.—The other centres of the cotton mill industry have a more permanent labour force than Bombay. In Ahmedabad 60 per cent. of the population are born in the city itself. Sholapur is even less heterogeneous. Nearly 64 per cent. of the population are actually born there and only 27 per cent. come from outside the province, mostly from the neighbouring State of Hyderabad.

(iii) *Calcutta*, the home of the jute industry, is the other most important industrial centre of India. Like Bombay, it relies on imported labour, but, in addition, depends much more than almost any other centre on labour from other provinces. This is attributed to the fertility of the land and the dislike of the Bengali for factory work. The largest number of immigrants come from Bihar and Orissa, which supplies nearly a fifth of the Calcutta population. Most of them are employed in some form of manual labour, and the ratio of women to men is less than one in five. The United Provinces supply nearly a tenth of the Calcutta population. The men from this province have the advantage over Biharis and Oriyas, in that more of them are able to find regular employment in mills and factories, and the number of casual labourers is comparatively small. Madras and the Central Provinces also send a stream of emigrants to Calcutta.

(iv) *Bihar and Orissa*.—While Bihar and Orissa pours out its labouring population eastwards, its iron and coal industries in the Singhbhum and Manbhum districts are attracting a considerable number of skilled and unskilled workers from outside. In Singhbhum the number of immigrants from non-contiguous parts of other provinces is 34,000, whilst in Manbhum it is 32,000. Skilled workers come chiefly from the United Provinces, Bombay and Bengal, and unskilled workers from the Central Provinces and Madras.

(v) *Cawnpore* is the principal industrial town of the United Provinces. The textile industry is the chief industry of the place, but there are also tanneries, leather factories, engineering works, oil, flour and rice mills, chemical works, sugar factories, etc. Labour is freely drawn from the densely populated districts, which surround Cawnpore. But the case of Cawnpore itself is curious: though having to import labour it also exports it.

(vi) *Madras*.—Owing to the deficiency of coal, Madras has not gained the same degree of industrial importance as Calcutta or Bombay. It has a few large cotton mills and tanneries and leather factories. There is a plentiful supply of labour in the locality, and in fact the presidency exports labour in large numbers to other industrial centres and to Burma and Ceylon. No less than 95 per cent. of the inhabitants of Madras City were born in the province itself, and of these two-thirds were born in Madras city. The proportion of the sexes is also fairly equal. The labour force in Madras is, therefore, considerably more stable than in Bombay or Calcutta.

*Methods of Recruitment*.—The methods of recruitment in India have received general condemnation, even from the employers. But the excuse for the continuance of these methods is the difficulty of obtaining an adequate supply of labour. Apart from the casual employment of itinerant labour, which is governed by the laws of supply and demand, the usual methods of recruitment for industrial undertakings are:—(i) recruitment through contractors; (ii) recruitment through sardars; (iii) recruitment at the mill gates.

Before considering each of these methods, it is necessary to bear in mind that a stable labour force does not generally exist in Indian towns. When the first factory was started there was a sufficient supply of labour in the neighbourhood. But as industries developed and became concentrated at convenient centres, where raw material was at hand and transport facilities were available, the necessity arose of obtaining labour from some distance. Owing to the illiteracy of the workers and the variety of languages spoken by them, employers in India find it almost

\* Pages 18-21, Census of India, 1921, Volume IX, Part I.

† Census Report, 1921, Volume VI, Part I, pages 20 *et seq.*

‡ Census of India, 1921, Vol. XVI, Part I, page 45.

impossible to maintain any direct touch with their workpeople. This accounts for the presence of intermediaries, who are largely responsible for the abuses which have sprung up in connection with recruitment.

(i) *Recruitment through Contractors.*—This is the earliest method of recruitment and is still commonly used for obtaining labour for construction works and for industries and mines situated at some distance from the source of supply of labour. This system is also to be found in certain seasonal factories, particularly in cotton-ginning and pressing factories, although there is generally a plentiful supply of labour for such factories owing to the fact that work commences after the harvesting season.

The contractor is sent out to overcome the innate conservatism of the Indian peasant. He is helped in his work by the poverty and indebtedness of the peasant and also by occasional bad harvests, but in addition he not infrequently indulges in fraud and misrepresentation by painting a rosy picture of the future that awaits the peasant in a town with its crowded bazaars and other amusements, which are conspicuously absent in the village. The essence of the system is the payment of an advance to the prospective labourer in order to enable him to free himself from his pecuniary difficulties. The contractor retains some form of control over his recruits and takes good care to recover the amount of the advance together with the interest, which is generally calculated at an exorbitant rate. Generally, the employers do not deal directly with the labourers recruited by a contractor. The latter is paid a lump sum, from which he pays his men and retains a portion for himself. In the Central Provinces, however, it is reported that labour is actually purchased\* from private contractors at so much per head. The system of recruitment by contractors is most in use in Burma† owing to the scarcity of labour in that province and the necessity of recruitment from distant places. Practically all the unskilled labourers in most of the mills in Burma are *maistry coolies*, i.e., coolies who are recruited and paid by the employers' labour contractors or maistries. The general practice is for the employer to enter into a contract with a maistry for the supply of unskilled labour for the various operations carried on in the mills. In most contracts no mention is made of the number of workmen required; the maistry agrees to supply labour as and when required at the piece-rates laid down in the contract. Sometimes the contractor sublets his contract to another person, who may even be unknown to the employer. The person who arranges for the supply of labour at the mills is known as the head maistry, and the work is executed through sub-maistries, who pay premia to the head maistry for the privilege of getting the work. It is the sub-maistries who either themselves come to India or send their agents to negotiate with prospective recruits. They make the necessary advances and on arrival in Burma their recruits are made to sign promissory notes for sums never less than the total amount spent on them.

The payment of advances has become somewhat risky since the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act and the system of recruitment through contractors is, therefore, gradually losing its importance. An increasing number of Indians come to Burma on their own and seek employment independently of maistries. Generally, they form themselves into gangs, each of which nominates a leader from among its members. The gang moves about in search of work and its leader usually arrives at an arrangement with a head maistry by which the latter secures work for the gang and pays what is known as *bucksheesh*, which is first given as a loan but is eventually treated as a gift if the gang remains in service under the head maistry until the close of the busy season. These *bucksheesh* coolies are paid at the same rates as the coolies recruited from India.

(ii) *Recruitment through Sardars.*—This method of recruitment is also dependent on the payment of advances, which, however, are made at the cost of the employer. The Sardar is an operative already on work in the mill or plantation and is sent out to recruit labour from among his relations, acquaintances or neighbours. He is drawn, therefore, from the same class as the recruits themselves and can therefore be relied on to deal more fairly with them. Another advantage of this system of recruitment is that the men recruited are insured against unemployment and find work waiting for them at their destination. It is, however, only in plantations that this form of recruitment has been used to any appreciable extent.

(iii) *Recruitment at the mill-gate.*—The recruitment of labour at the mill-gate or at the surface of mines is the form of recruitment which is gradually gaining in importance over the other two methods. The news of the very much higher rates of wages paid in towns (which to the villager sounds fabulous as he has no idea of the higher cost of living) spreads throughout the countryside and draws large crowds

\* Census Report, Vol. XI, Part I, pages 173-174.

† Report of an enquiry into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, by J. J. Bannison, B.A., I.C.S., pages 74 *et seq.*

of would-be workers. They are to be found at convenient gathering places on the thoroughfares waiting to be picked up for employment. The older hands also return from their village with groups of friends, relations and neighbours, who come in the hope of finding employment in the mills. But the ignorance, simplicity and poverty of the Indian peasant renders his exploitation an easy matter. The employer does not recruit himself the men required for his establishment but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear, therefore, that education and organization are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who, like harpies, are ever ready to prey on them.

*Absenteeism and Labour Turnover.*—A complaint which has been made against Indian workers ever since the rise of the factory system is their frequent absence from work and their high turnover rate. The migratory character of Indian labour is no doubt largely responsible for this, but sickness and the unhealthy conditions in which the workers live also play an important part. The Factory Labour Commission of 1907 made an enquiry into the number of absent workers and came to the conclusion that the average worker took two days off every month and a further holiday of from three to seven weeks every year. In addition, he receives the weekly holiday and from four to ten Indian holidays during the year. The only recent figures of absence from work are those given in the Bombay Labour Gazette for the textile mills in Bombay Presidency, in Bombay City, Ahmedabad and Sholapur. These figures are shown in the statement on page 168, and it will be observed that there are no signs of improvement in the regularity of attendance of the mill hands. The percentage of absenteeism shows a seasonal variation and is, generally speaking, highest in the monsoon months and the festival and marriage seasons. The very much smaller percentage of absenteeism in Ahmedabad is due to the fact that the mill operatives are mostly drawn from an industrial population which has been settled in the city for generations. The high percentage of absenteeism in Bombay necessitates the employment of an inefficient substitute who is known as a "badli." The Textile Tariff Board dealt with the question of absenteeism in Bombay and suggested the employment of spare hands in each department except the weaving department.\*

No statistical or other data are available regarding the extent of the labour turnover in Indian industries, but there can be no doubt that the rate of labour turnover in India is considerably higher than in other industrial countries. In his evidence before the Factory Labour Commission of 1907 the Manager of an Ahmedabad Mill stated—

"Hands are continually changing. Out of 450 one year only 50 remained in the mill during the second year."

The remedy would appear to lie not only in the proper selection of employees and their proper placement, but also in the improvement of the conditions of employment, as unhealthy surroundings combined with low wages and a low standard of living undoubtedly levy a heavy toll from the Indian industrial population.

*The Main Characteristics of Indian Labour.*—It may be convenient here to summarise the main characteristics of the average Indian worker. He is an agriculturist who is compelled by circumstances to forsake agriculture and to take to industrial employment. He is unwilling to sever his agricultural connection and is therefore migratory in his habits. When he enters industrial employment the Indian workman is the proverbial square peg in a round hole and finds it difficult to adapt himself to his new surroundings. He is illiterate and badly organized and, living from hand to mouth, has an extremely low power of resistance. As he is recruited from the lower castes he is also generally meek and submissive, but an important change has come over him in this respect since the Great War. The increasing contact between villages and towns and the return of the soldiers from the battlefields of the West has disturbed the placid contentment of the Indian peasant. The Indian worker has not escaped from the economic and the political influences which have come into play since the War, and he has now learnt to realize the importance of the weapon of the strike. His wages and his standard of living are still very low, at least according to Western standards, and it is generally believed that, owing to his inefficiency, his labour is not in the long run cheap. But as against this view is the recent statement made by the Manager of General Motors, Limited, Bombay, that "the average Indian workman's ability and intelligence is as good as in other countries and that he can adapt himself to any new methods and conditions of work."

\* Para. 60 of the Report.

**Note on the Apprentices Act, 1850.**

As early as 1850 an Act was passed "for better enabling children, and especially orphans and poor children brought up by public charity, to learn trades, crafts and employments, by which, when they come to full age, they may gain a livelihood." This Act was originally intended to apply to European orphans from military orphanages and the like. Some of its provisions are hardly applicable to modern conditions and in 1922, when the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (XXI of 1923) was under consideration, an enquiry was made from local governments as to whether any useful purpose was being served by this Act. Excluding the Government of Bombay, all local governments were in favour of its repeal on the ground that the Act had become an obsolete measure. The Government of Bombay, however, objected to its repeal as it was being used for the apprenticeship of seamen and for the purposes of reformatory institutions and was likely to be availed of for child welfare work. The Government of the Punjab, whilst agreeing to the repeal of the Act, pointed out that with the development of Indian industries it may be necessary in the near future to enact some similar law. In view of the opposition of the Government of Bombay, the Act was not repealed, but the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (XXI of 1923) repealed the provisions relating to the apprenticing of boys for sea service.

TABLE I.—Inter-Provincial Migration, 1911 and 1921.

Province or state.	1921.			1911.			Variation, 1911-1921.	
	Net gain or loss.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Net gain or loss.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.
<i>Provinces or states which gain—</i>								
Assam .. .. .	+ 1,140,752	1,216,861	75,909	+ 757,379	831,118	73,739	+ 385,543	+ 2,170
Bengal .. .. .	+ 1,132,194	1,817,775	685,581	+ 1,286,429	1,839,016	552,587	- 21,241	+ 132,994
Burma .. .. .	+ 553,471	572,530	18,059	+ 481,046	493,699	12,653	+ 78,831	+ 6,406
Bombay .. .. .	+ 472,023	1,039,622	567,599	+ 349,586	952,552	602,966	+ 87,070	- 35,367
Mysore .. .. .	+ 210,064	309,850	99,786	+ 176,945	308,202	131,257	+ 1,648	- 31,471
Central Provinces and Berar ..	+ 197,323	603,924	406,601	+ 428,552	743,067	314,515	- 139,143	+ 92,086
Punjab and Delhi .. .. .	+ 174,101	674,395	500,294	+ 101,779	605,952	504,173	+ 68,443	- 3,879
Ajmer-Merwara .. .. .	+ 66,033	108,452	42,419	+ 11,002	95,112	84,110	+ 13,340	- 41,691
Central India and Gwalior ..	+ 58,688	521,679	462,991	- 65,456	470,391	535,847	+ 51,288	- 72,856
North-West Frontier Province	+ 50,835	118,395	67,560	+ 15,422	82,139	66,717	+ 36,256	+ 843
Travancore .. .. .	+ 49,732	71,973	22,241	+ 34,343	60,613	26,270	+ 11,360	- 4,029
Coorg .. .. .	+ 30,988	33,838	2,850	+ 41,569	45,427	3,858	- 11,589	- 1,008
Cochin .. .. .	+ 15,792	39,689	23,897	+ 26,809	47,190	20,381	- 7,501	+ 3,516
Andamans and Nicobars .. .	+ 14,080	14,396	316	+ 13,152	14,119	967	+ 277	- 651
Baroda .. .. .	+ 10,674	231,880	221,206	- 13,096	222,427	235,523	+ 9,453	- 14,317
Baluchistan .. .. .	+ 5,924	66,166	60,242	- 33,722	42,309	76,031	+ 23,857	- 15,789
<i>Provinces or states which lose—</i>								
Bihar and Orissa .. .. .	- 1,567,968	387,068	1,955,036	- 1,491,125	409,908	1,901,033	- 22,840	+ 54,003
United Provinces .. .. .	- 974,642	425,152	1,399,794	- 818,242	590,414	1,408,656	- 165,262	- 8,862
Madras .. .. .	- 718,183	196,609	914,792	- 585,993	238,730	824,723	- 42,121	+ 90,069
Rajputana .. .. .	- 625,650	242,243	867,893	- 553,136	302,489	855,625	- 60,246	+ 12,268
Hyderabad .. .. .	- 166,326	197,127	363,453	- 53,155	253,117	306,272	- 55,990	+ 57,181
Kashmir .. .. .	- 22,685	61,561	84,246	- 7,534	74,397	81,931	- 12,836	+ 2,315
Sikkim .. .. .	- 2,297	1,836	4,133	+ 363	3,808	3,445	- 1,972	+ 688

*Note.*—The figures for provinces include those for the states attached to them, except in the case of Madras, where they exclude Cochin and Travancore. The figures in columns 3 and 6 include immigrants from French and Portuguese possessions and those Indians whose birthplace was not specified.



TABLE II.—Showing average Absenteeism (i.e., the percentage of the number of working days not worked to the number of working days in the month) in the Textile Mills in (1) Bombay Presidency, (2) Bombay City, (3) Ahmedabad and (4) Sholapur, during the years 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928 and 1929.

Month.	Bombay Presidency.				Bombay City.					Ahmedabad.					Sholapur.				
	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
January .. .. .	—	7.33	8.14	7.06	11.8	9.8	8.11	8.53	8.67	2.5	2.5	1.85	3.72	3.65	7.5	13.8	11.72	13.84	15.79
February .. .. .	—	7.34	8.76	11.05	12.1	9.62	7.72	9.28	*13.71	2.7	1.9	1.68	3.86	3.45	13.8	14.1	13.23	14.66	14.80
March .. .. .	—	8.11	8.70	—	12.2	9.9	9.05	8.92	—	2.9	2.5	1.83	4.53	—	16.3	16.2	12.91	14.93	—
April .. .. .	—	8.58	8.27	—	10.7	11.1	8.91	9.31	—	2.6	2.0	2.47	4.63	—	14.1	16.4	14.73	12.67	—
May .. .. .	—	8.31	—	—	11.7	14.1	8.84	—	—	2.3	2.3	2.18	4.62	—	13.4	17.1	15.53	13.53	—
June .. .. .	9.28	7.48	General Strike.	—	11.7	11.13	7.85	General Strike.	—	2.7	2.54	2.23	3.81	—	5.8	15.5	13.74	10.44	—
July .. .. .	9.79	7.99		—	12.8	10.38	8.36		—	3.3	2.35	2.99	3.49	—	9.0	14.11	12.58	↑	—
August .. .. .	9.75	7.35		—	14.8	11.06	7.68		—	3.2	2.87	2.56	3.66	—	11.1	11.89	12.39	14.37	—
September .. .. .	10.89	8.90		—	16.7	12.66	9.40		—	3.1	3.14	4.20	3.68	—	10.7	12.77	12.07	15.88	—
October .. .. .	11.24	9.01		—	‡	12.25	9.40		—	4.1	2.74	5.00	3.86	—	11.4	14.48	12.39	15.80	—
November .. .. .	9.22	8.74	8.64	—	‡	9.77	9.19	9.37	—	2.7	2.34	5.13	3.88	—	12.6	15.06	12.59	14.63	—
December .. .. .	8.36	7.77	7.25	—	23.3	9.14	7.91	6.88	—	3.6	2.15	4.30	3.84	—	12.1	13.66	12.97	15.44	—
Total .. .. .	—	86.91	49.76	18.11	137.8	130.91	102.42	52.29	20.38	35.7	29.33	36.42	47.58	7.1	137.8	175.07	156.85	156.19	30.59
Average per month ..	—	8.08	8.29	9.06	13.78	10.91	8.54	8.71	10.19	2.88	2.44	3.04	3.97	3.55	11.48	14.59	13.07	14.2	15.30

\* This high figure was due to the riots. † Owing to an industrial dispute no figures are available.  
 ‡ Owing to the general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay no figures are available for these months.

### Chapter III. Recruitment for Assam.

It has been shown in the preceding chapter that there is a considerable flow of labour from distant parts of the country to the industrial centres and plantations. The mobility of labour is of considerable advantage to the agricultural population, as it helps to relieve the increasing pressure on the land. In India the movement of labour between province and province is entirely unrestricted by Government with the solitary exception of the movement of labour from certain provinces to eight districts in Assam, viz., Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong, Darrang, Kamrup, Goalpara, Cachar and Sylhet. These districts are known as labour districts and under the Assam Labour and Emigration Act No. VI of 1901, as amended by Act. VI. of 1908 and Act VIII of 1915, the provinces of Madras, Bengal, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam can, by notification in the local official Gazette, "prohibit all persons from recruiting, engaging, inducing or assisting any native of India, or any specified class of natives of India, to emigrate from the whole or any specified part of the province to any labour-district or any specified portion of any labour-district, either absolutely or otherwise than in accordance with such of the provisions of the Act as may be specified."\* Other local Governments can also, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, extend the provisions of the Act to the whole or any specified portion of their territories. Any person who knowingly recruits, engages, induces, or assists, or attempts to recruit, engage, induce or assist any person to emigrate in contravention of any of the provisions of this Act or of any notification for the time being in force thereunder, is punishable with imprisonment or fine or with both. There are two points in connection with this Act which it is necessary to bear in mind. In the first place, the restrictions imposed by the Act apply to *all* labour migrating to the labour-districts and not only to labour migrating to the tea gardens in the labour districts. It is true that most of the immigration into Assam is to the tea gardens, but it would be a mistake to suppose that other industries are not affected. In 1924 a protest was received from a sugar factory in Kamrup against the "strangling" of the industry by the Act. In the second place, the Act does not impose any restriction on the movement of labour to the labour-districts without outside assistance or inducement: it deals with "assisted" emigration and also with inducement to emigrate otherwise than in accordance with the provisions of the Act or any notification for the time being in force thereunder.

*Extent to which restrictions have been imposed in the Provinces.*—The chief provinces from which labourers are recruited for the Assam gardens are Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, the United Provinces and Madras. In Bengal and the Central Provinces no areas have been closed to recruitment. In Bihar and Orissa recruitment has been prohibited only in the Khondmals sub-division of the Angul District, but in the rest of the province recruitment is permissible only in accordance with the provisions of the Act. In the United Provinces, recruitment under the Act is permitted only in five divisions, viz., Gorakhpur, Benares, Fyzabad, Jhansi and Allahabad (excluding the districts of Etawah and Farrukhabad). The remainder of the province is entirely closed to recruitment for Assam. The Royal Commission on Agriculture† was unable to find any justification for this prohibition and recommended its immediate withdrawal, but no action has yet been taken by the local Government. In Madras the agency tracts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godaveri were closed to recruitment up to the year 1915 and recruitment in accordance with the provisions of the Act was allowed in six districts, viz., Kistna, Guntur, Nellore and the non-agency tracts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godaveri. The Act did not apply to the rest of the presidency. Early in 1916 the local Government extended the Act to the other districts and prohibited absolutely the recruitment for Assam from those districts. In 1923, however, the local Government changed its policy altogether and removed all restrictions as regards castes and areas. The result is that since that date the whole province has been thrown open to recruitment in accordance with the provisions of the Act. A part of the labour force for the labour-districts in Assam is also recruited from the Feudatory States in Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, but in some cases (e.g., Bastar in the Central Provinces) recruitment is totally prohibited by the Chief. In this connection, it may be mentioned that the restrictions imposed by the Act are applicable to emigrants who proceed from an Indian State into a territory in British India to which the Act has been applied and depart therefrom for Assam. Recently efforts have also been made by the tea industry to obtain recruits from the Bombay Presidency. As the Act has not been extended to this province, there are no restrictions on recruitment, but the efforts of the tea industry have so far met with little success.

\* Section 3 of the Act.

† Para. 508 of the Report.

*The Changes made in Act VI of 1901.*—The policy underlying Act VI of 1901 was to prevent fraud and misrepresentation in recruitment, to provide for adequate facilities during transport, and also to secure satisfactory conditions of employment in the labour-districts. But the enforcement of this policy, without compensatory advantages, would have been resented by the tea industry as it would undoubtedly have raised the cost of importing labour to Assam. Government therefore decided that, in return for the protection afforded to the labourer, legislation should also protect the employer against loss caused by the desertion of the labourer. Thus the law, whilst providing for a minimum wage for the labourer and securing him other facilities, e.g., medical attendance, housing, water-supply, sanitary arrangements and the supply of rice at cheap rates, also provided for criminal penalties for desertion and gave the employer the right to arrest an absconder without warrant. Service in Assam, was, however, becoming increasingly unpopular and it was soon apparent that the main cause of this unpopularity was the penal contract and the right of private arrest which was enjoyed by the employers. An important feature of Act VI of 1901 was that it contained within itself the seeds of its own decay. Under Section 221 of the Act the Government of Assam, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, can, by notification, declare that any labour-district or local area shall cease to be subject to all the provisions or any specified provision of the Act, whilst under Section 91 any local Government can, by notification, dispense with or relax, on such conditions as it may prescribe, any of the requirements of the Act relating to recruitment. In accordance with the recommendation of a Committee of Enquiry which submitted its report in 1906, the Government of Assam in January, 1908, issued a notification the main effect of which was the withdrawal of the right of private arrest. In the same year the penal provisions for breach of contract were also withdrawn by notification from four out of the eight labour-districts, viz., Goalpara, Kamrup, Cachar and Sylhet. In 1915 the penal provisions were withdrawn from the remaining four labour-districts, and an Amending Act was passed under which the system of recruitment by contractors and uncertified garden sardars was abolished, and a Labour Board for the supervision of local agents and of the recruitment, engagement and emigration to labour-districts of natives of India under the Act was constituted. It will thus be seen that, in addition to the radical changes made by the amending Act of 1915, important provisions of Act VI of 1901 have become inoperative by means of notification. The Act now contains much "dead wood" and its provisions are so disjointed as to be almost impossible of comprehension or interpretation.

*The existing System of Recruitment.*—Since 1915 the only recognized method of recruitment is through the agency of garden sardars, who must be persons employed on an estate and deputed by their employer to engage recruits. A dual control is exercised over their activities. In the first place, the control is local and is exercised by the district authorities of the recruiting districts. The garden sardar has to obtain a certificate from his employer which must be officially countersigned in the district of employment. The Act also requires the countersignature of this certificate by the district magistrate in the recruiting districts, but all the local governments concerned have, by notification, dispensed with this requirement of the law. The local governments have, however, made it a condition that in the recruiting district garden sardars must work under the control of local agents, who are the representatives of the employers but licensed under the Act. There are detailed provisions in the Act governing the procedure to be adopted in recruiting and forwarding labourers but most of these provisions, e.g., the production of labourers before a registering officer, have been dispensed with by local governments in exercise of their powers under Section 91 of the Act. The local governments concerned have also framed rules under this section relating generally to the supervision of recruitment, provision of accommodation and maintenance of registers by local agents, production by them on demand of emigrants before magistrates or police officers, reporting of cases in which objections have been raised to the emigration of a recruit by the husband or wife, parent or lawful guardian of the recruit. The penalty for failure to comply with the effective provisions of the Act or the rules framed thereunder and for inadequate supervision is the cancellation of the licence of the local agent. A garden sardar can also be prosecuted and imprisoned if he recruits emigrants without a proper certificate or independently of a local agent. Further, any person taking part in recruiting in contravention of the Act is liable to imprisonment. The local control over recruitment cannot, however, be regarded as an absolute safeguard against abuses. Every recruit is not required to be produced before the official authority in the recruiting district, and for the discovery of cases of illegal recruitment reliance has to be placed on local agents, who are not officials but representatives of the employers. The local agent has, in fact, to serve two masters; he is required to look after the interests of his employer, but he is also responsible for his actions to the district magistrate who can cancel his licence. The amending Act of 1915

supplemented this local control by a central control which was exercised by the newly constituted Assam Labour Board. The composition and working of this Board are dealt with in the following paragraph.

*Composition and Working of the Assam Labour Board.*—The Assam Labour Board consists of an official chairman and 15 representatives of the tea industry, who are elected as follows :—(a) Eight by the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, as representatives of that Association, and of the Indian Tea Association, London ; (b) four by the Assam Branch, Indian Tea Association ; and (c) three by the Surma Valley Branch, Indian Tea Association.

The Board has an executive committee, consisting of the chairman and four members representing the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, the Indian Tea Association, London, the Assam Branch of the Indian Tea Association and the Surma Valley Branch of the Indian Tea Association, respectively. Under the Board there are supervisors, whose powers and duties are laid down in the Assam Labour Board Rules, framed under Section 116F (2) (e) of the Act. At present, there are three supervisors who are stationed at Ranchi, Raipur, and Waltair. The expenses of the Board and its supervisors are met out of a cess payable on garden sardars and emigrants. The main feature of the Board is that it is predominantly an employers' organization maintained almost entirely by a cess levied from employers. Although the Act covers various industries in the labour districts, representation on the Board is confined to the tea industry. The main function of the Board is to supervise the whole system of recruitment with a view to the prevention of irregularities. It is also responsible for the supervision of local agents. The function of the Board is merely to bring the irregularities to the notice of the local authority for necessary action, and neither the Board nor its supervisors can undertake the prosecution of an offender. All the members of the Board, excluding the chairman, are directly interested in seeing that the industry does not suffer from lack of labour, and the chairman must be under considerable pressure to adopt the same point of view. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that there exists in the minds of some people the mistaken impression that the Board is a recruiting agency. The Board is also not directly concerned with the conditions of labour in Assam. The provisions of the Act dealing with a minimum wage, housing and hospital accommodation, etc., though still unrepealed, are now inoperative owing to the withdrawal by notification of the provisions relating to labour contracts.

*Defects of the Existing System.*—Doubts have been expressed as to the validity of the provisions of the existing Act, and in 1926 it was necessary to undertake the amendment of Section 116E in order to validate the imposition of the cess. The main difficulty with the Act arises out of the fact that most of its provisions refer to "labourers," i.e., persons bound by a labour contract, although such contracts are no longer in existence. Nevertheless, it may be stated that the Act has on the whole been successful in holding in check the grave abuses which were formerly associated with the recruitment of labour for the tea gardens in Assam. The *arkatti* of old (i.e., the professional recruiter), though he frequently raises his head, is promptly suppressed. The credit for this is undoubtedly due to the tea industry, which is genuinely endeavouring to set its house in order. The successful working of the Act depends on co-operation between the central and local control, i.e., between the Assam Labour Board and the District Magistrates of the recruiting districts. The link between the two forms of control is the local agent who is, as has been stated previously, the representative of the employer and not an official. It is the co-operation of the industry which has strengthened this link and made it an efficient factor in the suppression of the abuses connected with recruitment.

So long as no difficulty was experienced in securing recruits for Assam no complaint was raised by the industry, but the recruiting areas are gradually becoming dry owing to the competition for labour by other industries, e.g., the coal and steel industry in Bihar and Orissa, the jute and other industries in Bengal, and the textile industry in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The wages paid in the tea gardens are not attractive enough when compared with the wages paid by other industries, and it is very difficult to convince intending emigrants of the value of the concessions which are allowed in the Assam gardens. Another difficulty in connection with the recruitment for Assam is the uncertainty whether a labourer will ever be able to return to his home. The difficulties which have arisen in connection with recruitment have led the tea industry to protest against the restrictions imposed by the Act which have no parallel in other parts of India. It has been pointed out that the sardari system of recruitment, which is the only system of recruitment recognized by the Act, is not suitable for newly opened areas. This was a real difficulty when the whole of Madras was opened to recruitment under the Act. There were then very few Madrasis in employment in the tea estates, and it was, therefore, exceedingly

difficult to find suitable garden sardars who could be sent to this province for recruitment. In order to promote recruitment, managers of tea gardens have sometimes visited the recruiting areas and carried on an extensive propaganda in the villages. But one local government has drawn the attention of the industry to the fact that such propaganda would come within the mischief of Section 164 of the Act. The complaint of the industry against the restrictions imposed by the Act would have been very much louder but for the fear that if a revision of the Act comes before the Legislature it is more probable that additional restrictions would be imposed than greater facilities given. Recruitment for Assam has always been regarded with disfavour by Indian public opinion and the attitude of the Legislature has been anything but friendly towards the industry.\* This is partly due to the mystery which generally surrounds the tea gardens in Assam which are difficult of access and also partly to the low wages paid.

*Need for the Retention of Control.*—"Free emigration" from one province to another has always been the ideal which the Government of India have kept in view and the whole position in connection with the recruitment for Assam was reviewed in 1926. Assam was no longer the inaccessible country which it used to be and it was difficult to justify its being treated differently to the Dooars, where no restrictions are imposed. Further, there is a large volume of "assisted" emigration from India to Burma which is entirely uncontrolled by Government. In a circular letter which was addressed to local governments, the question was put to them whether it was still necessary to maintain any form of control over recruitment for Assam. It was pointed out that, with the abolition of penal contracts, the growth of public opinion, the greater sophistication of the labourers themselves and the improvement of the communications resulting in the reduction in duration of the journey to Assam, the restrictions imposed by the Act might now be withdrawn without the risk of the recrudescence of the abuses which had made legislation necessary. All the local governments concerned, including the Government of Assam, were, however, unanimously of opinion that the time had not yet come for the withdrawal of control. This view was shared by the chairman of the Assam Labour Board, and was also acquiesced in by the Indian Tea Association, which, however, pleaded for the relaxation of control. The replies of the local governments indicated that the persons who were recruited were still unsophisticated, that in spite of the improvement of the communications to Assam they were still liable to be left stranded in a strange country, unless measures were taken to prevent fraud and misrepresentation, and that in spite of the abolition of penal contracts, labour in Assam was weak and helpless. The chairman of the Assam Labour Board recently, in order to support the view that the retention of central as well as local control was necessary, cited a case in which a boy had disappeared suddenly from his home in Gaya district (Bihar) and was discovered in a tea garden in Sylhet.† An investigation into this case led to the revelation that illegal recruitment was being carried on by *arkhattis*, whose policy, as was apparent from papers in their possession, was to take young unmarried girls to Assam and to pair them with single male labourers in order that the latter may settle down permanently in the tea gardens.

*The Provisional Proposals of the Government of India.*—In view of this unanimity of opinion, the Government of India came to the conclusion that it would not be wise to remove all control over recruitment for Assam. But they were satisfied that the existing restrictions by which recruitment was limited to only one method, viz., through the agency of garden sardars, placed an unduly heavy burden on the industry. They, therefore, considered that it would be necessary to repeal the existing Act and to replace it by a comparatively simpler measure. Their proposals were embodied in a draft bill‡ which was circulated to local governments with letter No. L.1266, dated the 3rd December, 1928. The main principles underlying these proposals are briefly as follows:—

- (i) Recruitment may be made either through garden sardars (as at present) or through licensed recruiters.
- (ii) Both garden sardars and recruiters to be subject to local control, i.e., the control exercised by the district authorities in the recruiting districts.
- (iii) The extent of local control to be left to the discretion of the local governments concerned.
- (iv) Local governments are not to be empowered to prohibit recruitment absolutely.

\* Legislative Assembly Debates, Vol. I—No. 26, dated 11th March, 1929, pages 1672-1677; No. 32, dated 19th March, 1929, pages 2140-2144; No. 33, dated 20th March, 1929, page 2216; No. 33, dated 20th March, 1929, pages 2224-2228; No. 34, dated 21st March, 1929, page 2305.

† The case is at present *sub judice*.

‡ Appendix I.

(v) Where necessary and subject to the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, a local government may, by notification in respect of the whole province or of particular areas, prohibit recruitment through recruiters. In such cases the only recognized method of recruitment would be through the agency of garden sardars.

(vi) No control to be exercised over the transport of emigrants.

(vii) The restrictions to apply only to the tea plantations in Assam, but the Governor-General in Council may extend these restrictions to other industries.

(viii) No penalty to be imposed for mere inducement to emigrate, if no tangible assistance has been given.

(ix) Central control to be exercised by the Assam Labour Board as at present, but the constitution of the Board to be revised so as to give the employers and labourers equal representation. The Board would consist of an official chairman, four representatives of the tea industry, and four persons nominated by the Governments of Madras, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and the Central Provinces, to represent the interests of the labourers.

The measure proposed by the Government was a recruiting measure pure and simple. It did not attempt to regulate the conditions of employment in Assam. The proposals of the Government of India, except with regard to the revision of the constitution of the Assam Labour Board, were generally accepted both by the tea industry and by the local governments concerned. The proposal for the revision of the constitution of the Assam Labour Board was, however, regarded "with feelings of dismay" by the Indian Tea Association, and the Government of Bihar and Orissa (which is the province most concerned with the recruitment for Assam) was also strongly of opinion that the representation of labour would "quite probably paralyse the united working of the Board." The Government of the Central Provinces was the only local government which accepted the proposed revision of the constitution of the Board without demur. The possible courses open to Government were:—(1) To continue the Board as at present (this was desired by the tea industry); (2) to include official representatives of the local governments mainly concerned (this was suggested by the Government of Bihar and Orissa and not objected to by the industry); (3) to include representatives of labour on the Board, as suggested by the Government of India; (4) to abolish the Board altogether and to retain no central control (this is what the industry would desire if (1) or (2) is unacceptable); (5) to abolish the Board and to establish a purely official authority in its place, which would preserve central control over recruitment and insure co-ordination between the different local authorities.

It is very doubtful if the first or the second course would commend itself to the Legislature, and it would be difficult to find valid reasons to justify the exclusion of the representatives of labourers from the Board. On the other hand, as the successful working of the Board depends on the whole-hearted co-operation of the industry, it is hardly feasible to adopt the third alternative in the teeth of the opposition from the industry. In the opinion of the chairman of the Assam Labour Board, the adoption of the fourth alternative would be dangerous as local control is not by itself adequate to prevent abuses. In view of the attitude taken by the tea industry, it appears that the only feasible course would be to abolish the Board and to set up a purely official executive agency in its place. This, however, is not regarded with favour by the Government of Bihar and Orissa, which considers that it would be a definitely retrograde step, as it would not admit of progressive delegation of control to the industry, and would thus postpone indefinitely the ultimate removal of all restrictions, which has all along been the ideal aimed at by the Government of India.

In view of the fact that the conditions of labour in the tea gardens, including problems connected with the recruitment, will come within the purview of the Royal Commission on Labour, the Government of India have decided not to proceed with their proposals for the revision of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, until the matter has been investigated by the Commission. Act VI of 1901 has thus received a slightly longer lease of life.

#### Chapter IV.—Unemployment.

*The Nature of the Problem in India.*—The problem of unemployment in India is in its main features quite different from the problem which has arisen in western countries since the post-war depression in industry. Seventy per cent. of the population of this country is entirely dependent on agriculture, and, as has been shown in a previous chapter, the majority of industrial workers regard work in a factory or mine as a supplementary occupation, which is taken up during the slack agricultural season. In India the number of landless labourers, who rely solely on industrial employment for their means of livelihood, is comparatively small and, in view of the scarcity of labour to which reference has already been made, it may be stated as a general proposition that unemployment, as it is understood in the west, does not exist.

It would, however, be a mistake to suppose that there is no unemployment in India. Owing to the increasing pressure of the population on the land and also to the nature of agricultural operations, there are periods during which the bulk of the population in most parts of the country have no employment, either agricultural or industrial. The average cultivator does not work on his land throughout the year, and it has been estimated that the total number of his working days in the year is seldom more than 190. The problem in India is, therefore, to find suitable spare-time occupation for the bulk of the population. As stated by Mr. Darling, "the only way in which a small farmer can keep himself out of debt is by being frugal and industrious and by having a second string to his bow."\* Depression in trade and industry does, therefore, deprive the agriculturist of an opportunity of finding a spare-time occupation and thus increases the pressure on the land, which is already unable to support the growing population of the country. Fortunately for India the demand for labour in industries and plantations is still considerably in excess of the supply and industrial depression has not, therefore, the same terrors for the Indian worker as it has for the worker in the west.

By far the most serious form of unemployment to which India is liable is that which arises out of a partial or total failure of the monsoon. The scarcity or famine which is caused thereby deprives the population of wide areas of their principal source of living. Formerly a famine meant an absolute lack of food, but, with the improvement of the means of communication and transport, a famine is now more a temporary dislocation of employment due to the failure of the crops than a food famine. The solution of the famine problem is, therefore, to provide employment for those against whom nature has declared a temporary lock-out. The seriousness of famines was fully recognized by Government, and no less than three Commissions were appointed to consider the action which should be taken. It is not necessary here to refer to the nature of the organization which has been set up by Government for famine relief, but it may be stated that these visitations of nature have now been brought more effectively under human control than ever before in the history of India. The efficacy of this organization was proved by the comparative ease with which the people were able to stand the strain of the severe famine conditions of 1918.

*India and the Washington Convention.*—The consideration of the question of industrial unemployment was thrust upon the Government of India by the Washington Convention, which was adopted by the First International Labour Conference in 1919. Each member ratifying this Convention was required (i) to communicate to the International Labour Office all information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment; (ii) to establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of the central authority, and to appoint committees, including representatives of employers and workers, to advise on matters concerning the operation of these agencies; (iii) where systems of insurance against unemployment have been established, to make arrangements, upon terms to be agreed upon between the members concerned, whereby workers belonging to one member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those of the latter.

In addition to this Convention the First International Labour Conference also adopted a recommendation, which advocated (a) the abolition of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit; (b) the establishment of an effective system of unemployment insurance; and (c) the execution of public works as far as practicable during periods of unemployment and in districts most affected by it.

The Draft Convention was ratified by India but, in communicating this ratification, the Secretary of State for India found it necessary "in order to avoid subsequent misunderstanding" to explain at some length the peculiar position of India in this matter as given in the following extract from the despatch† which was received from the Government of India:—

"The provisions included in the Draft Convention concerning unemployment require the regular furnishing of all available information regarding unemployment and the creation of free public employment agencies with representatives of employers and of workers to advise regarding their operation. In the present unorganized state of Indian labour it would be impossible to furnish returns of the kind expected in western countries, where labour is fully organized; though information of a general nature could doubtless be given regarding wages and demand for labour, and regarding famine measures. The creation of free public employment agencies

\* "The Punjab Peasant in Prosperity and Debt," by M. L. Darling, page 280.

† Despatch to H.M.'s Secretary of State for India, No. 16—Industries, dated the 25th November, 1920.

in India has hitherto been thought unnecessary, since the demand for industrial labour has for long exceeded the supply, and the unemployment of agricultural labour is unknown in ordinary seasons, although in a few congested areas wages remain relatively low owing to the outside demand for industrial labour failing to reach these areas effectively. Here we think that the institution of unemployment agencies might facilitate migration to areas where the demand for industrial labour is never fully met. But when serious injury is caused to agriculture by seasonal calamities, we find it necessary to go much further than merely giving applicants information of existing openings for employment; we provide actual employment or other suitable relief for those who need it and provide an agency for searching them out. Our famine organization, as is well known, is devised to deal with unemployment on a most extensive scale. Although this organization is only called into active operation when the need arises, and works for the most part through the agency of Government officials who are entrusted also with other duties, yet every province of India has an elaborate famine code, which has been progressively improved in the light of past experience; the officers who have to work under it, should need arise, are familiar with its provisions, and the experience of many years past has shown that this organization is capable of dealing economically with unemployment on a scale for which few western countries could show a parallel. It is true that unemployment in the strict sense in India under any conditions that can be foreseen must arise only from one cause, that of serious and widespread injury to agriculture; and when this occurs, ordinary unemployment agencies would not meet the emergency. But our famine organization deals not only with the agriculturist and the agricultural labourer, but with the village artisan whose livelihood depends on the custom of the agriculturists. We not only provide employment for labourers thrown out of work, but for the small cultivator who has been deprived of the crops of the season; and so far as possible, we place him in a position by an extensive system of loans on specially easy terms and, if necessary, by other measures, to cultivate his fields when the famine season closes. The organization is thus in effect a famine prevention system designed to prevent shortage in the year following actual failure of the crops. In view of the fact that our industrial labour is almost entirely recruited from rural tracts, the only circumstance that is likely to overstock the industrial labour market at any time is the agricultural unemployment due to famine, and our machinery for the relief of famine thus largely helps to maintain the relatively favourable position in which industrial labour stands at present, and so far is in accordance with the policy indicated in the Convention. As we have indicated above, however, it is desirable to encourage the migration of agricultural labour from certain congested areas; and we have under consideration the desirability of creating regular public employment agencies in such cases. We have, moreover, no objection to associating these agencies, when created, with advisory bodies representative of employers and workers; and we are undertaking an examination of the possibility of collecting further information regarding unemployment. In the belief that the measures which, as explained above, we are either taking or propose to take, will constitute an effective compliance with the provisions of the Convention, we propose to recommend it to the Legislature for permission to ratify it."

The Government of India addressed local Governments and asked for their views on the following points arising out of the Draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the First International Labour Conference:—(i) Advisability of creating public employment agencies in congested areas to facilitate the migration of surplus labour to industrial areas where there is a shortage of labour. (ii) Advisability of utilizing public employment agencies in connection with recruitment for Assam. (iii) Advisability of establishing public employment agencies for the dissemination of information regarding employment during times of famine and scarcity to those in search of employment. (iv) Advisability of appointing committees representing employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of public employment agencies. (v) Advisability of abolishing or controlling employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit.

The replies of the local Governments indicated that in most provinces the demand for labour exceeded the supply, that, even in provinces from which there was a large migration of labour, no difficulty had been experienced in obtaining information with regard to the areas where labour was in demand, that the establishment of public employment agencies would serve no useful purpose, and (that such agencies might excite suspicion and be liable to be misunderstood by the people. With regard to the recruitment of labour for Assam, the local Governments concerned were agreed that any experiment on the lines suggested would be risky. On the question of the abolition of control of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit, the replies of the local Governments indicated that employment agencies of this character were practically unknown in India. In the circumstances the Government of India decided to take no further action on the draft Convention or Recommendation concerning unemployment.



*The Growth of Middle-class Unemployment.*—In recent years unemployment among the educated middle classes has been assuming alarming proportions and has attracted widespread public attention. In January, 1926, a Resolution was passed by the Legislative Assembly in the following terms :—

“ This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general, and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means ; and that the said committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible.”

Similar Resolutions were also passed in some of the local Legislative Councils. The Government of India did not consider that the appointment of a Central Committee would serve any useful purpose, but in their circular letter No. L.1373, dated 26th May, 1926,\* they drew the attention of the local Governments to the gravity of the problem of middle-class unemployment in India. As a result of the Resolutions passed by the local Councils, committees were appointed by some of the local governments. The reports of most of these committees refer almost exclusively to middle-class unemployment, but the Punjab and the Bengal committees also dealt with general unemployment. The Punjab Committee came to the conclusion that “ there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes ” ; whilst the Bengal Committee observed as follows :—

“ The labourer, if we may use the term, has not yet been divorced completely from the land, and he frequently possesses or has an interest in a small plot of land in his native place on the cultivation of which he can fall back in times of depression. Added to this, is the fact that industrial labour is still comparatively scarce in Bengal and in fact has to be imported from other provinces. The effect, therefore, of trade depressions on the industrial labourer in Bengal is so far very small.”

*Further Consideration of the Question of the Establishment of Public Employment Agencies.*—In 1926, the International Labour Office, at the instance of the Committee of Experts appointed to examine the reports furnished by the States under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, made an enquiry from the Government of India as to whether “ the recent industrial developments of India had not been such as to modify to some extent the situation which had led the Government of India in 1921 to decide in the negative the question of the establishment of employment exchanges.” The local Governments were again addressed by the Government of India and they were specifically asked to furnish information as to the extent to which unemployment occurs sporadically among particular classes of workers or is a permanent feature of any of the industries of the province. The local Governments were unanimous in the view that there had been no change in the situation since 1921, and that the necessity for the establishment of public employment agencies had not yet arisen. The Governments of Burma and Assam pointed out that the problem with them was not one of unemployment but the shortage of labour. The Government of the United Provinces pointed out that “ industry merely provides an outlet for the surplus agricultural population. It absorbs as much as it needs from the land, and in periods of trade depression returns to the land those whom it no longer requires.” The Government of Bengal referred to the reduction in the total number of employees in the jute mills due to the change from the multiple to the single-shift system, and to the depression in the coal industry. In the former case it was reported that the workers were absorbed in other industries or returned to agriculture, whilst in the coal industry the absence of unemployment was explained by the fact that only a very small percentage of miners depend solely on mining for their livelihood. In Bombay, too, the continued depression in the textile industry had resulted in the return to the land of the surplus labour population. The seasonal factories in Bombay and the Central Provinces do not give rise to any unemployment, as the workers returned to their agricultural occupations during the slack season. The importance of the agricultural connection will be apparent from the fact that, even in an important and specialized industry like the steel industry in Jamshepur the bulk of the workers returned to the land during the prolonged strike in 1928. In Madras the retrenchment in the railways led to a certain amount of unemployment, but the local Government did not consider that the volume of this unemployment was large enough to justify the establishment of public employment agencies. Recently the Commissioner of Labour for Madras tried the experiment of maintaining

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\* Appendix II.

a register of persons desiring industrial employment and another of employers looking for skilled labour. Applications were invited by advertisement in the leading papers but very few were received, and these were mostly from persons possessing few, if any, industrial qualifications.

#### Chapter V.—Housing.

*The problem of Industrial Housing.*—The conditions of housing and sanitation are largely responsible for the instability of Indian labour and its low efficiency. The housing conditions in an ordinary Indian village are far from satisfactory, but there is generally no overcrowding, and there are vast open spaces around. The strong sunshine in the daytime is nature's disinfectant, which saves the agricultural population to a large extent from the ravages of sickness and disease which, owing to the lack of proper sanitation, even now levy a heavy toll of human life in India. In the larger towns there is neither space nor sunshine between the buildings, and in the absence of adequate arrangements for sanitation, the home of the worker is apt to become a veritable death-trap from which it is only natural that he should endeavour to escape by returning whenever possible to his village. Overcrowding combined with the complete ignorance on the part of the workers of all ideas of sanitation makes the housing problem in India far more complicated than it is in the West. The conditions which prevail in various parts of the country are widely different. Where factories have been established at a distance from towns the workers are housed in surrounding villages in much the same way as agricultural labour. Here conditions approximate to those of ordinary village life, except that as a rule the small garden plot owned by villagers in many parts of India is absent. If necessary, the employer can acquire land without much difficulty, and erect dwellings which take the form of single-story lines, consisting of single-room units, with either a verandah or, in some cases, a small enclosed courtyard. The second stage of development, and consequently of congestion, is seen in cities such as Madras, Cawnpore, Nagpur, Ahmedabad, and in a very large proportion of the industrial areas round Calcutta. Here land is far cheaper than in Bombay or Calcutta, and accommodation usually consists of single-storey huts in groups known as *bustis*, erected by persons other than the owners of mills and rented by millhands on fairly reasonable terms. Housing conditions here are no longer as easy as in the villages, and require close supervision either by the millowners or by the local authority. In some cases, as at Ahmedabad and Cawnpore, the more enlightened factory owners have found it advisable to supply proper housing accommodation to the employees in the hope of commanding the "pick of the labour market."\* The accommodation provided is usually of the single-storey type, and is almost invariably in single-room units. Employers have been encouraged to provide accommodation for two reasons, first the relative cheapness of land as compared with Calcutta or Bombay, and secondly the fairly long distances between the mills, which prevents workmen accommodated in buildings belonging to one mill from working in another mill. The worst examples of congestion are to be found in parts of Calcutta and particularly in Bombay, where the evils of overcrowding and insanitary housing are to be seen in their extreme form.

*The evil effects of bad Housing in Bombay.*—Bombay affords a significant example of the evils which must inevitably arise if the problem of housing is not taken in hand during the earlier stages of industrial development. The extent of overcrowding in the mill area will be apparent from the fact that 97 per cent. of the working class families live in single rooms, and the average number of persons living in a single room is 4.03. These figures are in striking contrast with the figures for London, where only 6 per cent. of the total population live in one room tenements with an average of 1.92 persons per room.† Overcrowding in Bombay is greatly aggravated by the practice of sub-letting which is common among the industrial workers. According to the census of 1921 there were 3,125 one-room tenements in Bombay containing two families and more. Of these 1,955 contained two families, 658 three, 242 four, 136 five, 42 six, 34 seven and 58 eight families and over.

The importance of decent housing cannot be too strongly emphasized. "Good houses mean the possibility of home life, happiness and health; bad houses spell squalor, drink, disease, immorality and crime, and in the end demand hospitals, prisons and asylums in which we seek to hide away the human derelicts of society that are largely the results of society's own neglect."‡ The appalling conditions of life in the chawls make family life impossible, and have a very unsettling effect on the labour force in Bombay. Bad housing is undoubtedly one of the factors responsible

\* Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, paragraph 238.

† Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay, by G. Findlay Shirras, page 24.

‡ Quoted from "The Great Opportunity" in the Working Class Budgets, Bombay, page 25.

for industrial unrest. But the gravest and most striking evil is the heavy infant mortality in the slum areas of Bombay City. This is greatest in one-room tenements where, according to the census of 1921, it was as high as 828.5 per 1,000 registered births as against the average rate of 666.7 for Bombay and 178 for the whole Presidency. The heavy infant mortality is due to a great variety of causes such as early marriage, maternal ignorance, lack of medical care and nursing, habit of drugging the child with opium, prevalence of venereal disease, etc., but these causes operate throughout India and the exceptionally heavy death roll among infants in Bombay must be directly attributed to overcrowding and effective sanitation.\*

*Attempts to improve Housing conditions in Bombay.*—The first attempt to improve the housing conditions of the city was made after the great plague of 1896, when the heavy mortality and the great exodus which followed, paralysed the trade and industry of Bombay. The Bombay Improvement Trust was established in 1898 "for the work of making new streets, opening out crowded localities, reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the police."† Owing to its limited powers and funds, the want of co-operation with the Corporation and its inevitable unpopularity on account of the compulsory acquisition of property and demolition of buildings, the Improvement Trust had to content itself with "slum-patching," the development of a few building sites, the construction of a few *chawls* and the development of main thoroughfares. Still, it was able to do some useful work and provided 21,387 new tenements as against 24,428 tenements demolished. It constructed a number of broad thoroughfares which serve incidentally the purpose of main air channels for congested areas. The Municipality and the Port Trust also relieved, to some extent the congestion of the city by constructing a large number of quarters for their employees. But the population of Bombay was increasing so rapidly that the combined efforts of these bodies were unable to cope with the situation, particularly as very little was being done by the millowners for the housing of their employees. The Industrial Commission reviewed the position in 1918 and urged that, in addition to the scheme followed by the Improvement Trust, other measures should be adopted such as the refusal of permission, with a few exceptions, to fresh industrial concerns to be established, the setting up of a special area for industrial development, the removal of the existing railway workshops from the city, supply of housing accommodation to their employees by railways, Government departments and public bodies, improved communications with a view to creating industrial suburbs, and a definite programme of construction to be taken up by local authorities.‡ It was not, however, till the end of the war that a bold and comprehensive scheme was drawn up by the Government of Bombay under the personal inspiration of His Excellency Sir George Lloyd, for dealing with the problem. The Development Directorate was formed in November, 1920, to co-ordinate the activities of the various bodies. The programme of the Directorate was an ambitious one, and contemplated the construction of 625 *chawls* or 50,000 tenements for the working classes between 1921 and 1929. The cost was then estimated at 5.5 crores, and under the City of Bombay Municipal and Improvement Act, XX of 1920, a "town duty" of one rupee per bale of cotton was imposed on all cotton entering Bombay. This scheme was conceived during the boom period when labour conditions in Bombay were abnormal. By the end of December, 1927, the Directorate had constructed 207 *chawls* with 16,524 tenements, but only 123 *chawls* with 8,234 rooms were occupied.§ The failure of these newly constructed tenements to attract workers is attributed to the distance of the *chawls* from the mills, the absence of bazaar facilities, the cement construction, which makes the rooms warm in the hot weather and cold in the cold weather, and the high level of rents. The average economic rent works out to Rs. 16 per month per tenement, but the rents have now been reduced considerably, and vary from Rs. 5 per month at Worli to Rs. 7 at De Lisle Road.\*\* The Government of Bombay have also declared their willingness to lower the rents still further if whole *chawls* are taken up by large employers of labour. By 1927 only the B., B. and C.I. Railway had availed themselves of this offer and had rented five *chawls* at Worli for housing the employees of the loco-shops, at Parel. The Indian Postal and Telegraph Department have made several attempts to provide better housing for their postmen and other subordinate employees by hiring some of these *chawls*, but their efforts have been frustrated by the extreme reluctance of the staff to avail themselves of the accommodation offered. The annual loss incurred by the Directorate is estimated at Rs. 20 lakhs,

\* For further details regarding the housing conditions in Bombay, see Labour and Housing in Bombay, by Burnett-Hurst.

† Burnett-Hurst; Labour and Housing in Bombay, page 31.

‡ Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, paragraphs 240-251.

§ Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, for 1927, page 21.

\*\* Bombay Administration Report for 1926-27, page 227.

and the Government of Bombay have decided that, until the tenements now provided are fully occupied, no additional land is to be taken up for industrial housing. The Municipality, Improvement Trust and Port Trust are, however, still carrying on their programme of development.

*Housing facilities provided by Employers in Bombay.*—So far very little has been done by the millowners to provide housing accommodation for their employees. This is due to the difficulty of procuring land on moderate terms in the vicinity of the mills and the difficulty of ensuring that the tenements provided by a mill will continue to be occupied by its own employees. Further, the operatives themselves prefer to be housed in a building which is not owned by their employer; they want what has been described as a "strike-free" house, that is to say a house from which they are not likely to be ejected in the event of a strike. It is not therefore surprising that the millowners have not availed themselves of the offer of the Improvement Trust which would enable them to acquire chawls constructed by the Trust for their employees by annual payments in 50 years. In 1926 an enquiry was made by the Government of India through local governments as to the extent of the housing accommodation provided by employers. Out of the 76 textile mills in Bombay, which furnished information for the purposes of this enquiry, only 28 mills reported that housing accommodation had been provided for their workers. Seven out of the 28 mills provided residential accommodation only for their gatekeepers and night watchmen. No rent was charged, but the total number accommodated was only 147. Twenty-two mills provided partial housing for their operatives. The total number of employees working in these mills was 64,720, but the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided by the mills was only 12,149. Full economic rent was charged in two cases, and one mill let their rooms partly at a favourable and partly at the full economic rent. Fifteen mills charged favourable rent and four mills gave some tenements free and let the remainder at rents which were less than the economic rent. Sixteen mills supplied information with regard to the percentages of the rents charged to economic rents. In three cases 30 to 40 per cent. was charged, in 9 cases 40 to 50 per cent., in 3 cases 50 to 75 per cent., and in one case above 75 per cent.

*Housing in other industrial centres in Bombay Presidency.*—Ahmedabad and Sholapur are the other two important centres of the cotton mill industry in the Bombay Presidency. In the matter of industrial housing both these centres are a distinct improvement on Bombay, although cases of overcrowding are by no means rare. In Ahmedabad the total number of cotton mills is 77, employing about 60,000 workmen, but only 37 mills provide housing accommodation for their employees. Out of these, two mills give free accommodation to their gatekeepers and night watchmen. The number of persons taking advantage of the housing provided is about 16 per cent. of the total number employed by these mills. The majority of the workers live in tenements owned or taken on lease by private landlords, and some of them live in dwellings built by themselves on sites for which they pay rents. Nearly 73 per cent. of the working class families live in one-room tenements. This percentage compares favourably with that of Bombay City (97), but very unfavourably with the percentage for Sholapur, where it is only 33. The monthly rent paid by the majority of employees varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6.\* The continued depression in the cotton mill industry has hindered the activities of the employers in the direction of providing improved housing for their employees, but it was reported in 1928 that two mills had undertaken the construction of 450 additional tenements of a suitable type † for their workpeople.

The housing conditions of workers in Sholapur are in many ways superior to those of workers in Bombay and Ahmedabad. There is less congestion and the rents charged are also very much lower. The majority of the operatives live in two and three-room tenements. All the five textile mills in Sholapur city provide housing for their employees, but only about 12 per cent. of the employees are housed in the buildings provided by the mills. ‡

*Housing in Bengal (excluding coal mines).*—The industries of Bengal centre round Calcutta in the adjacent districts of Hooghly, Howrah and the 24-Parganas. The factories in this area employ about 483,000 persons, or about 86 per cent. of the total factory population of Bengal. Jute is the most important industry of Bengal, employing 326,000 persons, or nearly 58 per cent. of the total factory population of the province. The jute mills near Calcutta depend almost entirely on imported labour,

\* Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1928, pages 17-19.

† Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, for 1927, page 20.

‡ For further details regarding the housing conditions in Sholapur, see pages 9-24 of the Report of an Enquiry into family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Shoapur City, 1928.

and the management have for some time realized the importance of proper housing for the stability of their labour force. The mills are situated in a semi-rural area round Calcutta, and unless housing is provided by the management, the employees have to fall back upon the very unsatisfactory accommodation available in the hastily constructed *bustis* round the mills. In some of the quarters which were built in the early days of the industry, the ventilation is unsatisfactory, but the newer dwellings are built on comparatively modern lines. In the congested areas the activities of the jute mills in the matter of housing have been considerably hampered by the difficulty of acquiring land.\*

In 1926 an enquiry was made through the local Government as to the extent of the housing accommodation provided by employers in the jute and other industries. The information which was then obtained from the employers is summarized in the following table.†

It will be observed that more than a third of the employees in jute mills and presses live in quarters provided by the employer. The majority of the concerns charge a concessional rent, but in many cases no charge is made for the accommodation provided. In very few cases are the workers charged the full economic rent. The cotton mills also provide houses for over 45 per cent. of their employees either rent free or on nominal rent. Shipbuilding and general engineering works are mostly situated in or close to Calcutta, and find it difficult to provide houses for their employees owing to the high cost of acquiring land.

*Jamshedpur*.—Jamshedpur represents one of the finest attempts made by an industrial concern for the housing of its employees. The town is the creation of the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Limited, the company owning the land on which it is built. The entire area has been laid out as a model city with up-to-date sanitary, lighting and water arrangements. In 1926 the town had 275 bungalows and 3,988 *pucca* quarters to house the European and Indian employees. Approximately 10,000 out of a total of 30,000 employees of the Company live in these quarters. In some cases free quarters are provided, but generally a concessional rent is charged, which is 30 to 60 per cent. below the full economic rent. The company encourages the building by its employees of their own houses and advances money to them up to a maximum of two-thirds of the cost of building the house. Interest at the rate of 3 per cent. is charged on the loan which is repayable in easy instalments. At the close of the year 1926, the total number of houses built by the employees in the company's area was about 3,000, out of which 800 houses were built on the loan system; the total amount advanced by the Company by the end of that period exceeded a lakh and a quarter rupees.

*Cawnpore*.—At the close of the year 1927 there were 65 factories in Cawnpore employing over 32,500 persons. Of these, 10 were cotton mills employing nearly 19,000 persons. The British India Corporation, which controls five large mills in Cawnpore employing about 9,000 persons, has set a fine example to other employers of labour in the matter of housing, and other welfare work. It has provided suitable housing accommodation for about 5,800 of its employees and their families. The rent charged is only nominal, being approximately 6 per cent. of the economic rent. The Corporation controls two important settlements, one of which is known as Allanganj, and the other as McRobertganj. The layout and the arrangements for living in both these settlements, particularly the latter, are excellent. The houses are all grouped round central courtyards; each house has in addition a little courtyard of its own at the back. The lanes between the houses are rendered shady and attractive by trees and a large playground has been provided for the workers. The main feature of these settlements is that life in them approximates as nearly as possible to the life in a village to which the workers are accustomed. Proper attention is also paid to sanitation and the Corporation maintains at its own expense an adequate conservancy staff and also a few gardeners. Both the settlements are under the management of a welfare superintendent who has done much to bring about a sense of corporate life. A Panchayat has been set up to discuss all matters connected with the settlement.‡

Apart from the activities of the British India Corporation no housing accommodation is provided by employers except on a very small scale. The extent of the congestion in Cawnpore will be apparent from the fact that 64 per cent. of the population live in one-room tenements and the average number of persons per room in these tenements is 3.2. It is not, therefore, surprising that the infant

\* In this connection, see the recommendation of the Indian Industrial Commission in paragraph 239 of its Report with regard to the compulsory acquisition of land for housing purposes.

† Not reproduced. An abstract of the information supplied in respect of Bengal will be found in the Memorandum of the Government of Bengal.

‡ Labour in Indian Industries, by Miss Broughton, page 139.

mortality of Cawnpore is almost as high as that of Bombay. A scheme for the provision of housing accommodation for 20,000 employees at Cawnpore was recently under consideration of the representatives of the mills, the Improvement Trust, the Municipal Board, and the Upper India Chamber of Commerce. Under this scheme the Improvement Trust is to build a suitable number of quarters on land to be provided by the trust as cheaply as possible; the Municipal Board is to undertake the layout of roads and to provide water, lighting and drainage, while the millowners are to purchase the houses by a series of equated annual payments extending over a number of years.\* The scheme, if carried out, would not only improve the existing congestion in Cawnpore city, but would also ensure a more contented and healthy factory population.

*Nagpur.*—There were 66 factories in Nagpur at the close of the year 1927, employing over 15,500 persons. Of these 41 are seasonal factories (cotton ginning and baling presses) employing about 3,000 persons. Nagpur is an important centre of the textile industry in India and there are five cotton mills employing over 10,000 persons. Most of the larger perennial factories provide suitable houses for their operatives, but the seasonal factories confine their attention to the mechanical staff and leave the rest of their operatives to shift for themselves. The activities of the Model Mills and the Empress Mills, Nagpur, deserve special mention. The former has constructed 13 chawls containing 600 rooms built on up-to-date sanitary principles. In these buildings about 800, or a little over 25 per cent., of the employees of the mill are housed at a nominal rent of Re. 1 per room. The Empress Mills have recently acquired a large piece of land measuring about 209 acres on a twenty-seven years' lease for the establishment of a settlement for their workpeople. Model houses and quarters for the welfare staff have been built, and the management propose to continue their building programme according to the demand.

*Madras.*—The total number of factories in Madras at the close of the year 1927 was 118, employing about 25,500 persons. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, employing over 9,000 persons, are the only mills which provide housing accommodation for their employees on any large scale. Houses are provided in three mill villages for the workers in this mill earning less than Rs. 30 a month. The total number of workmen residing in these two villages is about 460, and the rent charged is about 25 per cent. of the full economic rent. Recently the management have obtained sites for two more settlements.

*Rangoon.*—In 1927 there were 167 factories in Rangoon employing over 34,000 persons. Of these 48 were rice mills employing over 11,000 persons, and 33 sawmills, employing nearly 7,000 persons. In the large mills and factories some sort of housing is provided for the majority of workers. The accommodation provided is usually in the form of barracks, which are suitable only for single men. In most of the rice mills married workers are employed, but in practically all of them married quarters are not provided. These families usually obtain quarters in buildings registered in the municipal books as lodging-houses. More than one family is often housed in a single room and improvised gunny, plank, or mat partitions are erected to secure a certain amount of privacy. The officer-in-charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Burma, states in his report that "it is not unusual to find a tenement room 12½ ft. by 40 ft. occupied by as many as forty or fifty people."

*Housing arrangements in the Coalfields (Bengal and Bihar and Orissa).*—There are three classes of workers employed in the coalfields. The first class consists of agriculturists who belong to the neighbouring villages within a radius of five to eight miles of the mine in which they work; they live in their own home in the village and come daily to the mine when they have no field work to do. The second class consists of workers who come from greater distances. They work in the coal mines only for a portion of the year, and return to their villages during the cultivating and harvesting seasons. The third class consists of the permanently settled labourers who remain on a particular colliery all their lives. There is no necessity to provide housing accommodation for the workers belonging to the first class, and the third class, consisting of permanently settled labourers, have, in most cases, been assisted to build their own houses on the collieries. The problem of housing arises only in connection with the second class of labourers, and is particularly acute during the busy season (November to May).

Most of the workers in the Jharia coalfield belong to the second of the three categories mentioned above, and it is for this reason that the housing problem soon attracted the attention of the local government. In 1917, as the result of a resolution passed by the Legislative Council, the Government of Bihar and Orissa appointed

\* Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, United Provinces, for 1927, pages 12-13.

† Report of an Enquiry into the Standard and Cost of Living of Working classes in Rangoon, by J. J. Bennison, B.A., I.C.S., pages 89-90.

a committee to enquire into the housing conditions of labour in the coalfields of that province. The committee\* found that there was a real scarcity of accommodation throughout the Jharia coalfield in the busy season, and that on certain collieries there was overcrowding all the year round. In some cases the companies had not acquired surface rights, and it was not easy to find a suitable site for constructing houses on or near the colliery as the surface was congested and broken up by goafing. The sites chosen for the houses (known as dhauras) were in many cases unsatisfactory from the sanitary point of view; the layout and the drainage was bad; in some cases the floors of the rooms were not more than 5 ft. square, and the walls only 3 ft. or 4 ft. high; no doors were provided; the houses were inadequately ventilated, and there were no arrangements for the disposal of night soil or kitchen refuse. The committee recommended that Section 50 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act should be amended so as to enable mineowners to acquire surface rights for colliery purposes on payment of a reasonable sum, and that provision should be made in the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act (then under preparation) conferring power on the Mines Board of Health to frame bye-laws prescribing the measures to be taken for the provision of decent, comfortable and sanitary housing for the workers on the coalfields. A Bill to give effect to the first recommendation was introduced in the local Council but has not yet been passed. The second recommendation has been given effect to and the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act (IV of 1920) requires every owner of a mine within a mining settlement to provide for labourers employed in the mine such house accommodation, water supply and sanitary arrangements as the Mines Board of Health may, by bye-law, require.† The bye-laws framed by the Jharia Mines Board of Health, which came into force in March, 1922, provide for the licensing of all houses in the Jharia coalfield and prescribe the minimum standards for houses constructed after the coming into force of the bye-laws. In the event of the refusal of the Board to grant a licence a house must either be demolished or reconstructed so as to conform to the prescribed standard. To prevent overcrowding the bye-laws also provide that no more persons shall be accommodated in any room than will allow to each adult the minimum air and floor spaces laid down in the bye-laws. The colliery labourer is also liable to a fine if he "causes any room provided for his habitation to cease to meet the requirements laid down in the bye-laws by blocking the ventilation holes or by closing in the verandah or by any other means whatsoever."‡ He is also prevented from building a cattleshed or a pigsty within 50 ft. of a room provided for the habitation of colliery labourers or within 50 ft. of a well or tank used for domestic purposes. Further, the Board is empowered to proceed against any person who causes overcrowding by occupying a room which has not been assigned to him by the owner, agent, or manager of a mine. The Board is thus vested with adequate control over the housing conditions in the Jharia coalfield.

The question of housing in the Raniganj coalfield in Bengal does not present the same difficulty as in the Jharia coalfield. Here the labourers in most cases come from the neighbouring villages and prefer to return to their homes for the night. A number of labourers are also permanently settled in the coalfield, but they have either been provided with accommodation or have been assisted to construct their own houses on the coalfield. The Raniganj area is not so congested as Jharia, and the provision of houses for the permanently settled labour force does not, therefore, give rise to any great difficulty. In 1926, 104 out of a total of 189 coal mines in Bengal reported that housing accommodation was being provided free of rent for over 55 per cent. of their miners. Some of the houses are reported to be badly ventilated, but the houses constructed by the workers themselves and particularly by the Santals are much more satisfactory. The Bengal Mining Settlements Act (II of 1912) does not contain any provision with regard to the housing of miners corresponding to Section 16 of the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act. In 1927 a Bill was introduced in the local Council to amend and consolidate the law relating to the control and sanitation of mining settlements in Bengal, which contained a similar provision, but this Bill has not yet passed into law.

*Housing in the Plantations.*—In the Assam tea gardens houses are provided for imported labourers on all the estates. There is considerable diversity in the systems of housing on tea estates, but, broadly speaking, there are two systems, the system of barrack lines and that of the busti, or small village.§ Barrack lines are to be found where the location of a large labour force in a small area is more or less obligatory, but when more space is available the labourers live in bustis, or groups of houses constituting a scattered hamlet or village. Barrack lines, especially in the

\* Report on the Housing of Colliery Labourers in Bihar and Orissa, 1917.

† Section 16 of the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlements Act, 1920.

‡ Bye-law 33 made by the Jharia Mines Board of Health.

§ Report of the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22, paragraph 56.

Assam Valley, are usually substantial structures, often having iron roofs and brick walls. Most labourers, particularly those belonging to aboriginal races, prefer to live in detached houses built by themselves and like to live with people of their own race or community.

In the tea gardens of the Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling districts of Bengal houses are also provided free of rent by practically every estate. In the tea and coffee plantations of Southern India housing accommodation is provided for the labourers, except those belonging to the jungle tribes, in brick, stone or laterite buildings roofed with tiles or iron. In the rubber plantations in Malabar very few labourers live on the estate. As they are recruited locally, they prefer to return each day to their own villages.

#### Chapter VI.—Health.

*The Health Problem and its difficulties.*—The change from a rural to an industrial environment has undoubtedly an adverse effect on the health of the Indian worker and renders him an easier victim to sickness and disease. This was pointed out forcibly by Major F. Norman White, the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, in the following extract from a note\* written by him for the Indian Industrial Commission in 1918 :—

“ Living an outdoor life, engaged in agricultural pursuits, the ryot is able to put up with the considerable degree of parasitic infestation so commonly seen ; malaria and hookworm infection, for example, is not incompatible with a fair output of agricultural work in such circumstances. Transference to large industrial centres, however, involves a change of environment which, apart from other considerations, connotes increased liability to disease. A more confined atmosphere, crowded insanitary dwellings, lack of outdoor recreation are certain to exercise a baneful influence and render the factory employee more liable to fresh infections and to upset the compromise that his body has been able to effect with the parasites that it harbours. Had the large employer of labour a plentiful supply of really healthy material to start with he would still be under an obligation to secure for his operatives an environment above reproach ; how much greater is the present need for hygienic environment, when in most cases cure has to precede the conservation of health ? ”

The Indian Industrial Commission emphasised the importance of the problem of the health of workers in Indian industries and remarked that “ no industrial edifice can be permanent which is built on such unsound foundations as those afforded by Indian labour under its present conditions.”† The problem does not, however, admit of any easy solution. In the first place, the Indian worker clings to his habits of the village, and it is exceedingly difficult to teach him to observe the elementary principles of sanitation which are so necessary in a congested area. The incentive for the provision of up-to-date sanitary arrangements does not also exist, because the employer is by no means certain that the expenditure on them will result in his premises being kept clean by his employees. In the second place the migratory character of Indian labour makes it very difficult to keep any satisfactory record of the health of the worker. When illness or disease makes further labour impossible the Indian operative creeps back to his village and is lost to observation. Statistics dealing with the health of industrial workers are not, therefore, available, and the problem of the health of the worker in Indian industries is merged in the larger problem of public health.

*Sanitation and Health in Factories.*—The provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to sanitation and health are contained in Sections 9-14 and 19-A, which are supplemented by the rules framed by local governments and administration under Section 37 of the Act. The provisions contained in these rules are, briefly, as follows :—

In every factory all the inside walls of the rooms (except such rooms as are used only for the storage of articles or for the manufacture of gas, chemicals, cement, or for pressing forage ; engineering workshops or foundries in which the prescribed air space is provided for each person employed ; walls and roofs made of galvanised iron tiles or glazed bricks ; walls in oil mills below a height of 5 ft. from the ground ; factories or parts thereof exempted by the local government from the requirements of Section 9 (a) of the Act) and all the ceilings and tops of such rooms and all the passages and staircases shall be limewashed at stated intervals. Beams, doors, rafters and other woodwork shall either be limewashed once a year or painted or varnished once in every seven years. No rubbish or filth shall be allowed to accumulate or remain in such a position that effluvia therefrom can arise within a factory.

\* Appendix L to the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, page 460.

† Paragraph 236 of the Report.



All drains shall be properly constructed and regularly flushed. The compound surrounding a factory shall be kept in a clean condition. There shall be provided a floor area of at least 36 square feet and a breathing space of at least 500 cubic feet (700 cubic feet in rooms where mechanical or electrical power is used) for each person employed. Every part of a factory where persons are employed shall be adequately ventilated, and all practical measures shall be taken to protect the workers against the inhalation of any noxious gas, dust or other impurity. Except factories which are provided with septic tanks or with water-flushed latrines and except such factories as are specially exempted by the inspector, every factory shall be provided with latrine accommodation according to a prescribed scale in a place detached from other buildings, and the latrines and urinals shall be kept in a clean and sanitary condition. Separate latrines shall be provided for female workers. In every factory an adequate supply of water fit for drinking shall be provided daily free of cost. Proper arrangements shall be made for draining and maintaining in a clean condition the area round the place where the drinking water is distributed. In Bengal, where the installation of septic tank latrines has made much progress, elaborate rules have been framed regarding their construction and maintenance.

From the annual provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act it appears that the inspectors of factories are insisting on as high a standard of sanitation as is possible in the varying circumstances. The rules framed by local governments are being generally observed and the improvements suggested by the inspectors are also being given effect to by the factory owners. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal,\* has, however, pointed out that progress in this direction must of necessity be slow as the efficacy of the improvements is, to a large extent, dependent on the efficiency of the municipality. Latrines sanctioned by municipalities as meeting their requirements and rules do not always comply with the standard design of the Bengal Factory Inspection Department, and in some cases the principles in the latrine design of the two authorities are diametrically opposed to each other. Hand service latrines are generally not of much utility in congested areas, and satisfactory progress has been made in the industrial areas around Calcutta in the provision of septic tank latrines. The Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, considers that in such areas the installation of septic tank latrines should in the absence of a sewerage system be made compulsory for all factories having a large number of employees. In Bombay, the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories also refers to the lack of the necessary municipal facilities and to the ignorance and indifference on the part of the operatives, which makes it difficult to maintain decent sanitary conditions in factories. In the Punjab report it is stated that, although the latrine accommodation provided by the factories was adequate, they were seldom utilized by the operatives, particularly when the factories are situated near open fields. As regards the health of the operatives the information contained in the provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act is very scanty, and in the absence of reliable statistics any generalisation would be risky.

*Ventilation and Humidification in Cotton Mills.*—The question of ventilation and humidification presents special difficulties in cotton mills in which a humid atmosphere is required for the spinning and weaving of cotton. To avoid breakage of thread and loss of material, artificial humidification of factories is necessary, particularly in the hot season. Such humidification, especially when effected by the letting in of steam when the temperature of the factory is high, produces very trying conditions of work which affect the efficiency and probably also the health of the operatives. The question of humidification is one which has for many years engaged the attention of Government, and its importance was emphasised both by the Textile Factories Labour Committee in 1907 and the Factory Labour Commission in 1908. In 1911 a Factory Ventilation Committee was appointed by the Government of Bombay, but its terms of reference referred chiefly to the chemical purity of the atmosphere, whereas the report of a similar enquiry in England stressed the importance of humidity and discountenanced the importance of chemical purity of the atmosphere in factories. Progress was thus rendered impossible owing to the lack of scientific data relating to health and the effects of work in hot and moist atmospheres. Soon after the war the Government of India instituted a special technical enquiry on the subject, which was entrusted to Mr. T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., an expert who was brought out from England in June, 1921. The objects of this enquiry were—

- (1) To obtain accurate observations regarding the methods of humidification and ventilation employed in cotton mills and their effect on working conditions; and
- (2) to evolve recommendations designed to effect a marked amelioration in conditions without serious detriment to the industry."

\* Annual Report for the year 1927, pages 6-7.

The enquiry continued till December, 1922, and extended to all important centres in which cotton manufacture was being carried on. In the same year, but before the enquiry was completed, an amendment was made in the Indian Factories Act which provided that in any factory "the atmosphere shall not be rendered so humid by artificial means as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein," and local governments were empowered to prescribe by rules the standards of artificial humidification and the methods to be adopted to secure their observance. Mr. Maloney's report gave for the first time a detailed and accurate survey of the conditions in all the important centres and the Government of India in their letter\* No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924, addressed the local governments and administrations concerned and invited their views on recommendations made in this report. The replies received indicated complete unanimity in regard to the suggestion that the use of steam should be prohibited when the temperature in a department of a factory exceeded 85° F. The importance of effecting improvements in the conditions of work was also generally recognized, but there was in many quarters some reluctance to adopt any definite standards of humidification as suggested by Mr. Maloney without further investigation. In addressing the local governments again on the subject in December, 1925,\* the Government of India suggested that a rule should be framed by local Governments under the Factories Act prohibiting the use of live steam at temperatures beyond 85° F. Such a rule has now been issued in Bengal, Madras, the United Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and in Ajmer-Merwara. In Delhi it is expected that the rule will be issued shortly, but the Government of Bombay, which is the only other province concerned with the question of humidification in cotton factories, has not issued any such rule, as it considers that it would be *ultra vires* of the provisions of the Indian Factories Act. Section 9 (d) of the Act prohibits artificial humidification only when it is injurious to the health of the operatives, and the local government holds the view that it has not yet been established beyond doubt that the use of steam at high temperatures is injurious to the health of the operatives. The local government is, however, in favour of such a rule, and has accordingly suggested an amendment of the Act to get over this technical difficulty. It appears, however, from the reports of the inspectors of factories that the millowners in the Presidency are themselves discontinuing the practice of using steam for the purpose of humidification when the temperature is above 85° F.

As regards the fixing of definite standards of ventilation and humidification, the Government of India agreed to the suggestion that further enquiries and experiments should be made before this is attempted. But they pointed out to local governments that in their opinion the maintenance of humidity registers in the more important mills would be essential for the purposes of this enquiry, and that in most cases it would be necessary to introduce intermediate standards, as recommended by Mr. Maloney, before final standards can suitably be prescribed. The local governments concerned were asked to report the results of their investigations and their final conclusions. Rules were accordingly framed by local governments requiring the millowners to maintain hygrometers of a pattern to be approved by the inspector in all departments of cotton mills where artificial humidification is used. The latter were also required to record the wet and dry bulb temperatures thrice daily and to take daily readings of the kata-thermometer. Owing to the difficulty experienced by the mills in securing kata-thermometers and hygrometers the investigation was delayed, but with the exception of Bengal† the reports have now been received and the conclusions of the local governments are summarized below :—

(i) *Punjab, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara.*—The experiments were conducted from November, 1927, till March, 1928, in the Punjab and from November, 1927, till July, 1928, in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. The observations in the Punjab were confined to two mills only, one of which worked intermittently while the other stopped work in March. In Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara observations were recorded in eleven mills. The conclusions reached by the local government and the two administrations are as follows :—

(a) The proposal that the cooling power as measured by the kata-thermometer should be adopted as the most satisfactory basis for the ultimate control of the humidification and ventilation of cotton mills does not seem to be open to question.

(b) The standard suggested by Mr. Maloney in respect of the maintenance of the kata cooling power of eleven millicalories per square centimetre per second is suitable and is just sufficient to prevent visible perspiration of the workers employed on heavy manual labour in the textile mills, particularly throughout the summer and monsoon months. This standard can be achieved by an acceleration of the air circulation in the department.

\* Appendix III.

† The Bengal Report is being printed and it is hoped will be received shortly.

(c) The provisional rules in regard to the enforcement of the above standard may be tried as an experiment for a period of one year before they are finally adopted.

(d) The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney in draft rules 1 and 2 on pages 87 and 88 of his Report may be adopted. Rules under the Factory Act prescribing the standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have been issued in the Punjab and Ajmer-Merwara and are about to issue in Delhi.

(ii) *Central Provinces and Berar.*—The observations in this province were made from July, 1927, till June, 1928. The conclusions reached by the local government are as follows :—

(a) The standard determined by the kata-thermometer is not satisfactory in this province, as the basis for the ultimate control of humidification and ventilation in cotton mills. In the first place, the instrument requires greater care and delicacy in handling than is likely to be met with in many mills if accurate readings are to be obtained. Secondly, in the Central Provinces and Berar the climatic conditions are so variable that it would be impossible to fix a standard based on this method. In June the records show a figure as low as 6.1 and the highest did not exceed 9.8 as against the minimum of 11 suggested by Mr. Maloney, in spite of every endeavour being made to effect frequent changes of air. The climate of the province is dry; the shade temperature is often 116° F., and the natural humidity 25 per cent. Humidification by artificial means is accordingly necessary in all departments of cotton mills except during the rains. The standard suggested by Mr. Maloney, although a low one can never be maintained continuously, during the months from April to July.

(b) If any standard is to be adopted it should only be made applicable to new buildings.

(c) The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney in draft rules 1 and 2 on pages 87-88 of his report may be tried tentatively for a period of two years.

(iii) *United Provinces.*—Here, too, owing to the very high shade temperature during summer the minimum standard of 11 millicalories suggested by Mr. Maloney has not been attained in most of the mills, particularly in the weaving sheds. The Chief Inspector of Factories considers that the only way in which this standard can be attained is by the installation of a central cooling and humidifying system capable of renewing the air in the various departments eight to ten times in an hour. The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have, however, already been enforced in this province.

(iv) *Madras.*—There are six cotton mills in the Presidency, three of which are situated in Madras city. The intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney have been brought into force by the local government and it is reported that five out of the six mills have complied with these standards. In the case of the sixth mill, the Chief Inspector of Factories is of opinion that the contravention can be rectified by slightly increasing the ventilation.

(v) *Bombay.*—An interesting report on temperature, ventilation and humidification with special reference to wet kata-thermometer cooling powers was published by the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, in 1928. The local government have issued rules prescribing the intermediate standards suggested by Mr. Maloney. The results of their investigations showed that, apart from Ahmedabad, the mills generally did not exceed the permitted humidity to any great extent. The mills in Ahmedabad exceeded the permitted humidity on a large number of occasions in 1927, but further enquiry in 1928 showed that considerable progress had been made in complying with the schedule, particularly in the carding and spinning departments. Progress was also made in the weaving departments, but it was clear that the schedule could not easily be complied with and that some relaxation would be necessary in Ahmedabad. The climatic conditions of Sholapur are about the same as in Ahmedabad, but humidity is forced to a much greater extent in Ahmedabad than Sholapur, owing to the fact that many mills in the former centre heavily size the yarn and thus require more humidity for weaving processes. Wet kata readings in a large number of mills in Ahmedabad are very much lower in the hot weather than the minimum of 11 suggested by Mr. Maloney. Fortunately, a large number of weaving mills in Ahmedabad have either installed a special ventilating, cooling and humidifying plant or else have improved the "gutter" system of humidification which is installed in several of them. It is reported, however, that a number of mills are reluctant to effect improvements unless they are compelled to do so by legislation.

The Government of Bombay have made the suggestion that the Indian Factories Act should be amended so as to enable the local government to prescribe a standard of humidity, and the methods to be adopted to secure its observance, while inspectors

should be authorized to grant exemption from the standard in any department if ventilation is adopted so that a reasonable cooling power is maintained. The local government further suggests that in cotton weaving factories of the ordinary shed or the saw-tooth type, in which reasonable cooling powers are not maintained, inspectors should be granted powers, subject to appeal, to order measures for the reduction of temperature by means other than the provision of cooling combined with ventilation when the outside shade temperature exceeds a temperature to be prescribed by the local government. The problem of humidification affects the Bombay Presidency more than any other province in India, but it is also in this Presidency that the progress has been most marked. The extent of this progress and the good results achieved will be apparent from the following extract from the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for 1927 :—

“ During the year a greater advance in the provision of comfortable working conditions in textile factories has been made than in any previous year in the history of the department. Particularly has this been the case in Ahmedabad, where, in the weaving department of mills, working conditions have been very trying. It is hoped that by the end of the present year nine mills there will have installed special humidifying, cooling and ventilating plants in their weaving sheds and three in their spinning departments. In addition, 14 other weaving sheds will have improved their gutter systems with increased ventilation. The new mills being erected in Ahmedabad will be satisfactorily ventilated, cooled and humidified on modern lines. By the end of this year, 33 mills will have either more efficient plant than formerly, or have experimental plant under test. At last, Ahmedabad has generally recognized the need of efficient ventilating and cooling arrangements to neutralize the trying climatic conditions of that centre which result in unduly high temperatures and low cooling powers in the departments. It is thought that the agents in Ahmedabad now realize that improvements are necessary to secure a more contented labour force and it seems to have been abundantly demonstrated that an outlay on efficient ventilation, combined with cooling, is reflected in increased production. In this connection it is worth recording that in one weaving shed an increased production of 4.6 per cent. was solely attributed to the improvement in working conditions consequent on the improvement in the ventilating arrangements. The agent reported that whereas in one of his sheds the production was constantly lower than in the other, it has, since the installation of the ventilating and cooling plant, been consistently higher. A second mill reported an increase of practically 9 per cent. in the weaving production after a similar installation. A third agent has been so impressed with the results obtained in his weaving shed by increased production which benefits him and his employees alike, that he is contemplating ventilating and cooling his spinning departments on modern lines. The writer was considerably impressed with the change in a number of Ahmedabad mills effected by the adoption of decent ventilating and cooling systems. The usual practice of slacking for several hours of the day has been almost stopped. Operatives pay much closer attention to work, earn more, and are certainly more contented.

“ The mills in Sholapur have installed several special ventilating, cooling and humidifying plants that have almost revolutionized the working conditions from the point of view of comfort. Plants suitable for the hot and dry climates of Ahmedabad and Sholapur will not be so effective in Bombay. Two mills have, however, recently adopted somewhat similar systems. It is hoped to effect material improvements in weaving sheds in Bombay by means of air movement created by fans attached to looms, and several managers are experimenting with these.”

*Control of Temperature in Factories.*—Connected with the question of ventilation and humidification is the question of the control of excessive temperatures in factories. Mr. Maloney, in his report on Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills, suggested\* certain inexpensive methods (e.g., whitewashing and roof spraying, etc.) for the reduction of excessive temperatures in factories, and in 1924 the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, speaking on behalf of the Government of Bengal at a conference convened by the Government of India to review the working of the Indian Factories Act, as amended in 1922, made the suggestion that a clause should be inserted in the Act on the lines of Section 6 of the British Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, giving the inspector the power to control temperature in factories. This proposal, which was similar to the one made by Mr. Maloney in his report, was accepted by the Government of India, and in the Bill further to amend the Indian Factories Act, which was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in September, 1925, a clause was inserted for the addition of the following section after Section 9 of the Act :—

“ 9A. (1) In every factory a reasonable temperature shall be maintained ; (2) in the case of any factory in which, in the opinion of the inspector, a reasonable temperature is not maintained, the inspector may serve on the manager of the factory

\* Section 27 of the Report.

an order in writing specifying the measures which he considers necessary to maintain a reasonable temperature, and requiring him to carry them out before a specified date."

The Bill was circulated for opinion and, though local governments were all agreed as to the desirability of the control of temperature in factories, there was considerable difference of opinion as to the most suitable method of exercising this control. It was pointed out that the reduction of excessive temperatures in the hot weather would not be an easy matter and that there are obvious dangers in leaving it to inspectors to decide what constitutes a reasonable temperature. The Select Committee to which the Bill was referred, decided by a majority to eliminate this clause as it was of opinion that "a provision of this kind or even a provision which would enable the local government by rules to lay down standards of temperatures suitable for various localities and various classes of factories would, until technical investigation and research in regard to this very difficult problem has been completed on a far more thorough scale than heretofore, impose a real burden upon employers with only a problematical advantage to the employee." When the Bill as amended by the Select Committee came up for consideration in the Legislative Assembly, Mr. Joshi moved an amendment for the restoration of the clause excised by the majority of the Select Committee. This amendment was defeated, but it was clear from the discussion that a number of members considered that the Factories Act should contain some provision enabling control to be exercised over temperatures in factories. The Government of India were unable to support Mr. Joshi's amendment because they recognized the force of the criticisms directed against the original clause which was deleted by the Select Committee, but they gave an assurance that the proposal would again be brought up for discussion at the next Session of the Assembly. A second Bill was accordingly prepared in which the Government of India put forward a different proposal. They now proposed to add the following clause after Clause (d) of Section 9 of the Indian Factories Act:—"(e) The temperature in any part in which any manufacturing process is being carried on shall not be such as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein."

It was also proposed to vest local governments with powers to prescribe standards of temperature. Thus it was now proposed that two criteria should be laid down for the determination of excessive temperature in factories, viz. :—(i) The temperature must not exceed certain prescribed standards; and (ii) it must not be injurious to the health of the employees.

The Bill was introduced in the Autumn Session of the Legislative Assembly in 1926 and circulated for opinion, but it lapsed in the same year with the dissolution of the Assembly. In circulating the Bill for opinion, the Government of India pointed out that the measure proposed was of "a tentative nature" which was "put forward, as a basis for discussion." An alternative scheme was also discussed in accordance with which inspectors of factories would be required by law to make recommendations to the local government for remedial measures in respect of such premises in which the temperature in their opinion was likely to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein. The local government could, if they accepted the recommendation, authorize the inspector to issue a provisional order calling on the manager of a factory to carry out before a specified date any measures (e.g., roof spraying, whitewashing, etc.) specified in the order and calculated to reduce the temperature in a factory or a part of a factory, or to state any objections which he may have to the confirmation of the order. In the absence of any valid objections, the order could be made final with the approval of the local government. The alternative scheme referred to above met with little support and objections were also raised to the proposals which were embodied in the Bill. It was pointed out that suitable standards of temperature could only be prescribed after a careful and thorough examination by experts of the whole question of temperatures in factories. Some of the replies indicated that, owing to the varying climatic conditions from place to place and from season to season, to the varying nature of the processes, and to the varying character of the buildings in which factory work is carried on, it would be impossible, without a very general dislocation of industry, to enforce anything in the nature of a "standard of temperature." The Governments of Burma and Bengal suggested that it would be more feasible to lay down standards of cooling power than standards of absolute temperature. The absolute temperature is no adequate measure of comfort or of injury to health whereas Mr. Maloney's Report\* indicated that the measure afforded by the *kata*-thermometer is ordinarily a much more reliable one. A further difficulty arose in connection with the adoption of the criterion of injury to the health of the employees. This criterion was intended as a safeguard to ensure that employers would not be harassed where there was no genuine necessity for interference, but it would in effect make the proposed clause inoperative. Injury to health is not easy

\* "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills" by T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., pages 30-39 and 85.

to prove and it is significant that Mr. Maloney after 18 months research, covering some of the worst mills in India had, in spite of medical assistance, to record a very guarded opinion regarding the effect on health of conditions which were, from the point of view of comfort, almost intolerable.\*

In view of the above objections, the Government of India decided to hold over the consideration of this difficult question until they had received and considered the reports of the local governments on the proposals regarding the control of ventilation and humidification in cotton factories.

*Control of Construction of Factories.*—This was another question which arose out of the report submitted by Mr. Maloney on the Humidification and Ventilation in Cotton Mills. It was pointed out in that report that a considerable amount of discomfort was suffered by the operatives owing to the faulty construction of the mills. Municipalities have usually the power to control the construction of new buildings, but the considerations which weigh with such authorities do not take into account the internal temperatures which are likely to prevail in the mill after it has been built. In addressing local governments in April, 1924,† on the recommendations made by Mr. Maloney, the Government of India expressed the view that, subject to the control of the local government, the sanction of the factory inspector should be necessary to the construction of a new factory or the conversion into a factory of an existing building used for some other purpose. The factory inspector would then be able to prevent the erection of mills in which, by reason of the details of their construction, the operatives would be unable to work under humane conditions. Here, too, the local governments, while in general agreement with the principle underlying the proposal, expressed divergent views as to the manner in which the control should be exercised. In the circumstances, the Government of India considered that it would not be possible for them to frame a measure containing any detailed provisions which would take account of the different conditions and the difficulties in the various provinces. They accordingly addressed local governments in 1926, and left it to them to introduce whatever measures they might consider necessary in the local legislative councils. The Government of Burma is the only local government which has taken any action in the matter, but the measure which the local government proposed to enact for the purpose has not yet been passed into law. The Government of Bombay at first expressed the view that legislation on the subject should be central, but when the Government of India adhered to their original conclusions that legislation should be provincial, the local government replied that it was "not desirable to undertake any legislation in the local legislative council in this connection." In Bengal the only progress achieved is due to the co-operation of the Howrah Municipality with the Factory Inspection Department. The Municipality has adopted the practice of obtaining the advice of the Chief Inspector of Factories on the plans for the construction of new factory buildings which are submitted for its sanction.

*Sanitation in Mines.*—The provisions in the Indian Mines Act regarding sanitation are contained in Section 17 of the Act and local governments are vested under Section 30 (c) with powers to prescribe the scale of latrines and urinal accommodation to be provided at mines and for the supply of drinking water. The regulations made by the Governor-General in Council under Section 29 provide, in addition, for the ventilation of mines and for the action to be taken in respect of dust and noxious gases. These regulations provide for the adequate ventilation of every mine to clear away the smoke and to dilute and render harmless inflammable and noxious gases. The rules made by local governments provide for the adequate supply of drinking water, for the cleanliness of the underground workings and roads, and for the provision of latrines and urinals which have to be kept in a sanitary condition. In addition, the Governments of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa have each passed a Mining Settlement Act‡ for the control and sanitation of mining settlements and to make better provision for preventing the outbreak and spread in such settlements of epidemic diseases." Under these Acts a Mines Board of Health has been set up in Jharia and in Asansol for carrying out the purposes of these local Acts. As regards the work done by these two Boards of Health the following extract from the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year 1927 is of interest :—

"The beneficial results of the work carried out by the Asansol and Jharia Mines Boards of Health and by the Jharia Water Board are well known. From the public health point of view the settlements are bright spots in the two provinces, and within the settlements it is remarkable how much less disease there is at the collieries

\* "Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills" by T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T. pages 30-39 and 85.

† Paragraph 18 of letter No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924, Appendix III.

‡ *Vide* the B. and O. Mining Settlements Act, 1920, and the Bengal Mining Settlements Act of 1912. The revision of the latter Act is under consideration.

than in the surrounding villages. One of the major improvements effected in the Jharia coalfield has been the provision of a pure water supply. From the Topchanchi reservoir, 16 miles distant, 1,250,000 gallons of water are supplied daily to all collieries of importance."

*Health and Sanitation in Plantations.*—Elaborate provisions for water supply, sanitary arrangements, hospital accommodation and medical attendance are contained in the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, VI of 1901, but these provisions relate to "labourers," i.e., persons who are bound by a contract penally enforceable under the Act. With the abolition of penal contracts\* these provisions are now inoperative though they have not yet been formally repealed. The Government of Assam have, however, under sections 113 and 122 (1) of the Act framed rules for the submission of monthly returns of vital statistics and vaccination. These rules also require Deputy Commissioners to classify the estates in their districts in one of the following three categories :—(i) healthy or first-class estates ; (ii) second-class estates ; (iii) unhealthy estates. The last class comprises estates in which the average mortality for the preceding year exceeded 7 per cent. of the population of the estate as a whole, while the first category includes only such estates as have not been on the unhealthy list for the last three years. All other estates are included in the second category. Unhealthy estates are to be inspected once by the Civil Surgeon and thereafter annually by the Deputy Commissioner or their authorized subordinates until they are placed in the class of healthy estates. But neither the Deputy Commissioner nor the Civil Surgeon can legally order the Manager of an estate to take any steps for the improvement of the health or sanitation of the estate, though their periodical visits do undoubtedly stimulate some action in this direction on the part of the employer. In the year 1928 only one garden in the whole of Assam, situated in the Goalpara District, was classified as unhealthy.† The nature of the sanitary arrangements provided by the tea gardens in Assam was examined by the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee of 1922 and the observations of the Committee are given in Chapter VI of the Report.

Most of the tea gardens in Bengal are situated in the Jalpaiguri district. The Dooars, like Assam, are malarial and unhealthy but labour has always been "free," and the Dooars have all along had the advantage over Assam in the matter of recruitment. The Dooars Labour Committee, which was appointed by the local government in 1910 to report on the health and conditions of employment in the tea gardens in the Dooars, expressed itself strongly in favour of the continuance of the system of "free" labour and was opposed to any legislation for the protection of labour which, as in Assam, was then invariably associated with the system of penally enforceable contracts. The Committee found a general disposition among employers to effect improvements in the conditions of the life of their labourers, but made certain suggestions for their consideration, e.g., the establishment of one or more central hospitals and of branch dispensaries, the appointment of qualified men as resident garden doctors, the adoption of a system of quinine prophylaxis on all gardens to protect the men from attacks of malaria. But the Committee also made the suggestion that the Government should take steps to obtain vital statistics of the tea gardens in the Dooars. This suggestion led to the passing of the Jalpaiguri Labour Act of 1912, which requires employers to maintain registers and to submit returns relating to vital statistics. Inspectors are also appointed under the Act to check the accuracy of the entries in the registers and returns. In 1923 the late Sir Surendra Nath Banerjee, then the Minister for Local Self-Government in Bengal, introduced a measure called "The Bengal Tea Gardens Public Health Bill," the object of which was to create a new local authority in the form of a statutory Board of Health, similar to the Boards of Health already existing for mines in Asansol and Jharia, to exercise wide powers for the control and sanitation of tea-garden areas in Bengal. The Bill was circulated for opinion but was not further proceeded with.

In Madras the Madras Planters' Labour Act of 1903 contained provisions regarding the health and sanitation of the plantations in the Nilgiris and in the Wynaad Taluk of the Malabar District. But along with these provisions the Act also contained provisions for penal contracts. The Act has been repealed with effect from the 1st January, 1929, and the plantations are no longer subject to official control in the matter of health and sanitation. In Coorg a temporary legislation known as the Coorg Labour Act was passed in 1926 to keep alive the system of penal labour contracts for a period of five years only. In return for this benefit which the Act confers on employers it imposes the obligation of providing suitable house accommodation, water supply, sanitary arrangements and medical treatment for the

\* See Chapter III, page 170, *supra*.

† See Reports on Immigrant Labour in the Province of Assam for the year ending 30th June, 1928.

labourers. The inspection of the estates is entrusted to the Commissioner, the District Magistrate and the Civil Surgeon of Coorg. The Chief Commissioner can declare an estate to be unfit for the residence of any workmen, and so long as this declaration remains in force no penal action can be taken against a labourer for a breach of a contract of service.

*Industrial Diseases.*—Little information is available about the prevalence of industrial diseases in India. In 1919 the Washington Conference adopted two recommendations concerning industrial diseases; the first suggested that arrangements should be made for the disinfection of wool infected with anthrax, whilst the second advocated the exclusion of women and young persons from certain processes in lead manufacture and the regulation of employment of women and young persons in processes involving the use of salts of lead. There was no evidence that the handling of wool in India causes infection to those employed in the process, but the Government of India did not consider it safe to assume its absence. A provision was accordingly made in the Indian Factories Act (Section 38A) which gives the Governor-General in Council the power to frame rules for the adequate disinfection of wool used in factories which may be infected with anthrax spores. So far no rules have been framed by the Governor-General in Council. As regards the second recommendation of the Washington Conference, the Government of India did not consider that there was any immediate need for legislation in view of the fact that the industries in question had not developed to any appreciable extent in the country. But a provision was inserted in the Factories Act (Section 19B) in accordance with the Recommendations of the Conference "in order to obtain without opposition protection against a danger that might become real in years to come." Recently the Government of Bihar and Orissa, when revising the rules framed by the local government under the Indian Factories Act, made the suggestion that this provision of the Act should be amended so as to require the medical examination and certification of all persons employed on processes involving the use of lead or its compounds.

The Washington Labour Conference adopted a further Recommendation suggesting the establishment of a government service for safeguarding the health of the workers. This Recommendation had apparently a strictly limited application relating as it did only to the protection of workers in the unhealthy trades, e.g., in factories and workshops where lead, arsenic or other poisonous substance is used, or those in which grinding, glazing or polishing on a wheel is carried on by which dust, or any gas vapour or other impurity is generated or inhaled by the workers to an injurious extent. As industries of this nature were few in India, the Government of India did not consider it necessary to establish a special medical service for the purpose, but they pointed out to local governments the desirability of strengthening the medical services of the country in areas where many unhealthy industries are situated.

The Third International Labour Conference adopted a Draft Convention in 1921 relating to the regulation of the use of white lead in painting. The object of this Convention was to minimize the dangers of lead poisoning which experience had shown to be prevalent in certain countries. The Government of India, after consultation with local governments, came to the conclusion that it would not be practicable to ratify this Convention as the use of white lead was relatively small and a disproportionately large staff would be required to enforce the Convention. At the same time, the Government of India have by means of executive instructions enforced the compliance of the principles underlying the Convention so far as their own departments, e.g., the Public Works, Railways and Military Works, are concerned and have requested local governments to take similar action and to recommend for adoption the provisions of the Convention to such other public and quasi-public bodies situated in their territories as make use of white lead pigments.

*Sex Ratio in Industrial Centres.*—In his note for the Indian Industrial Commission, to which reference has been made earlier in this Chapter, Major F. Norman White, Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, stated\* as follows:—

"Another less obvious danger to our present large industrial centres would appear to lie in the great disturbance of the natural sex ratio. Thus in Calcutta there are 365,000 males and only 131,000 females between the ages of 15 and 40. A certain disproportion is possibly unavoidable but a disparity of the extent quoted would appear to be a direct health danger. It would be interesting to learn, among other things, what effect such a state of affairs has on the prevalence of venereal disease."

\* Appendix L to the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, page 463.



The number of women per 1,000 males in 1921 in some of the important industrial centres was as follows\* :—Calcutta and Suburbs, 500 ; Bombay, 524 ; Ahmedabad, 763 ; Sholapur, 894 ; Cawnpore, 667 ; Delhi, 672 ; Nagpur, 864 ; Rangoon, 444 ; Karachi, 629. The proportion of women to men must be considerably less among the industrial population. The disparity between the sexes in these centres is largely due to the migratory character of labour and to the fact that the workers are generally disinclined to bring their families with them to towns where the conditions of life are less attractive than in the villages. The overwhelming preponderance of the male sex in these industrial centres has an important effect on the social life of the workers. Dr. Curjel in her Report on Women's Labour in Bengal Industries† refers to the frequency of irregular liaisons and the prevalence among the millhands in Bengal of venereal disease. The evil is aggravated by want of privacy in most of the quarters in which the millhands live. In dealing with this question, Dr. Curjel states "from enquiries through Indian and English sources, and from personal knowledge of living conditions among the poorer classes in other parts of India, one must conclude that such irregular family life as is found among mill women in Bengal is not customary in the districts from which the majority of mill labour is recruited." Conditions in Rangoon and Bombay can hardly be expected to be more satisfactory than in Bengal.

*Medical Facilities provided by Employers.*—The economic importance of health is recognized by the employers in India and in a number of cases special medical facilities are provided for the workers. In connection with an enquiry into welfare work which was made in 1926, employers were requested to furnish particulars regarding the medical facilities provided by them for their employees and the following statement is based on the returns obtained from them:—

Industry.	Number of concerns submitting returns	Total number of persons employed by concerns shown in column 2.	Number of concerns providing dispensaries.	Number of concerns not providing dispensaries but providing	
				Whole-time medical officers.	Part-time medical officers.
<i>Bengal.</i>					
1. Jute mills and presses	89	282,417	62	8	..
2. Cotton mills .. ..	9	12,165	5	4	..
3. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	42	36,440	9	..	19
4. Railway workshops ..	13	49,570	13	..	..
5. Rice mills .. ..	24	766	..	2	4
6. Paper mills .. ..	4	4,418	4	..	..
7. Printing presses .. ..	15	3,815	5	4	..
8. Coal mines .. ..	104	37,738	61	37	6
9. Tea gardens .. ..	84	55,523	22	‡42	‡18
<i>Bombay.</i>					
1. Textile mills .. ..	149	237,694	108	2	11
2. Railway workshops ..	1	11,089	1	..	..
3. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	3	3,361	2	..	..
4. Printing presses .. ..	4	1,380	4	..	..
5. Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	4	1,006	..	4	..

\* Statistical Abstract for British India (1917-18 to 1926-27), page 10.

† Bulletin No 31 of Indian Industries and Labour.

‡ The tea gardens in columns 5 and 6 also supply medicines.

## Medical facilities provided by employers.—continued.

Industry.	Number of concerns submitting returns	Total number of persons employed by concerns shown in column 2.	Number of concerns providing dispensaries.	Number of concerns not providing dispensaries but providing	
				Whole-time medical officers.	Part-time medical officers.
<i>Bihar and Orissa.</i>					
1. Railway workshops..	2	12,318	2	..	..
2. Iron and steel works	1	30,600	1	..	..
3. Rice mills .. ..	4	199	..	..	3
4. Sugar factories ..	5	2,908	1	..	3
5. Indigo factories ..	1	1,596	..	..	1
6. Lac factories .. ..	2	194	..	..	..
7. Coal mines .. ..	18	40,473	15	2	1
<i>Burma.</i>					
1. Textile mills.. ..	1	486	..	..	1
2. Rice mills .. ..	8	6,159	..	5	3
3. Saw mills .. ..	6	3,940	2	2	1
4. Shipbuilding, general engineering works and dockyards ..	3	2,657	2	..	1
5. Railway workshops..	2	2,449	2	..	..
6. Oil production and refining .. ..	7	11,174	5	..	..
7. Metalliferous mines..	3	12,187	1	..	..
8. Rubber plantations..	4	1,356	2	..	..
<i>Central Provinces.</i>					
1. Cotton mills .. ..	10	20,226	5	1	3
2. Railway workshops..	1	1,058	1	..	..
3. Cement, lime and pottery works .. ..	9	3,247	4	2	1
4. Match factories ..	1	225	1	..	..
5. Coal mines .. ..	11	10,271	8	..	1
6. Manganese mines ..	31	12,770	19	..	..
<i>Madras.</i>					
1. Cotton mills .. ..	7	20,273	5	..	..
2. Jute mills .. ..	3	3,607	3	..	..
3. Railway workshops..	2	18,785	2	..	..
4. Rice mills .. ..	2	143	..	..	..
5. Tanneries .. ..	1	911	1	..	..
6. Tea, coffee and rubber plantations .. ..	..	..	5	..	..
<i>United Provinces.</i>					
1. Textile mills.. ..	11	16,725	8	1	2
2. Railway workshops..	5	8,049	5	..	..
3. Sugar factories ..	1	429	1	..	..
4. Leather factories ..	2	2,194	2	..	..
5. Glass factories ..	1	250	1	..	..
6. Paper mills .. ..	1	762	..	..	1
<i>Punjab.</i>					
1. Textile mills.. ..	4	2,675	3	1	..
2. Railway workshops..	5	8,471	5	..	..
3. Printing presses ..	4	1,163	..	..	3
4. Flour mills .. ..	8	975	2	..	3
5. Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	6	568	1	..	3
<i>Assam.</i>					
1. Tea gardens .. ..	123	142,800	123	..	..
2. Railway workshops..	1	49	1	..	..
3. Oil production and refining .. ..	1	5,000	1	..	..

In most cases it is reported that medical treatment is provided free of charge to the employees and their families, but in some of the cotton mills in Bombay a nominal charge of one or two annas a month is made from each worker. Medicines have generally to be purchased by the employees but in some cases ordinary medicines are supplied free of charge.

*Sickness Insurance.*—The possibility of introducing a scheme of sickness insurance in India was considered by the Government of India in connection with the Draft Conventions and Recommendation adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference in 1927. Owing to the migratory character of industrial labour, the want of qualified medical practitioners in sufficient numbers, the existence of indigenous systems of medicine, and the opposition of the workers to any system involving compulsory deductions from pay, the Government of India considered that it would not be practicable to introduce a comprehensive scheme of sickness insurance on the lines of the Conventions of the International Labour Conference. But they realized that the question was one of some importance for the country. The general level of wages in India is low and in the case of the majority of workers the margin between income and expenditure is so small that it is impossible for them to make any effective savings for any unforeseen contingency, such as illness. The enquiry into working-class family budgets in Bombay City disclosed that 47 per cent. of the working class families are in debt, while a similar enquiry in Ahmedabad showed that the worker at that place is also generally heavily indebted. An interruption of income owing to illness in such cases undoubtedly involves considerable hardship. The Government of India accordingly decided to consult provincial Governments as to whether it would be feasible to introduce a limited scheme of sickness insurance, either on the lines indicated in the Draft Conventions or on other practicable lines. In their letter\* No. L.1518, dated the 20th September, 1928, they invited the views of local Governments in the matter and also made the suggestion that the examination of this question might suitably be entrusted to a small and informal committee, including a few representatives of employers and employees. Such Committees were, however, appointed in only five provinces, namely, the Punjab, Madras, Burma, the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces. Generally speaking, all major local Governments expressed the opinion that the introduction of any scheme of sickness insurance would be premature and impracticable in present conditions. It was pointed out that the Indian worker, owing to his illiteracy, would not be in a position to appreciate the advantages of a scheme of sickness insurance and that he would object to the payment of any contributions, particularly as he receives in most cases medical treatment free of charge. Some of the local Governments also referred to the fact that the workmen are reluctant to be treated by the allopathic system of medicine. But the main difficulty with local Governments was the question of finance. Thus the Government of Madras expressed the opinion that there were other more urgent services, such as elementary education, increased medical facilities, etc., which had a prior claim on their resources, while the Governments of the Punjab, the United Provinces, and Bihar and Orissa, expressed their inability to undertake any liability in the matter. The Government of Bombay stated that they were unable at present to make any financial contribution towards a scheme of sickness insurance, but, if the Labour Commission came to the conclusion that such a scheme is desirable and practicable, the local Government would give it their support "to the extent of the resources which may be made available." The Government of the Central Provinces also expressed the opinion that the State should bear only the cost of administration as the large and growing liability of a scheme of sickness insurance may prove to be too heavy a burden on its finances.

*Maternity Benefits.*—The question of the provision of maternity benefits for women workers was also raised by a Draft Convention adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919. This Convention was not intended to be ratified by India, but the Conference passed a resolution inviting the Government of India "to make a study of the question of the employment of women before and after confinement, and of maternity benefits, and to report on these matters to the next Conference." Enquiries were instituted on the subject, and the conclusion reached was that the introduction of a compulsory scheme of maternity benefits would be premature but that employers should be encouraged to start voluntary schemes. A report was accordingly presented to the International Labour Conference which met at Geneva in 1921. In pursuance of certain suggestions put forward in the Legislative Assembly, enquiries were made by the Government of India in June, 1924, regarding the extent to which maternity benefit schemes were in force in India. The results of this enquiry were published in 1925 in Bulletin No. 35 of Indian Industries and Labour. Since that date maternity benefit schemes have been introduced by various employers,

\* A copy of this letter, together with copies of the replies thereto, will be found in Appendix V.

an important scheme being started at Jamshedpur by the Tata Iron and Steel Company. In a communication to the press, the Company announced that it would pay maternity benefits from the 1st January, 1929, to its female employees on weekly wages. The benefit is the equivalent of six weeks' wages which will be paid on the condition that the woman shall have been in the continuous employment of the Company for not less than twelve months prior to the date of confinement, and shall give an undertaking not to do any work outside her own home during the period of six weeks following confinement. She must also notify the birth of the child to the Company's main hospital within three days of its occurrence. Employees who wish to take advantage of this benefit must register their claim at the Employment Bureau, which will then arrange for the examination of the woman in order that the probable date of birth may be ascertained. If the claim is in order the Employment Bureau will issue a permit for leave of absence for six weeks and payment will then be made of three weeks' wages. On receipt of notification of birth, the Chief Medical Officer will arrange for verification, noting the date on the certificate issued by him. The certificate will be handed in at the Employment Bureau, and payment will then be made of the second three weeks' wages. Before resuming work the woman must report at the Employment Bureau, when a fresh weekly ticket will be issued.

An attempt at legislation was first made by Mr. Joshi in September, 1924, when he introduced in the Legislative Assembly a Bill\* designed to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit in certain industries. This Bill, after circulation, was thrown out by the Legislative Assembly in August, 1925.† The cue, however, was taken up by the provincial legislatures and in August, 1926, the Bihar and Orissa Council passed the following resolution :—

" This Council recommends to Government that early steps be taken to protect female labour employed in the coalfields and all industrial plants of the province—

" (a) by protecting their employment during their advanced state of pregnancy, and three weeks after childbirth has taken place ; (b) and that such companies or firms in this province that have in their employment such labour, provided that a period of six months' service has been given prior to the event, be directed to pay to such persons in the way of maternity benefit a sum of money equal to payment lost during that period."

The Central Provinces Legislative Council has on the anvil a Maternity Benefit Bill which was introduced by Mr. R. W. Fulay, a non-official member, on the 22nd January, 1929. The only province in which legislation has been passed is Bombay, where a Maternity Benefit Act was passed early this year, and came into force from the 1st July, 1929. Here, too, the measure was introduced by a non-official member. It differs from Mr. Joshi's Bill in one important respect. The payment of maternity benefit is an obligation which is imposed directly on the employer, whereas under Mr. Joshi's Bill it would have fallen on the local Government to set up a Maternity Benefit Fund and to make payments out of this fund.

## Chapter VII.—Welfare.

*Nature of Welfare Work. Its importance in India.*—The definition of " Welfare Work " presents some difficulty, as there is some difference of opinion as to the nature of the activities which should legitimately be included within its scope. One definition would confine welfare work " to the voluntary efforts on the part of employers to improve, within the existing industrial system, the conditions of employment in their own factories." But another definition, which is more generally accepted, would extend its scope " to all efforts which have for their object the improvement of the health, safety, and general well-being and the industrial efficiency of the worker."‡ The necessity for welfare work arises out of the modern system of production which destroys all personal touch between the employer and the employee. In cottage industries the employee works directly under the eye of the master, and is often a relation in whose welfare the master is directly interested. But under the modern system of large scale production it is impossible for the employer to pay individual attention to the numerous employees who are working in his factory. The worker is known by his number rather than by his name, and his personal needs and rights are apt to be disregarded. It is not therefore surprising that the growth of the factory system has given rise to grave industrial unrest which threatens to destroy its very foundations. If this system is to be preserved the importance of the

\* Appendix VI.

† *Vide* Assembly Debates, Volume VI, Nos. 5 and 6, dated the 26th and 27th August, 1925.

‡ *Vide* the Presidential Address of Mr. (now Sir) Atul Chatterjee at the All-India Industrial Welfare Conference, 1922.

part played by labour in production must be recognized, and every effort must be made to develop a sense of responsibility and of dignity among the working classes. The basis of welfare work is therefore the recognition of the human element of labour as a factor in production. But welfare work has another aspect ; it has a direct bearing on the efficiency of the worker. "Welfare work at its best is the voluntary expression on the part of the employer of his recognition that the employees in the firm are his fellow-workers in an undertaking for the service of the community, and at its worst it is merely a business proposition." But it would be a mistake to lay too much stress on the financial aspect of welfare work which can never be a success if it is instituted with that end only in view.

The importance of welfare work is greater in India than in the West. The worker in this country regards employment in a factory or a mine as a necessary evil from which he is only too glad to escape when circumstances permit. Separated from his community and in strange surroundings, he is almost irresistibly drawn to the liquor-shops, which invariably make for his demoralization and ruin. If the employer desires a more stable and efficient labour force, it is obvious that he must endeavour, by every means in his power, to effect an improvement in the conditions of employment of his workpeople, and to secure for them a happier existence.

*Difficulties of Welfare Work in India.*—Education, or rather the lack of it, is the stumbling block to all progress in India, and welfare work suffers from this blight. The vast majority of Indian workers are illiterate, and it is unfortunately impossible for them to understand or to appreciate the importance of any scheme which may be intended for their ultimate benefit. Welfare activities, such as are to be found in the highly organized factories of Europe and America, presuppose a certain standard of education which is entirely absent in India. Welfare work therefore depends for its success on the energy of the employer or an outside agency working, in the beginning, at any rate, without the co-operation of the employees. But the illiteracy of the worker is not the only obstacle. The labour force is, in most cases, of a temporary and floating character and heterogeneous in composition. Men from different provinces, speaking different languages and of different religions, are to be found working in the same factory : workers of one community naturally tend to form groups within their own community, and this renders the working of any general scheme of welfare work somewhat complicated. These difficulties, though serious, have not proved to be insuperable, and in recent years satisfactory progress has been achieved both by individual employers and by private organizations, such as the Social Service League in Bombay and the Young Men's Christian Association in Nagpur. In 1922 an All-India Industrial Welfare Conference was convened at Bombay by the Social Service League, which had since 1918 been entrusted with the organization and management of two workmen's institutes for the benefit of operatives employed in mills under the agencies of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ibrahim & Sons and Messrs. Tata & Sons. The Conference was attended by the representatives of the Central Government and of some of the provincial Governments, and was presided over by Mr. (now Sir) Atul Chatterjee, who was then Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Industries. The object of the Conference was to discuss several problems connected with welfare work, and to secure some co-ordination between the activities of the various agencies as the different centres.

*Classes of Welfare Work.*—Welfare work falls into two broad classes, viz., activities inside the factory or *intra-mural* welfare work, and activities outside the factory or *extra-mural* welfare work. *Intra-mural* welfare work includes such items as improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions in factories, ventilation and temperature in factory buildings, etc. An account has already been given of the action taken by Government and by employers to improve working conditions within the factory. The other important items of welfare work which are connected with the working conditions inside a factory are :—(i) Medical attendance ; (ii) Maternity benefits ; (iii) Education ; (iv) Recreation ; (v) Provision of creches ; (vi) Co-operation ; (vii) Housing.

Of these, (i), (ii) and (vii) have been dealt with elsewhere in this memorandum, and an account will now be given of the progress achieved in respect of the remaining items.

*Education.*—The importance of this item does not need to be specially stressed. Education is required for the children employed in factories, *i.e.*, the half-timers, for the children of the adult employees and also, where possible, for the adult workers themselves who are for the most part illiterate. The question of the education of half-timers was the subject of some controversy when the Indian Factories Act of 1911 was under consideration.\* The late Mr. Gokhale moved an amendment designed to compel all factory-owners employing not less than 20 children to provide for their

\* *Vide* Indian Factory Legislation, by A. G. Clow, page 50.

free education for not less than three hours a day. The amendment was opposed by the employers on the ground that it would place on them a burden which was not imposed on employers in other countries, a point of view which later received support from the Indian Industrial Commission.\* This amendment was eventually withdrawn by Mr. Gokhale, and the question of the education of the children employed in factories has lost much of its importance since the amendment of the Factories Act in 1922, which raised the minimum age of admission of children into factories from 9 to 12. The problem of the education of the children of the workers is now gaining in importance as it ensures a future supply of efficient workmen, but the worker does not generally bring his family with him, and progress in this direction must necessarily be slow. The education of the adult worker presents still greater difficulties. Apart from the indifference of the average worker to education, the hours of work are generally so long that it cannot reasonably be expected that after a full day's work in a factory he will willingly spend the little spare time that is available to him in a school. Illiteracy is, however, a serious handicap to the Indian worker, and without education any attempt to improve his efficiency is doomed to failure. Some of the enlightened employers in the country have therefore recognized it as their duty to take whatever measures are possible to promote education not only among their workers, but also among the children of their employees, whom they hope in time to attract to their mills. A brief account of the nature of the special facilities which are being provided in each province for the education of the workers and their children is given below † :—

(a) *Bengal*.—Attempts have been made by some mills to set up day and night schools, but it is reported that the great majority of such schools have been closed owing to the lack of interest shown by employees. Some of the engineering concerns provide for the training of artisans, and it is reported that one concern encourages promising youths to take up recognized professional courses. The progress made in this province is, however, most disappointing.

(b) *Bombay*.—There are special schools for half-timers employed in some of the mills, and night schools have also been established by the Social Service League, which is being subsidized for this purpose by the more enlightened millowners. In Ahmedabad the Millowners' Association makes an annual donation of Rs. 15,000 to the Ahmedabad Labour Union for the maintenance of schools for the children employed in the mills, and for the children of the employees. In Sholapur all the five textile mills provide free education. The railways generally provide schools at the more important stations for the children of their employees.

(c) *Bihar and Orissa*.—The Tata Iron and Steel Company has established a Technical Institute at Jamshedpur, in which theoretical and practical training in metallurgy is given. In addition, the Company maintains twenty ordinary schools for the education of the children of its employees. The Jamalpur Mechanical Department Workshops of the East Indian Railway also maintain a well-equipped technical school. Facilities for education are provided by only a few of the collieries. The Giridih Collieries of the E. I. Railway are, however, doing excellent work for the education of their employees. They maintain 27 elementary schools and one upper primary school. The total number of children attending these schools is reported to be 1,200. An industrial school has also been established where mechanics, drawing, mathematics, etc., are taught.

(d) *Madras*.—The most notable progress has been made by the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills‡ which maintain a day as well as a night school. In 1926-27 there were 1,426 children in the day school and 333 men in the night school. The day school is an elementary school with five standards, and has as many as 34 teachers and 8 technical instructors on the staff. In the technical section attached to the school, carpentry, tailoring, tinsmithy, turning, fitting, and weaving, are taught. The night school has eight standards, and commercial instruction is also given in English and typewriting.

(e) *Burma*.—Very few firms provide facilities for education. The Burma Oil Company maintains schools in the Yenangyaung Oilfield for about 800 children, and is proposing to start a night school for their employees. The Burma Corporation makes an annual donation of Rs. 1,000 for the maintenance of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School at Namtu, and is also constructing a school at Bawdwin for the education of the children of its employees.

\* *Vide* paragraph 142 of the Report.

† For further details a reference is invited to the pamphlet entitled "The Education of Factory Children in India," published in 1918 by the Bureau of Education and to the Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India.

‡ *Vide* Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India for 1922-27.

(f) *United Provinces.*—The British India Corporation (which is a congregation of five large mills in Cawnpore and two outside Cawnpore) maintains six schools for children and industrial classes for its employees. The only other concerns which take any interest in the promotion of education are the Elgin Mills at Cawnpore, the United Agra Mills, Agra, and the B.N.W. Railway Workshops at Gorakhpur, which provide for the education of the children of the employees.

(g) *Punjab.*—No facilities are provided for the education of adult workers. The New Egerton Woollen Mills Company, Dhariwal, maintains a school in which the daily attendance is reported to be about 400.

(h) *Central Provinces.*—The mills in Nagpur have entrusted their welfare work to the Young Men's Christian Association, which has established nine centres where the millworkers reside, and in each centre there is a school. The average daily attendance in these schools, which are run by the Young Men's Christian Association on contributions raised from the mills, is reported to be about 420.

(i) *Assam.*—Some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children, but these schools are not popular, as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount, particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School, and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provides a Middle English School and a Primary School for the children of their employees.

*Recreation.*—The lot of the Indian worker is by no means a happy one and, if he is to be kept contented, every possible attempt should be made to add a little colour to the drab life in industrial employment. It is also most important that he should be encouraged to spend his spare time in healthy recreation, so that he may be saved from the attractions of the liquor shop. Though employers are beginning to recognize the value of recreation, the facilities so far provided are on a very small scale. In Bombay \* it is reported that playgrounds for the benefit of the employees are provided by only four mills, and that very few employees take advantage of them. The management of the Kohinoor Mills, Limited, regularly arranges for dramatic performances, cinema shows, and open air lectures, and it is stated that the average attendance at the open-air lectures is about 2,000. The Alexander and E. D. Sassoon Mills also provide for lectures and magic-lantern shows, etc. The Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute, which is run by the Social Service League, provides a gymnasium, a social club, a cricket club, and makes periodic arrangements for sports and excursions. At Ahmedabad only one mill provides an open ground for sports, whilst only one or two others provide for periodic entertainments. The mills in Sholapur appear to be more advanced in this respect. Three out of the five cotton mills at that place provide facilities for outdoor sports. One mill has started a boy-scout movement, and the troop strength is reported to be 120. The same mill distributes sweets to the children on the playground in order to encourage them to take healthy exercise.

In Bengal very little is being done for the promotion of healthy recreation among the employees. Attempts have been made to encourage sports and games, but the response has been poor. A few mills make special arrangements for cinema and gramophone entertainments.

In Bihar and Orissa the Tata Iron and Steel Company maintains libraries and reading rooms for its employees. Special facilities are also provided on a generous scale for games, sports and other forms of recreation. The only other concerns in the province which provide facilities for recreation on any appreciable scale are the Giridih Collieries and the Jamalpur Workshops under the East Indian Railway.

In Madras the only concerns, whose activities in this direction are worthy of mention, are the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company, and the South Indian Railway Company. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills have organized their welfare work on an extensive scale, and a Welfare Committee consisting of the management and the workpeople has been constituted to take charge of these activities. The railway administrations make grants-in-aid to sports clubs at important centres.

In the United Provinces, apart from the activities of the British India Corporation, practically nothing is being done to promote this class of welfare work among the employees. The British India Corporation provides large playgrounds for hockey, football, cricket, etc., and gives a grant-in-aid to the workers' clubs in their settlements.

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\* *Vide* Article on Welfare Work in the Bombay Presidency on pages 432-442 of the Bombay Labour Gazette for January, 1927.

In the Central Provinces grounds for outdoor sports are provided in seven textile mills, one match factory and in some of the mines, collieries and cement and pottery works. The Young Men's Christian Association is also carrying on very useful work at Nagpur.

In the Punjab very little is being done.

In Burma, facilities for recreation are provided only by the Burma Corporation at Namtu and Bawdwin and by the Burma Oil Company at Yenangaung.

In Assam, cinema and other entertainments are provided occasionally in most gardens, and in a number of them football and playing fields are also provided for the employees. The Assam Oil Company and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provide football and cricket grounds for their employees and occasionally make arrangements for cinema shows and other entertainments.

*Creches.*—The provision of creches is of great importance in factories where women are employed in large numbers. In most cases women workers find it exceedingly difficult to find any responsible person to take charge of their young children whilst they are at work in the mills. This difficulty is in part responsible for the prevalence in Bombay of the habit of drugging children with opium in order to keep them quiet. From the point of view of employers these creches are valuable in securing more regular work from the women operatives. Here, too, the ignorance of the worker has made progress difficult. There still exists a certain amount of prejudice in the minds of the women workers against these creches and great difficulty has been experienced in persuading them to leave their children in the charge of nurses. Much tact is necessary to overcome the suspicions of mothers, and the success of a creche is dependent largely on the personality of the lady supervisor. The greatest progress has been achieved in Bombay, where creches are now being provided in a number of textile mills. These creches are becoming increasingly popular with the female employees. The lady supervisors have in many instances been able to persuade mothers to give up the practice of administering opium to their children and to teach them the elementary principles of child welfare. Creches have also been provided in a number of mills in Ahmedabad and in all the five textile mills in Sholapur. In the Central Provinces and Berar, creches have been provided in six textile mills, which employ a large number of women. In other provinces the progress is negligible and creches have been provided only in a few isolated cases.

*Co-operation.*—The co-operative movement has as yet hardly touched the fringe of the industrial population. The Social Service League, Bombay, has organized several co-operative credit societies among the millhands in Bombay, whilst the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur and the Empress Mills at Nagpur appear to be the only two concerns which have made any serious attempt to promote co-operation among their employees. The organization of co-operative societies among industrial workers has not made much progress owing to their general illiteracy and migratory habits, but the movement is undoubtedly one of considerable importance, as it is calculated to promote thrift and to save the worker from falling into the clutches of the moneylender.

#### Chapter VIII.—Safety.

*Industrial Accidents in India.*—An American writer in referring to industrial accidents observed as follows:—"While the bread of the labourer is earned in the sweat of his brow, it is eaten in the peril of his life. Whether he works upon the sea, upon the earth, or in the mines underneath the earth, the labourer constantly faces imminent death; and his danger increases with the progress of the age. With each new invention the number of killed and injured rises."

As in other countries, the industrial progress of India has been accompanied by an alarming increase in the number of industrial accidents. The seriousness of the problem will be apparent from the fact that the total accident rate per 100,000 employees in factories rose from 520 in 1904 to 1,025 in 1927; whilst in mines the total accident rate per 100,000 operatives also rose from 146 in 1904 to 357 in 1927. The death rate per 1,000 persons employed in mines rose from 0.63 in 1902 to 0.92 in 1927. Even after making due allowance for the fact that the reporting of accidents was not altogether satisfactory in the earlier years, it is clear that the growing industrialization of the country has increased to a considerable extent the risk of injury to which the workers are exposed.

The detailed statistics of accidents in factories and mines from 1904 to 1927 are given in the table at the end of this chapter. The accident rate in factories is highest in Bihar and Orissa, where in 1927 it was 2,875 per 100,000 operatives. This is due to the steel industry, which was alone responsible for 75 per cent. of the total number



of accidents in the whole province. The accident rate in factories in other provinces for the same year is shown as follows:—Burma, 1,433; Punjab, 1,412; United Provinces, 1,388; Bombay, 1,257; Madras, 920; Bengal, 634; Central Provinces, 427; Assam, 138. In the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bombay and Madras a large proportion of the accidents occurred in the railway workshops, but, as the result of an investigation made by the Railway Board it was discovered that the railway workshops were reporting a number of very trivial accidents which do not require to be reported under the Act. In mines the death rate is highest in coal mines where the average death rate per 1,000 workers during the ten years ending with, and including 1926, was 1.22 as compared with 0.98 for all mines under the Coal Mines Act in Great Britain. Statistics cannot, however, measure the sacrifice and suffering caused to the workers and their families. The problem of checking the waste of human life incident to the production of wealth is the direct concern of society, and the State cannot leave entirely to the employers the important business of safeguarding the workers in industry.

*Safety Regulations in Factories.*—The provisions relating to safety in factories are contained in Sections 15-20 of the Indian Factories Act. The powers vested in the inspectors of factories under Sections 16, 18, 18 A and 19 A are subject to an appeal to the local government, or to such authority as it may appoint in this behalf, and the appeal must be heard with the aid of assessors if the applicants so desire.\* Except in the case of an appeal against an order under Section 19 A (prohibition of the presence of children in factories) the appellate authority may, on the application of the appellant, suspend the operation of an order of the inspector pending the decision of the appeal. Rules have been framed by local governments under the Indian Factories Act, which lay down in greater detail the measures which have to be taken for the safety of the operatives. These rules provide for the precautions to be taken against fire and for the proper fencing of machinery. The rules regarding precautions against fire are briefly as follows:—Every building of more than one storey shall be provided with at least two sets of stairs, and such stairs shall be provided with a suitable and efficient hand-rail. In factories of more than one storey every window or door giving access to an external staircase shall be so arranged as to open immediately from inside. Ginning factories shall be provided with at least two flights of stairs made of brickwork or other fire-resisting material. The manager shall cause notices to be exhibited prohibiting smoking and the use of naked lights in all places where they would be dangerous, or where the inspectors may so require. In any factory where the process of manufacture necessitates the use of inflammable materials, efficient means of subduing outbreaks of fire shall be kept ready for immediate use.

With regard to the fencing of machinery the provisions contained in the provincial rules may be summarised as follows:—In every factory all moving parts of machinery shall be securely fenced, unless they are so situated that in the opinion of the inspector they are incapable of causing injury to the workers. Fencing shall be so designed as to give protection to a person oiling, cleaning or otherwise attending to the machinery, and to all persons who may be in the neighbourhood of a moving part whilst it is in motion. All electrical circuits or parts of such, or any objects electrically connected with them, which by reason of their position could cause injury to any person, shall be adequately protected and in such a manner as to remove danger of injury. Every hoist and teagle, and every place where material of sufficient weight is raised or lowered, shall, where practicable, be so fenced as to prevent injury to any person in its descent. Every opening in the ground or in a floor which, owing to its situation or otherwise could cause personal injury, shall be so fenced as to prevent any such injury. There are also some additional and special provisions relating to textile and ginning factories. In Burma, which is the home of the timber industry, additional safeguards are provided for the fencing of circular saws.

The provincial rules also prescribe measures for the protection of persons attending to machinery or boilers. These are briefly as follows:—All important pulleys shall be provided with belt hangers or perches. Suitable string gear shall be provided and used to move driving shafts on all fast and loose pulleys. Lubrication of bearing or gear-wheels or replacing or adjusting of belts shall be done only by an experienced and specially trained person. Service platforms and gangways shall be provided for overhead shafting and, where required by the inspector, shall be securely fenced with guard rails and toe boards. No transmission machinery in motion shall be cleaned by cotton waste, rags or similar material held in the hand. Every shafting ladder shall be fitted with hooks or some other effective non-skid device. No person engaged

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\* *Vide* Section 50 of the Indian Factories Act.

in oiling or adjusting belts or in any other work within reach of unfenced transmission machinery shall be allowed to wear loosely fitting clothing. No women or child shall be allowed to clean machinery in motion. Safe and convenient access is to be provided to all bearings. All water gauge glasses of boilers working under high pressure shall be securely guarded. Efficient measures are to be taken for securing and maintaining sufficient and suitable lighting in every part of a factory in which persons are working or passing.

In the United Provinces, the Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam, a provision is made in the rules which requires the occupier or manager of a factory, if called upon to do so by the Chief Inspector of Factories, "to supply such drawings, specifications or particulars, and to carry out such examination or tests as may, in the opinion of the Chief Inspector of Factories, be necessary in order to determine whether any part of the machinery or plant is in such a condition that it can be used without danger to human life or safety." The Bengal Government have issued a rule to the effect that the operation of all railways or other electrical or mechanical means of transport within the precincts of a factory shall be such as to satisfy the Inspector that there is no danger to human life and safety. Recently the Government of Bihar and Orissa have also stressed the importance of control over the operation of factory railways. In the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur there are over one hundred miles of railway line, and from the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar and Orissa, it appears that the rules framed by the company for the operation of their railways are inadequate for the safety of the workers in the crowded parts of the factory and that even these rules are not always being observed. The company has been somewhat slow to accept suggestions for improving its traffic operation, and the local government consider greater control is necessary than is provided for by the Indian Factories Act. The only section of the Act which can be held to be applicable to factory railways is Section 18 A, but this only empowers the inspector to issue orders in a case in which he is satisfied that locomotives or rolling stock are in a dangerous condition, or in which he considers that some part of the permanent way is defective. But it is not only the condition of the plant, etc., which may be a source of danger to the operatives but also the method of operation, particularly in places where there are large numbers of workers. In order to secure adequate safety the local government considers that it should be empowered to frame rules which will (a) prescribe speed limits, subject to exceptions where there is no danger; (b) prescribe that a flagman should precede all trains except in localities which may be exempted; (c) prevent unauthorized persons from riding on trains; and (d) provide general standards for brakes on rolling stock.

The Government of India suggested to the local government that if the Inspector of Factories was unable to secure adequate safety by means of instructions under Section 18 A of the Act an application may be made to the Governor-General in Council for the delegation of the necessary powers to the local government under Section 144 of the Indian Railways Act.

*Safety Regulations in Mines.*—The Indian Mines Act of 1923 empowers the Governor-General in Council to frame regulations for the safety of persons employed in mines (Section 29, clauses (k) to (p)). Local governments are also empowered to frame rules under the Act to ensure the proper fencing of a mine for the protection of the public. In addition, the Chief Inspector of Mines may call upon the owner, agent or manager of a mine to frame bye-laws which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act, regulations or rules to prevent accidents and to provide for the safety, convenience and discipline of the persons employed in the mine (Section 32). The bye-laws, when approved by the local government, have effect as if enacted under the Act. Further, Section 19 of the Act gives special powers to the Inspector of Mines to take action when any danger is apprehended which is not expressly provided for by the Act, regulations, rules and the bye-laws. The Governor-General in Council has framed two sets of regulations, viz., the Indian Coal Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply only to coal mines, and the Indian Metalliferous Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply to all other mines. These regulations provide for the proper maintenance of shafts and outlets, roads and working places, haulage arrangements, fencings and gates; for the restrictions which have to be observed in raising or lowering persons or materials; for the precautions to be taken in the use of explosives; and for adequate ventilation and lighting.

*Reporting of Accidents in Factories and Mines.*—Both the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act provide for the prompt reporting of accidents. Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident.

Accidents in factories are divided into three classes, viz., fatal accidents, serious accidents, i.e., accidents which prevent a person from returning to work for 21 days or more, and minor accidents. All three classes of accidents are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the district magistrate, and, in case of any accident resulting in death, to the officer-in-charge of the police station. It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the cause of and the responsibility for a fatal or serious accident, and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned if it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act. Section 34 of the Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a local government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person. So far notifications have been issued under this section only in Bombay, Bengal and Burma.\* Section 20 of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, requires the owner, agent or manager to report any accident causing loss of life or serious bodily injury and also any accidental explosion, ignition, outbreak of fire or irruption of water in or about a mine. The Inspector of Mines has to be informed immediately by telephone or telegram, and a notice in the prescribed form has to be sent within 24 hours to the district or sub-divisional magistrate. Section 21 of the Act empowers the local government to appoint a court of inquiry in cases of accidents.

*Causes of Accidents in Factories and Mines.*—Provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act frequently refer to the ignorance and carelessness of the workers, which are responsible for a great many of the accidents. The fact is that the education of the operative has not kept pace with the increase in the complexity of the plant and processes consequent on the growing industrialization of the country. The inspectors of factories are doing all they can to encourage the managements with which they deal to give due attention to safety methods, and considerable progress has been made in all provinces in the fencing of dangerous machinery. But employers have not always shown due regard for the safety of their operatives. Cases are by no means rare in which accidents are due to lack of supervision or an indulgence in unsafe practices on the part of the management. Thus the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar and Orissa, for the year ending 31st December, 1926, refers to a series of catastrophes which were due to the "technical incompetence" of the management. The Punjab and Burma Reports for 1927 also refer to the disregard shown by some factory owners for the essential and oft-repeated precautions against accidents. In some of the provincial reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act, accidents are classified according to their causing agent.† Plant and machinery account for the highest number of accidents, but there are also other important causes, such as falling weights, persons falling and slipping, explosions, fires, hot liquids and molten metals, flying splinters and hand tools. In Bengal, 42 per cent. of the total accidents in 1927 were caused by machinery and another 18 per cent. by falling objects. The percentages in Bombay were 31 and 18, and in Bihar and Orissa 38 and 21, respectively. The percentage of accidents in these three provinces in 1927, which were caused by persons slipping and falling, were 7, 10 and 9, respectively. In mines under the Indian Mines Act, the responsibility for fatal accidents in 1927, as gauged by the inspectors of mines, was as follows :—

	Number of fatal accidents.	Percentage of total number of fatal accidents.
Misadventure . . . . .	131	62.68
Fault of deceased . . . . .	45	21.53
Fault of fellow workmen . . . . .	7	3.35
Fault of subordinate officials . . . . .	14	6.70
Fault of management . . . . .	12	5.64
Total . . . . .	209	100.00

It will be observed that with proper care a large proportion of the accidents might have been prevented.

\* The substance of the notification in these Provinces is reproduced in Appendix VIII.

† *Vide* Bengal and Assam Report for 1927, pages 55-56; B. and O. Report for 1927, pages 35-36; Bombay Report for 1927, pages 14-15; Madras Report for 1927, page 9.

The following is an abridged classification of fatal accidents which occurred during the last five years. The figures show the number of lives lost :—

Cause.	Period.						Per-centage.
	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1923-27.	
Explosions and suffocation by gases.	87	2	4	7	10	110	8
Falls of roof and side ..	193	151	123	122	122	711	51.7
In shafts .. .. .	32	31	28	17	10	118	8.58
Explosives .. .. .	11	26	19	17	27	100	7.27
Haulage .. .. .	29	20	15	26	24	114	8.29
Miscellaneous underground	13	17	20	12	23	85	6.19
Surface .. .. .	19	29	22	25	29	124	9.02
Electricity .. .. .	3	5	2	1	2	13	0.95
Total .. .. .	387	281	233	227	247	1,375	100.00

The bulk of mine accidents in India, as in all mining countries, are due to falls of roof and side.\* The heavy death rate on account of explosions in 1923 was due to an accident which occurred on the 4th January, 1923, at the Parbelia Colliery of the Bengal Coal Company, in the district of Manbhum, Bihar and Orissa, in which alone 74 lives were lost. Measured by the death rate this accident was the most serious accident that has occurred in the history of mining in India. The committee which was appointed by the local government to enquire into the accident came to the conclusion that it was due to an explosion of coal dust caused by a faultily placed shot. The committee also drew attention to the fact that owing to the introduction of coal-cutting machinery, which produced dust in greater quantity and of finer consistency than the old system of hand-cutting, the danger of explosions had greatly increased in Indian mines and recommended that this danger should be systematically investigated by a representative committee. A committee, with the Chief Inspector of Mines as Chairman, was accordingly appointed by the Government of India in 1923 with the following terms of reference:—"To enquire into the danger of explosions of coal dust in Indian mines; to make experiments on different kinds of coal dust with a view to determine their liability to explode or otherwise; and to report what means, if any, are necessary or desirable to provide against the risk of coal dust explosions in Indian coal mines." The committee submitted its first report in 1924 and a second report in 1929, but its investigations have not yet been completed.

*Accident Prevention.—Use of Safety Posters.*—Progress in the prevention of accidents rests to a very large extent in the education of the worker in safety methods. Regulations and safety devices have done much to check the speedily rising accident rate in factories and mines, but the Indian worker requires protection against his own ignorance and carelessness, which is due to his inability to recognize the risk which he runs in industrial employment. Some of the larger employers of labour are now beginning to realize the importance of educating the worker to a sense of greater responsibility to himself and to his fellow workers. The Government of Madras have issued a rule requiring all factory owners to affix in conspicuous places in every room in which machinery is in use a notice, both in English and in the vernacular of the district, warning all operatives of what they should or should not do within the factory. Such notices cannot, however, achieve very much in India, where the vast majority of the operatives are illiterate. Safety posters, which have been tried with great success in America and Europe, are the only means of warning the illiterate worker against the particular actions which may endanger his life or the life of his fellow-workers. But it is not so easy to design safety posters which are both simple and arresting enough to penetrate the mental equipment of the average Indian operative. So far few employers in India have recognized the value of safety posters. They have been introduced in some of the railway workshops in Bombay, and the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, reports that they have been so well received by the employees that they have been obtained and are being tried in other engineering shops in the province. The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association has also now recognized the value of safety posters as an aid in the reduction of accidents and has undertaken the preparation of some posters for the textile industry. The posters which are now under preparation will illustrate the danger on carding machines at the front plate, either during or after the shifting

\* An interesting analysis of accidents in mines is given in an article on "Regulations for the prevention of Accidents in Indian Mines," by Mr. R. R. Simpson, M.Sc., Chief Inspector of Mines in India, in the Journal of Indian Industries and Labour, Vol. I, Part III, for August, 1921.

process, dangers at the under side of the lickers-in, dangers of wearing unsuitable clothing, and the danger from careless sweeping under ring frames. Safety posters showing the right and the wrong way to perform various mining operations with safety have also been introduced in some of the collieries, and the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India indicates that mine-owners are to an increasing extent carrying on a "safety first" propagaunda among their labour force. In other countries "safety committees," consisting of the management and the employees from the various departments, have been able to play an important part in checking the increase in the number of accidents by concentrating attention on all industrial risks. In India it is unfortunately not yet possible to secure the same degree of co-operation from the workers as in the west. Safety committees are, however, to be found in the railway workshops and from the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bengal, it appears that an experiment is being made with such a committee in a jute mill in that province.

*First Aid and Medical Relief.*—Some of the local governments have framed rules requiring the provision, under the charge of responsible persons and in readily accessible positions, of first aid appliances containing an adequate number of sterilized dressings and some sterilized cotton wool in all factories employing 500 and more operatives. The legality of such rules is somewhat doubtful, but it may be stated that they have not been challenged in any of the five major and four minor provinces in which they have been in force during the last six years. Most of the factories are situated within easy reach of Government hospitals or hospitals maintained by local authorities, but many of the large and enlightened employers are already maintaining their own medical staff and equipment, which are readily available in case of accidents.

In Indian mines the mortality from injuries of a simple character is high, owing to the fact that in many cases the injured persons have to be carried long distances before they are able to obtain medical relief. The provision of "firstaid" training is, therefore, of considerable importance. Rules have been framed by local governments under the Indian Mines Act of 1923, which require that in every mine in which 50 persons or more are employed underground, at least one person for every 100 persons employed underground shall be trained in ambulance work to the standard of St. John's First Aid Certificate. The rules also require mines which have been notified in this behalf by the local government under Section 18 of the Act to keep a suitably constructed stretcher and a sufficient supply of splints, bandages and other medical requirements. Classes in "first aid" are held both in the Jharia and the Raniganj coalfields. In 1927, such classes were held at 45 centres in the Jharia coalfield and at 14 centres in the Raniganj coalfield.

*Accidents in Factories.*

Year.	Number of persons injured in recorded accidents.				Number of persons injured for every 100,000 persons employed.			
	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.
1904	91	586	2,383	3,060	15	100	405	520
1905	111	499	2,642	3,252	18	79	417	514
1906	85	738	2,739	3,563	13	107	396	516
1907	120	833	2,797	3,750	17	114	383	514
1908	128	891	2,680	3,699	17	116	349	482
1909	123	897	3,016	4,036	15	114	385	514
1910	139	886	3,354	5,379	18	112	423	553
1911	108	985	3,129	4,222	14	124	395	533
1912	122	1,019	3,367	4,508	14	117	387	518
1913	143	1,101	3,587	4,831	15	118	383	516
1914	114	798	4,017	4,929	12	84	422	518
1915	115	923	4,414	5,452	11	92	439	542
1916	169	1,098	3,956	5,223	16	103	373	492
1917	144	887	3,961	4,992	14	82	368	464
1918	180	1,108	3,775	5,063	16	99	335	450
1919	145	957	4,321	5,423	12	82	369	463
1920	190	1,197	4,371	5,767	16	96	353	465
1921	203	1,179	5,634	7,016	16	93	445	554
1922	191	1,207	5,562	6,960	14	89	409	512
1923	197	1,333	5,507	7,037	17	91	391	499
1924	284	1,690	8,055	10,029	20	118	565	703
1925	263	2,181	9,901	12,645	18	166	662	846
1926	270	3,155	11,441	14,866	18	208	753	979
1927	242	3,403	12,066	15,711	16	222	787	1,025

*Accidents in Mines.*

Year.	Number of persons injured in recorded accidents.			Number of persons injured for every 100,000 persons employed.		
	Fatal.	Serious.	Total.	Fatal.	Serious.	Total.
1904	73	84	157	68	78	146
1905	71	97	168	64	89	153
1906	106	82	188	82	64	146
1907	122	128	250	80	84	164
1908	195	140	335	118	85	203
1909	152	176	328	108	125	233
1910	186	110	296	129	76	205
1911	174	136	310	118	93	211
1912	185	153	338	112	93	205
1913	211	209	420	116	115	231
1914	191	258	449	103	139	242
1915	188	272	460	104	151	255
1916	206	297	503	104	150	254
1917	201	305	506	95	144	239
1918	243	232	475	102	98	200
1919	312	372	684	125	149	274
1920	225	301	526	96	129	225
1921	293	349	642	117	140	257
1922	243	300	543	106	131	237
1923	387	344	731	165	146	311
1924	281	424	705	109	164	273
1925	233	496	729	92	195	286
1926	227	540	767	87	208	295
1927	247	713	960	92	265	357

**Chapter IX.—Workmen's Compensation.**

*The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.*—The increase in the number of accidents consequent on the growing industrialization of the country made it necessary for the Government of India to consider the possibility of introducing a system of workmen's compensation in India. The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, which was passed in 1923 and came into force on the 1st July, 1924, was based on similar legislation in other countries, but it has certain distinctive features to suit the special conditions obtaining in India. The advisability of such a measure was generally recognized, but owing to the migratory habits of the Indian worker, the paucity of qualified medical men, the tendency to litigation which is strong even among the poorer classes, and the ignorance and illiteracy of the workmen, the introduction of a practicable system of workmen's compensation presented considerable difficulties. The Act was admittedly a tentative measure, and as stated by the Government of India in a letter addressed to local governments, "many of its features owe their origin more to a desire to minimize the difficulties attendant on the introduction of an entirely new measure of this kind than to any belief in their permanent value." It is not possible in this memorandum to describe in detail the provisions of the Indian Act, for which a reference is necessary to the Act itself. But it may be useful here to refer briefly to some of its more important features; these are dealt with under three heads, viz., the scope of the Act, the scale of compensation benefits, and administration.

(i) *Scope of the Act.*—The Act extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas. It was subsequently extended to the Shan States in Burma, Aden, the Military Cantonment of Bangalore and the Andaman Islands. The Act does not apply to all work in India, and as stated in the Statement of Objects and Reasons prefaced to the Bill on its introduction,

two criteria were followed in the determination of the classes to be included :—  
 (1) That the Bill should be confined to industries which are more or less organized ;  
 (2) that only workmen whose occupation is hazardous should be included.

Neither of these criteria can be said to be logically sound, but the inclusion of all classes of workmen would have rendered the administration of the Act impossible. As a first step, the object of the Government of India was to include only those workmen who are most affected by the increased risks of modern industry. The persons protected are those included within the definition of the term "workman" in Section 2 (1) (a) of the Act.

Casual labourers employed otherwise than for the purpose of the employers' trade or business are excluded from the scope of the Act. In all cases, excepting railway servants, persons employed on non-manual labour are excluded if their monthly wages exceed Rs. 300. For railway servants this limitation does not apply, provided they do not come under any of the other categories of workmen, e.g., persons employed in railway workshops or mines. The Act is not applicable to agricultural workers and workers in organized plantations nor to workers in small industrial establishments and in industries not making use of power of any kind. The Governor-General in Council is empowered to bring within the scope of the Act other classes of workmen whose occupations are of a hazardous nature. Several such classes have been added since the Act came into force, but no large extension of the scope of the Act is possible so long as the two criteria referred to above are maintained.

(ii) *Scale of Compensation Benefits.*—As stated by Dr. Downey, "the scale of compensation benefits is the crux of the compensation system."\* The recommendation adopted by the Seventh International Labour Conference laid down that the minimum compensation should be two-thirds of the amount which the workman would have earned had he not been killed or incapacitated, and it is difficult to see how the workman or his family can, without hardship, do with less. In India, however, the agricultural connection of the industrial worker and the joint family system are of some avail to him in times of distress. The Act provides for the payment of compensation if personal injury is caused to a workman by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment, and also if the workman contracts certain occupational diseases mentioned in Section 3 (2) and in Schedule III while employed in the occupations specified therein. The compensation is based entirely on the earnings of the deceased or injured workman. The average monthly earnings are first calculated in accordance with Section 5, and these average monthly wages are then subject to what is called a table of "assumed wages" whereby meticulous calculations are avoided by a system of rounding. The scales of compensation laid down in the Act are as follows :—

(a) *Death.*—(i) For adults, 30 times the "assumed" monthly wages, with a maximum limit of Rs. 2,500 ; (ii) for minors (i.e., persons under the age of 15 years), Rs. 200.

(b) *Permanent Total Disablement.*—(i) For adults, 42 times the "assumed" monthly wages with a maximum limit of Rs. 3,500 ; (ii) for minors, 84 times the "assumed" monthly wages, with the same limit as for adults.

(c) *Permanent Partial Disablement.*—A proportion of the compensation payable for permanent total disablement calculated with reference to the reduction of earning power caused by the injury.

(d) *Temporary Disablement.*—After a waiting period of 10 days, for which no compensation is payable, an adult is entitled to a monthly compensation amounting to one-half of his monthly "assumed wages" subject to a maximum of Rs. 30, whereas a minor is entitled to two-thirds of his monthly "assumed wages" subject to the same maximum. In both cases the maximum period for which compensation is payable is five years. The Act also provides for the commutation of the recurring payments.

The scales of compensation in India are thus considerably below the minimum standard suggested in the recommendation of the International Labour Conference. The most striking feature of the Indian Act is the preference for lump sum payments as against recurring payments. This is due to the fact that industrial labour is recruited from distant areas and the payment of lump sums is administratively much more convenient than the payment of pensions. A waiting period of 10 days has been provided in the case of temporary disablement in order to exclude all cases

\* Downey : Workmen's Compensation, page 35.

of trivial injury, which would give rise to administrative difficulties, and to minimize the risk of malingering. The question of the reduction of the waiting period or the adoption of the method known as "dating back" is being considered by the Government of India in consultation with local governments.\* The Act does not expressly provide for a minimum scale of compensation, but as the "assumed wages" of a workman cannot be less than Rs. 8, a minimum compensation is automatically provided for. The minimum is, however, probably inadequate and in the case of death it is only Rs. 240 for adults as against £200 in England.

(iii) *Administration*.—The Act is an "all-India" measure but its administration is entrusted to local governments. It is administered not by the ordinary civil courts but by special commissioners who are appointed by local governments. These officers are called upon to decide disputes and are empowered to summon one or more expert assessors to help them if necessary. The right of appeal to the High Court against the decisions of the commissioners is severely limited. In introducing what is now the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, in the Legislative Assembly, the Honourable Mr. (now Sir) Charles Innes stated: "What we have tried to do is to frame a Bill under which men without any expert legal knowledge, the employer and the workman will be able to see for themselves whether in any particular case compensation is due, and if so, what the compensation amounts to." This desire to leave as few opportunities as possible for litigation has made the provisions of the Act somewhat rigid and has left very little discretion in the hands of those who are called upon to administer it. The liability to compensation, the amount of compensation and the persons to whom compensation is payable are determined by the law itself and cannot be varied by any tribunal. The commissioners for workmen's compensation are not authorized to take the initiative in securing for workmen what is due to them under the Act, and an application can only be made to them "if some question has arisen between the parties which they have been unable to settle by agreement."† In the case of death, however, the employer must deposit the compensation with the commissioner who alone is authorized to distribute the amount among the dependants of the deceased workman. The Act further requires the employer in two cases to register with the commissioner an agreement with his workman for the payment of compensation. One is the case of the payment of any lump sum whether that sum is paid as compensation for permanent disablement or whether it represents the commuted value of half-monthly payments. The other is the case of the payment of any sum, whether a lump sum or a recurring payment to a person under a legal disability. In such cases the commissioner may refuse to register an agreement if he considers that the amount of compensation is inadequate or that the agreement was obtained by improper means. Finally, the Act requires employers to submit such returns as may be prescribed by the Government of India under Section 16.‡

*The Working of the Act*.—The Act has been in operation for nearly five years and, contrary to expectation, its administration has given rise to remarkably little difficulty. But the provisions of the Act are still unfamiliar to workmen in many areas, though each year of its operation has shown a distinct improvement in this respect. Statistics are not collected regarding all cases of compensation paid under the Act but the statistics available for the more important classes of workers, i.e., workers in factories, mines and docks and on railways and tramways, show that the total amount of compensation paid in 1927 in respect of these classes of workmen was over Rs. 11 lakhs, whereas in 1926 and in 1925 it was about Rs. 8½ lakhs and Rs. 6½ lakhs respectively. The total number of accidents among the same classes of workers which occurred in 1927 and which came within the purview of the Act was 15,216, as against 14,096 in 1926 and 11,371 in 1925. The number of applications filed before commissioners has also risen from 284 in 1925 to 554 in 1927. It is clear, however, that full use is not yet being made of the Act; in particular, the number of claims made in respect of minor disablements is still very far short of the number of possible claims. Even in the case of fatal accidents a number of dependants who could have preferred successful claims have failed to do so presumably on account of their ignorance of the law. In the Bengal Presidency no application for compensation was made by any colliery worker in 1925; in 1926 only seven applications were filed, while the number of those filed in 1927 was only four. In the engineering works in the same Presidency only a small proportion of the workers appear to be aware of the existence of the Act. In Burma no compensation has yet been paid for occupational disease, although it is known that cases of lead poisoning occur every year. A hopeful

\* *Vide* circular letter printed as Appendix IX.

† Section 22 (1) of the Act.

‡ Returns have been prescribed for certain classes of employees in Notification No. L.-1189, dated the 28th June, 1924, issued by the Government of India.



feature is the increasingly active part which labour organizations, particularly in Bombay and Bengal, are taking in furthering the claims of their members. A workmen's compensation aid society has been formed in Karachi, which is reported to be doing particularly useful work in this direction. The Act has so far given rise to remarkably little litigation. The number of contested cases before commissioners during 1927 was less than 300 and appeals against the orders of the commissioners have been rare. The experience which has been gained of the working of the Act does not confirm the fear which was expressed in certain quarters that it would lead to cases of deliberate self-mutilation on the part of workmen, with the object of obtaining compensation. No such case has come to notice and in regard to malingering the following statement made by Mr. W. J. Herridge, Manager, Calcutta Claims Bureau, is of some interest :—

"There is some malingering among the more severely injured workmen, but this to a certain extent is only natural. Such malingering, however, is what doctors call 'Traumatic Neurasthenia,' and is particularly noticeable in serious bone injury cases, especially in spine and pelvis fractures. The expression implied that the injured worker does not make any appreciable effort to get well until his case has been settled. When the claim is settled and the worker has received his lump sum compensation, he is relieved of much mental anxiety, and thus obtains that perfect and undisturbed bodily and mental rest without which recovery is well-nigh impossible. This is a very strong argument in favour of payment of lump sum compensation as opposed to weekly payments or pensions."

*Effect on industry.*—A compulsory system of workmen's compensation does enhance the cost of production, but not to any appreciable extent. Dr. Downey in his book on *Workmen's Compensation*\* estimates that a really adequate scale of compensation benefits, such as has never been established in the United States or elsewhere, would only add something like ten cents to the cost of a sixty dollar suit of clothes, thirty-five cents to the cost of a fourteen dollar ton of anthracite coal and two hundred dollars to the cost of a ten thousand dollar home. The effect of the Indian Act with its comparatively low scale of compensation benefits must therefore be almost negligible. Complaints have, however, been made by the coal industry, particularly by the owners of small coal mines, many of whom have been compelled to close down owing to the severe depression with which the industry has been faced. In dealing with these complaints the Indian Coal Committee, 1925,† observed as follows :—

"Frequent mention was made in the evidence before us of the effect of legislation in increasing costs. The requirements of the new Mines Act, the new Boiler Act and the Workmen's Compensation Act together with the higher standard demanded in such matters as housing, sanitation and water-supply have undoubtedly contributed their quota to the enhanced cost of raising coal, but even at the highest estimate the cumulative effect of these cannot in our opinion be placed at more than four annas per ton. The influence of legislation on costs is thus not comparable in importance with that of the increase in wages."

In Bihar and Orissa it is reported that some of the smaller coal mines have shown an increasing tendency to resist claims, and to deny their liability to pay compensation while the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines refers to the fact that the proprietors of coal mines in the Jhelum district of the Punjab are not satisfied with the privileges enjoyed by the miners under the Workmen's Compensation Act, as some of them have had to pay as compensation on a single accident more than they could earn during a month.‡ An unexpected increase in the number of serious and fatal accidents may undoubtedly make a big hole in the profits of a concern, but the remedy for this lies in accident insurance, and this is particularly necessary in the case of small concerns which have not sufficient capital to meet possible claims under the Act.

*Insurance facilities.*—The handling of claims under the Act requires considerable attention to numerous details of procedure, and it is here that insurance companies with their specially trained staff can be of considerable help to the employer. Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of the leading insurance companies in the country, and the most important step has been the establishment of a Claims Bureau at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. These bureaux, which are supported by practically all the leading insurance companies engaged in this particular line, have been set up with the main object of acting on behalf of their constituent companies in connection with the settlement of claims under Workmen's Compensation policies submitted to them for disposal. The works of the Calcutta

\* Op. cit., page 86.

† Paragraph 39 of the Report.

‡ Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India for 1927, page 3.

Claims Bureau in particular has grown with great rapidity since it first came into being. In the first year of operation it handled a total of 1,900 claims; in the second year nearly 2,300; in the third 2,900 and in the fourth over 5,000. The provincial reports on the working of the Act indicate that insurance is widely resorted to by the employers in Bengal, Bombay and Madras. In Burma most of the larger employers of labour are also insured against the risk, but in other provinces accident insurance does not appear to have made much progress.

*Amendments.*—The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act has been twice amended, once in 1926 and again in 1929. The Amending Act of 1926 merely modified the provision relating to occupational diseases in order to bring it into conformity with a draft convention adopted by the International Labour Conference. The amendments made in 1929 related mostly to matters of detail, but the opportunity was also taken to make two important changes. The scope of the Act was extended to workmen employed upon a railway by a person fulfilling a contract with the railway administration, and proviso (c) to sub-section (1) of Section 3 which restricted the payment of compensation in the case of workmen employed in the construction, repair or demolition of a building or bridge only to cases of death and permanent total disablement was removed. The Amending Act of 1929 also incorporated the provisions of the notifications issued by the Governor-General in Council bringing within the scope of the Act certain classes of workers such as inspectors, mail guards, sorters or van peons in the Railway Mail Service, persons employed in connection with certain operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas and persons employed in blasting operations. In regard to dock labourers, the Act was expanded so as to include all persons employed for the purpose of loading, unloading, fuelling, constructing, repairing, demolishing, cleaning or painting any ship. No attempt made to make any modification of the principles underlying the Act or of its more important features.

The Government of India have in their letter No. L-1125, dated the 30th November, 1928,\* addressed local governments on the question of the further revision of the Act, but the replies of some of the local governments have not yet been received.

### Chapter X.—Hours of Work.

*Statutory limitation in factories.*—The Indian Factories Act prescribes a daily as well as weekly limit to the hours of work in factories and provides for rest intervals and for a weekly holiday. The hours of work of adults in factories are limited to eleven † in any one day and to sixty ‡ in any one week. Section 21 of the Act provides for a rest period of at least one hour at intervals not exceeding six hours or at the request of the employees concerned two rest periods of half an hour each, at intervals not exceeding five hours. With the previous sanction of the local government and at the request of the employees concerned the rest interval may also be reduced to half an hour for each male person provided that they are not employed for more than eight and a half hours on each working day, and are not required to work for more than five hours continuously. Section 22 of the Act provides for a weekly holiday on Sundays or on any other day of the week, provided that no person is allowed to work continuously for more than 10 days without a holiday for a whole day. For children the daily hours are limited to six, and a rest period of half an hour is obligatory if their daily hours of work exceed five-and-a-half hours. The rest period, where necessary, must be so fixed that no child is required to work continuously for more than four hours. The Act further prohibits the employment of women and children for a period of 10 † hours during the night. No child can be employed in more than one factory on the same day, but adults may be so employed in such circumstances as may be prescribed by the local government.§ The Governments of Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces are the only local governments which have prescribed the circumstances under which adults may be employed in more than one factory on the same day. The rules framed by these local governments invest the Inspector of Factories with the power to sanction such employment if he is satisfied that the adults concerned are not employed for more than 10 hours on any one day, and that they receive the weekly holiday prescribed by section 22 of the Act.

In order to maintain a check over hours of work, etc., the Act provides that the manager of a factory shall fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in his factory, and that no person shall be employed except during such hours. † A register has also to be maintained of all persons employed in a factory

\* Appendix IX. † Section 28. ‡ Section 27. § Section 25. \*\* Section 26 of the Indian Factories Act.

in the form prescribed by the local government showing their hours of work and the nature of their respective employment. The local government can exempt, by notification, any factory or class of factories from this requirement of the law in the case of adults only, if it is satisfied that no contravention of the provisions of the Act regarding hours of employment and holidays is possible. The Inspector of Factories can also, by an order in writing, allow a factory to maintain a muster roll or any other register in lieu of the register prescribed by the local government if he is satisfied that such muster roll or register gives the necessary particulars.\*

*Hours, intervals and holidays in Indian factories.*—Statement V of the statistics of factories, which is published annually by the Government of India, gives the information available in regard to hours of work, holidays and rest intervals in factories. The percentage of factories in India maintaining a week of 48 hours for men was 27 in 1927. In 14 per cent. more factories the men employed worked for 54 hours or less. The percentage of factories working more than 54 hours a week was 59. For women the corresponding percentages were 31, 13 and 56. Children were employed in 1,564 factories in 1927. In 563 or 36 per cent. of the factories the children employed were worked for 30 hours a week or less, but in the remainder they were worked up to the maximum limit permissible under the Act, *i.e.*, 36 hours a week. The statistics of factories do not show the hours of work in particular industries. From the figures given in the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, it appears that in the cotton factories in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur the normal hours of work for men and women are the maximum prescribed by the Act, whereas the normal hours for children do not exceed 30 in a week except in Bombay District, where there are very few children employed in the cotton mills. In the jute mills of Bengal in which a system of multiple-shifts has been in force, the hours of work are from 5.30 a.m. to 7 p.m. The working of the multiple-shift system in these mills will be seen from the diagram,† which shows the time when each shift is at work, and also the total daily hours of work. The daily hours of work of each of these general shifts are 8½, 9½ and 9 respectively; for piece-workers the daily hours of work are generally 11, and for children 6. In 1922 the jute mills under the Indian Jute Mills Association arrived at an agreement whereby each mill undertook not to work more than 13½ hours a day for 4 days in the week, *i.e.*, a total of 54 hours in the week. In the case of the mills which had adopted the single-shift system it was agreed that the working hours would be 11 hours a day for 4 days of the week and 10 hours on the fifth day, *i.e.*, a total of 54 hours a week. This agreement remained in force till the 1st July, 1929, from which date the Association has decided to introduce a 60-hour week in all jute mills under its control. The change to a 60-hour week may result in the abandonment of the complicated multiple-shift system under which it is exceedingly difficult for the Inspector of Factories to exercise effective control over the hours of work. But the operatives are opposed to the change, as they fear that it will throw some of them out of employment, while the remainder will not secure an increase in wages proportionate to the increase in their hours of work. In the tea factories in Assam and Bengal the hours of work for adults are reported to be generally in the neighbourhood of 48 in a week. In 1927 in no less than 3,704, out of a total of 7,515 factories in British India, holidays were granted on one or more weekdays in addition to Sundays. The number of factories in which a rest period of one full hour was granted on each working-day was 5,299. In 768 more factories the rest period was split into two intervals of half an hour each, while the number of factories in which the rest period was reduced to half an hour in accordance with the proviso to Section 21 (1) (a) of the Act was only 38.

*Exempting provisions of the Indian Factories Act.*—The provisions of the Act relating to hours of employment and holidays do not apply to persons who are defined by the rules made by local governments under the Act, as persons holding positions of supervision or management or to persons employed in a confidential capacity. The rules made by local governments provide that the following persons shall be deemed to hold positions of supervision and management:—(1) the manager of a factory; (2) assistant managers; (3) any other person who, in the opinion of the Inspector of Factories, holds the position of supervision and management. Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces give a more detailed list, and the Bombay Government further lays down that all clerks, accountants and timekeepers shall be deemed to be employed in a confidential capacity. In such circumstances and subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by local governments, the provisions contained in sections 21, 22, 27 and 28 of the Indian Factories Act do not apply to

\* Section 35 of the Indian Factories Act.

† Not reproduced here. The diagram is given in the Memorandum of the Indian Jute Mills Association, Bengal. Vol. V, Part I, page 296.

work on urgent repairs. The further exemptions which may be granted by local governments from certain of the provisions of the Act are shown in the following statement :—

Serial No.	Nature of work, class of factory, class of workers, or circumstances in which exemptions may be granted.	Provisions of the Act from which exemptions may be granted.
1	Preparatory or complementary work— Section 30 (1) (a)	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
2	Essentially intermittent work— Section 30 (1) (b).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
3	Work requiring continuous production for technical reasons— Section 30 (1) (c).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
4	Factories supplying public with articles of prime necessity— Section 30 (1) (d).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
5	Seasonal factories— Section 30 (1) (e) (i).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
6	Factories* which can only work at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces— Section 30 (1) (e) (ii).	Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment).
7	Exceptional press of work— Section 30 (2).	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday). Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week). Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day).
8	Tea, indigo and coffee factories— Section 32.	Section 21 (rest interval). Section 22 (weekly holiday).
9	Persons employed in an engine-room or boiler-house of a factory— Section 32A (a).	Section 22 (weekly holiday).
10	Fish-curing or fish canning factory— Section 32A (b).	Section 24 (a) (employment of women in the night).

It will be observed that exemptions can only be granted from the provisions of Sections 21, 22, 24 (a), 26, 27 and 28 of the Act. No exemption can be granted from the provision of the Act relating to the employment of children in the night (Section 23 (b)), nor can any woman or child be permitted to be employed for more than eleven hours\* or six hours† respectively. Except in the case of item 7 in the statement, the power vested in local governments to grant exemptions is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The local government may also impose such conditions as it may consider necessary before granting any exemption. In the case of items 1, 2, and 7, the Act further provides‡ that where the hours worked exceed 60 a week the payment for overtime shall be at least one and a quarter times the normal rate.

\* Section 24 (b) of the Act.

† Section 23 (c) of the Act.

‡ Section 31 of the Act.

*Exemptions in Factories.*—The total number of factories under the Indian Factories Act was 7,515 in 1927, and the number of factories in which the majority of the operatives were exempted from the various provisions of the Act is shown below :—

Section of Act from which exemption was granted.	Number of factories.
Section 21 (rest interval) .. .. .	1,440
Section 22 (weekly holiday) .. .. .	1,883
Section 26 (fixation of hours of employment) .. .. .	896
Section 27 (limitation of working hours per week) .. .. .	365
Section 28 (limitation of working hours per day) .. .. .	236

Only in one factory in India situated in the Madras Presidency was it necessary to grant an exemption from the provisions of Section 24 (a) of the Act.

The exemptions granted by local governments under the Indian Factories Act may for convenience be divided into two classes, general exemptions and special exemptions. The former consists of exemptions which are of a general nature and applicable to a specified class of work or a specified class of workers without reference to the class of factory in which the work may be carried on or in which the workers may be employed; the latter consists of exemptions which are granted in favour of a particular industry or a particular class of factories or in favour of a specified class of work or a specified class of workers in a particular industry or a particular class of factories. In the Punjab and the Central Provinces no exemptions of a general nature have been granted, but in all the other provinces the exemptions are both general and special. The nature of the exemptions under both these classes, the conditions under which they are granted and their scope are shown in Appendix X and Appendix XI.\* It will be observed that the procedure followed in the different provinces is by no means uniform. For instance, the work of boiler attendants and engine drivers is treated as preparatory or complementary work (Section 30 (1) (a)) in some provinces, whilst in others it is treated as essentially intermittent (Section 30 (1) (b)) or as work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons (Section 30 (1) (c)). Further, the scope of the exemptions differs from province to province, as also the conditions under which they are granted. Thus, breweries in Madras are exempted only from the provisions of Section 22 and in Bihar and Orissa from the provisions of Sections 21 and 22, while in the United Provinces and the Punjab they are further exempted from the provisions of Section 28.

The exception provided for in Section 30 (3) of the Act in regard to work on urgent repairs applies only in such circumstances as may be prescribed by the local government. In Bombay, the Punjab and the Central Provinces no such circumstances have been notified, and the exception provided for by Section 30 (3) of the Act is not applicable in these provinces. The circumstances and conditions prescribed in the other provinces vary to some extent. In the United Provinces the exception is restricted to adults, whereas in Bengal it is still further restricted to men only. In Madras, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam no such restriction is imposed. In Madras the operatives cannot be worked for more than 18 hours a day on three consecutive days or for more than 80 hours in any period of seven days. In Bengal the average weekly hours in any one month are restricted to 60, whilst in Assam they are restricted to 66. In the United Provinces the average weekly hours of an operative employed on urgent repairs in any period of four weeks are not to exceed 66. In Madras, Bengal and Assam no condition is prescribed with regard to the rest interval, but the Government of Burma have insisted on an interval of one hour for every ten hours of work, while the Government of Bihar and Orissa require an interval of one hour to be given before the ninth hour of work commences. The Government of the United Provinces provide that a rest interval of one hour shall be given during the day "as work permits." The Governments of Bengal, United Provinces, Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam also provide specifically for fortnightly holidays for the operatives employed on urgent repairs.

In the case of other exemptions the general practice in all provinces is to insist on a holiday at least once a fortnight wherever an exemption is granted from the provisions of Section 22 of the Act. Three provinces (*viz.*, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces) have framed a rule under the Act which provides that in the case of every exemption from Section 22 of the Act provision shall be made for compensatory periods of rest. The rules framed by all local

\* Not printed. Particulars are given in the Local Government's memoranda.

Governments, excluding Madras and Burma, also prescribe an overtime limit for all exemptions from the provisions of sections 27 and 28 which are granted under section 30 (1) and (2) of the Act. The limits prescribed in the case of men are shown below:—

	Maximum daily hours including overtime.	Maximum weekly hours including overtime.	Maximum hours of overtime in the month.
Bombay and the Central Provinces ..	..	72	..
Bengal ..	..	..	40
The U.P., Punjab, B. and O., and Assam	12	..	..

In the case of women, all the local Governments except Madras have framed rules to secure that no woman is worked overtime for more than six hours a week. In Madras rules were originally framed prescribing overtime limits for men and women, but these rules were recently cancelled by the local Government on the advice of the Advocate-General, Madras, who expressed the opinion that they were not strictly in conformity with the provisions of the Indian Factories Act, inasmuch as the Act requires local Governments to prescribe the conditions under which exemptions are granted in the notifications sanctioning the exemptions and not by means of rules framed under the Act. In this connection, it may be pointed out that the Washington Hours of Work Convention, which has been ratified by India, provides that the competent authority shall fix by regulations the limits of overtime that may be worked in exceptions made from the normal hours of work.\*

When the Indian Factories (Amendment) Act, XXVI of 1926, came into force the Government of India suggested certain broad principles for the guidance of local Governments in granting exemptions. In view of the important amendment made in section 21 of the Act, which made it possible in certain circumstances to reduce the rest interval from one hour to half an hour, the Government of India hoped that it would be possible for local Governments to withdraw a number of exemptions from the provisions of that section. Where exemptions were absolutely necessary, it was suggested that care should be taken to ensure that the operatives so exempted were not required to work continuously for unnecessarily long periods, and that when idle intervals were not a necessary concomitant of their work, the conditions laid down by local Governments should secure for them, in as many cases as possible, compensatory periods of rest. With regard to exemptions from the provisions of section 22 of the principal Act, the Government of India drew attention to the necessity of the strict fulfilment of the Draft Convention relating to the weekly rest day, adopted by the Third International Labour Conference. They also pointed out that section 22 and section 27 were the most important provisions of the Act relating to hours of work and that as few operatives as possible should be exempted from the operation of these sections. Local Governments have since been engaged in reviewing the exemptions granted by them and the revisions so far made indicate that where the existing exemptions have not been withdrawn, suitable conditions have been imposed to secure, as far as possible, compensatory benefits for the employees.

*Hours of Work in Mines.*—The first attempt to regulate the hours of work in mines was made in 1923 as a result of the Hours of Work Convention which was adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919. The Indian Mines Act of 1923 provides that no person shall be employed in a mine for more than 60 hours in any one week, if he works above ground, or for more than 54 hours in any one week, if he works below ground. The Act also provides for a weekly holiday but does not specify any particular day for the purpose. In every mine a register has to be maintained of all persons employed in the mine, of their hours of work, of their days of rest, and of the nature of their respective employments. The Indian Mines Act of 1923 did not impose any limit on the hours during which any person may be employed in a mine on any one day. A proposal to impose such a limit was made in the Legislative Assembly when the Bill was under consideration but was rejected. The opposition to this proposal was based on the ground that the miners prefer to work long hours on certain days of the week and to return to their homes in the village for the rest of the week, and that they would resist any attempt to impose a shorter working day which would necessitate their having to work for more days in the week. The Government of India, however, gave an undertaking at the time that they would examine, in consultation with local Governments, the question of the introduction of a compulsory system of shifts. Local Governments were accordingly addressed on the subject in June, 1923, and a suggestion was made to them that, to begin with, the day might be divided into two shifts of 12 hours each. It was pointed out that as the workers in the mines became accustomed to the

\* Article 6 of the Washington Hours of Work Convention.

stricter regulation of hours the time would come when a shorter working day, with definite rest intervals, might be imposed. The suggestion made by the Government of India, though opposed by the Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation, met with the approval of the local Governments concerned. In March, 1927, a Bill to amend the Indian Mines Act was introduced in the Legislative Assembly. The main purpose of this Bill was to enforce more regular working hours and to prevent miners from spending unduly long hours underground. The Bill sought to prohibit the employment of any person in a mine for more than 12 hours in any consecutive period of 24 hours, and to make it compulsory for mineowners working their mines for more than 12 hours in any day to adopt a system of shifts so arranged that not more than one shift of persons employed in work of the same kind shall be at work in the mine at the same time. The Bill, on being circulated, met with no serious opposition and was passed by both Chambers of the Legislature in 1928. It was considered necessary to allow mineowners a period of grace in order to enable them to make the necessary adjustments in their mines and the main provisions of the amending Act do not therefore come into force until the 7th April, 1930. A proposal was made in the Select Committee and in the Legislative Assembly for the introduction of a compulsory 8-hour day in mines but was rejected. The Select Committee, however, expressed the view that the eight hours' shift should be gradually worked up to in Indian mines and it accordingly recommended that Government should re-examine the position in this respect after the Bill has been in force for a period of three years. Some mines have already introduced an eight hour shift and although the daily hours may be excessive in mines which do not work under a system of shifts, it will be seen from the table printed on pages 88 and 89 of the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for 1927 that the average hours worked in a week in the major coalfields do not exceed 48 [in the case of underground workers and 52 in the case of surface workers.

*Exempting Provisions and the Use made of Them in Mines.*—As in the Indian Factories Act, the provisions in the Indian Mines Act relating to hours of employment\* do not apply to persons who may by rules be defined to be persons holding positions of supervision or management or employed in a confidential capacity. Under section 46 of the Act, the Governor-General in Council is empowered to exempt any local area or any mine or group or class of mines or any part of a mine or any class of persons from the operation of all or any specified provisions of the Act. The exemptions† granted by the Governor-General in Council are as under :—

Exempted from all the provisions of the Act :—

1. Mines of *hanhar*, *murum*, laterite, gravel, sand, clay (not including kaolin, china clay, or white clay), fire clay, ochre, stone, earth, fuller's earth, bauxite, slate, and lime-stone :

Provided that the depth of the excavation measured from the level of the adjacent ground nowhere exceeds 20 feet and that not more than 50 persons are employed at any one time in or about the mine : Provided further that this exemption shall not apply to :—(a) Slate mines in the province of the Punjab and in the Monghyr district of the province of Bihar and Orissa. (b) Limestone mines in the districts of Shahabad and Jubbulpore. (c) The Danapahari fire-clay mine situate in Bonjamuri village in the Asansol sub-division of the Burdwan district.

2. Borings and oil wells.
3. Mines or parts of mines in which excavation is being carried out for prospecting purposes only and not for the purpose of obtaining minerals for use or sale :

Provided that—

- (i) not more than 20 persons are employed in or about such excavation ;
  - (ii) no part of the excavation extends beneath the superjacent ground ; and
  - (iii) the depth of the excavation measured from the level of the adjacent ground nowhere exceeds 20 feet or, in the case of an excavation for coal, 50 feet.
4. Iron-ore mines worked without mechanical power, the whole of the ore from which is supplied locally to village smelters and blacksmiths.
  5. In the North-West Frontier Province :—
    - (i) Salt mines in the Kohat district.
    - (ii) Carbonaceous clay pits in the Hazara district.

\* Section 23.

† The provisions of the notification are printed in a slightly abridged form.

## 6. In the Province of Burma :—

(i) Steatite mines in the Kyaukpyu, Chin Hills, and Minbu Districts and the Pakokku Hill Tracts and native precious stone mines in the Katha district.

(iii) The ore-dressing plant of the Burma Corporation, Limited, at Namtu, Northern Shan States.

## 7. In the Province of Bihar and Orissa :—

Five specified coke factories.

(vi) Open excavations for coal in the Rajmahal coalfields in the district of the Santhal Parganas, provided that not more than 20 persons are employed in or about the mine at any one time.

## 8. In the United Provinces :—

Certain specified stone quarries in the Mirzapur district.

## 9. In the Presidency of Bombay :—

(i) Kharkhada stone quarry in the Kaira district.

Exempted from the provisions contained in sections 23 and 28 :—

All mines in the Federated Shan States, and such mines in the Tavoy and Mergui districts as are worked under the tribute system.

The exemptions are from all the provisions of the Act, except in the case of the mines in the Federated Shan States and in the Tavoy and Mergui districts worked under the "tribute" system, where it is necessary to grant exemptions only from the provisions of sections 23 and 28 of the Act. In these mines the management deal only with the "tributaries" who are paid for the quantity of ore which they produce. The "tribute" workers come with their "tributary" and work in the mine whenever they please. They are paid by the "tributary" and the management exercise no control whatsoever over them.

Section 46 of the Indian Mines Act also confers a similar power on local Governments but this power can only be exercised on the occurrence of a public emergency. In addition, the Act authorizes the manager of a mine to employ persons for longer hours than is permissible under the Act in case of an emergency involving serious risk to the safety of the mine or of persons employed therein, but on each occasion in which this power is exercised by the manager a record of the fact must be made immediately and shown to the Chief Inspector or the Inspector of Mines at his next inspection of the mine.

#### Chapter XL.—Women and Children in Factories and Mines.

*Employment of Children in Factories.*—The revision of the Indian Factories Act in 1922 raised the minimum age of children from nine to twelve and the maximum age from fourteen to fifteen. No child can be employed in a factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted by a certifying surgeon showing that he is not less than twelve years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate. A child cannot also be employed during a period of ten and a-half hours during the night and his hours of work are limited to six in any one day.

The number of children employed in factories during the years 1921–27 is shown in the following table :—

Year.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1921	56,926	11,187	68,113
1922	56,552	11,106	67,658
1923	61,841	12,779	74,620
1924	60,240	12,291	72,531
1925	57,199	11,526	68,725
1926	50,015	10,079	60,094
1927	40,028	9,534	49,562

The decrease since 1921 in the number of children employed in factories has been a little over 27 per cent. whilst the total factory population has risen during the period from 1,266,395 to 1,533,382, i.e., an increase of 21 per cent., and the total number of factories has increased from 4,059 to 7,515, i.e., by 85 per cent. The reduction in the number of children would have been considerably greater but for the fact that the revision in 1922 also brought within the scope of the Indian Factories Act a number of seasonal factories which employ a larger percentage of children than perennial factories. Thus the large increase in the number of children in 1923 is explained by the fact that the tea factories in Assam employing no less than 11,000 children were now brought within the scope of the Act.\* Further, the amendment

\* Cf. Section 3 (1) (d) of the old Act.



of the Act in 1922 did not apply to children who were lawfully employed in a factory on or before the 1st July, 1921\*, and it was not until 1924 that full effect was given to the new age restrictions for children. The effect which the amendment of the Act in 1922 had on the employment of children is seen more clearly from the following table which gives the number of children employed in jute mills and in cotton spinning and weaving mills during the years 1921-27 :—

Year.	No. of children employed in jute mills.	No. of children employed in cotton mills.
1921 .. .. .	29,372	23,828
1922 .. .. .	24,428	20,451
1923 .. .. .	28,612	18,087
1924 .. .. .	28,046	16,111
1925 .. .. .	26,671	14,140
1926 .. .. .	21,212	12,830
1927 .. .. .	19,803	12,128

According to the Chief Inspector of Factories, the reduction in recent years of the number of children employed in jute mills is due principally to the gradual introduction of the single shift system in place of the multiple shift system, to which reference has been made in an earlier chapter. The credit for the large reductions in the number of children employed in textile mills must be given to the strictness of inspection and to the increasing efficiency of the arrangements for the certification of children which have, to a large extent, reduced the possibility of the employment of children in two mills on the same day.

The double employment of children in factories was an abuse which it was by no means easy to check particularly in Ahmedabad where it was associated with the system of recruitment known as the *sathi* system. Under this system children are brought from the villages to work in mills under an agreement whereby they are maintained by others who take in return the wages earned by them. An enquiry which was made in 1925 by the Inspector of Factories and the Certifying Surgeon showed, however, that only a very small percentage of the children employed in factories were not living with their parents or relatives. The *sathi* system was not therefore the main cause of the double employment of children at Ahmedabad. In order to strengthen the hands of the Inspectors of Factories in stamping out this abuse, a section was added to the Indian Factories Act by the Amending Act of 1926 providing for the punishment of parents and guardians who allowed children to be employed in two mills on the same day. Eleven convictions, all in Ahmedabad, were obtained under this new section in 1926 and the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, reports that these prosecutions had a beneficial result and that no such cases were detected in the following year.

The Indian Factories Act does not prohibit the admission in factories of children who cannot by reason of their age be lawfully employed therein, but if a child over the age of six years is found inside any part of a factory in which children are employed, the onus of proving that such a child was not actually employed in the factory is thrown on the employer.† The Inspectors of Factories are also empowered to prohibit the presence of children below the age of twelve years inside any part of a factory where any risk is involved to their health or safety.§

*Employment of Women.*—The number of women employed in factories during the years 1921-27 is shown in the following table :—

Year.	Number of women employed.
1921 .. .. .	187,596
1922 .. .. .	206,887
1923 .. .. .	221,045
1924 .. .. .	235,332
1925 .. .. .	247,514
1926 .. .. .	249,669
1927 .. .. .	253,158

There has been a steady increase in the number of women employed in factories and the rate of increase has been even greater than that of the total factory population. The number of women employed in factories in 1927 was 35 per cent. higher

\* Section 14 (3) of Act II of 1922.

† Section 44A of the Indian Factories Act.

‡ Section 46 of the Indian Factories Act.

§ Section 19A of the Indian Factories Act.

than in 1921, whereas during the same period the total factory population rose by 21 per cent. only. The large increase in the employment of women is due partly to the restrictions imposed on the employment of children and partly to the inclusion within the scope of the Act in 1922 of quasi-agricultural factoris (e.g., in tea gardens) which are dependent on woman labour to a larger extent than other factories.

An important change that the revision of 1922 made in regard to the employment of women was the repeal of the provision\* of the 1911 Act which permitted the employment of women at night in ginning factories. In view of this amendment, the Government of India considered that they were in a position to ratify the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted by the Washington Conference in 1919 without undertaking any further legislation. But the Indian Factories Act secures a night period of rest of only ten and a-half hours as against eleven hours provided for by Article 3 of the Convention. At the time of ratification, it was thought that, though the Indian Factories Act was not in strict conformity with the Convention, advantage could be taken of the provisions of Article 7 which allows a shorter period of rest during the night in countries where the climate renders work by day particularly trying to the health of the operatives, provided compensatory rest is accorded during the day. But Article 7 of the Convention has not been formally applied to any part of India and the Government of India were under the impression that in practice a rest period of full eleven hours, as required by the Convention, was being secured for women operatives. Recently, however, it has come to notice that this is not the case in the jute mills in Bengal which were working under the multiple shift system. As will be seen from the diagram,† some of the shifts in which women are employed, commence work at 5.30 a.m. and are not free till 7 p.m.; the night interval in their case being thus reduced to 10½ hours only. On an enquiry made from the local Government, it was discovered that about 80 per cent. of the women employed in the jute mills are given the shorter period of rest during the night. The Indian Jute Mills Association, whose attention was drawn to the matter, represented that the existing arrangements in the jute mills were "in the best interests of the workers themselves" and that there was no contravention of the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night, as Article 7 of that Convention was particularly applicable to Bengal. The local Government did not, however, agree that the shorter rest period during the night was in the best interests of the women concerned and pointed out that the mills were not closed during the hottest part of the day. A similar difficulty has arisen in connection with the Convention concerning the night work of young persons which has also been ratified by the Government of India. The Committee appointed by the Conference in 1929 to examine the summary of the reports submitted under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles pointed out in regard to this Convention that in India "the eleven-hour night rest period did not appear to be expressly secured by legislation and it would be useful to know whether it is secured in practice." From the diagram‡ it is clear that in jute mills working under the multiple shift system children employed on one of the shifts are actually given a shorter period of rest during the night than is provided for by the Convention.

*Use made of Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act.*—Section 2 (3) (b) of the Indian Factories Act was inserted in 1922 mainly to protect children employed in factories which would not, except for their notification by the local Government, come within the scope of the Act. In 1922 only one factory situated in the United Provinces was notified by the local Government, but the number has been increasing steadily, as shown below :—

Year.	No. of factories notified.
1923 .. .. .	11
1924 .. .. .	60
1925 .. .. .	100
1926 .. .. .	122
1927 .. .. .	160

The power vested in local Governments by this sub-section has been utilized in all provinces except Burma. In 1924 the Government of the Central Provinces discovered that small ginning factories were being constructed in the province with a view to escape the restrictions imposed by the Indian Factories Act, but these

\* Section 27 of Act XII of 1911.

† Not printed: the diagram is reproduced in the memorandum of the Indian Jute Mills Association.

factories were promptly notified by the local Government. In Bombay the local Government have notified small match factories where children of tender years were being employed in large numbers under dangerous conditions. In Bihar and Orissa the local Government have notified some saw mills employing less than 20 persons which were in a dangerously unfenced condition. In Burma the Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories indicates that there are a number of rice mills and saw mills employing less than 20 persons in which the machinery is not properly fenced. The question of the notification of such factories has been under the consideration of the local Government for some time.

In one important instance a local Government has not considered it advisable to make use of this provision of the Act for the protection of children employed in factories which do not automatically come within the scope of the Indian Factories Act. In 1927 it came to the notice of the Government of India that children of tender age were being worked for unduly long hours in the carpet factories at Amritsar, which are outside the scope of the Act as they do not use any mechanical power. The attention of the Government of the Punjab was drawn to the matter and the suggestion was made that the factories might be notified under section 2 (3) (b) of the Act. The local Government pointed out, however, that the question of notification had been considered in 1924 but the conclusion reached was that no useful purpose would be served by bringing these carpet factories within the scope of the Indian Factories Act. The carpet factory owners at Amritsar do not employ children, but pay the master-weavers a fixed sum for work done by measurement. The children in the factories are employed by the master-weavers and are paid by them. In the opinion of the local Government any attempt to bring the carpet factories within the scope of the Factories Act would lead to the erection of single looms in the homes of the workers where the children would be employed under infinitely worse conditions than those prevailing in the factories. The local Government, however, exerted its influence privately with the carpet factory owners and the master-weavers in order to secure an improvement in the conditions in which children were employed in such factories. As a result, the carpet factory owners agreed to the immediate exclusion of children under eight years of age from their factories, and to the appointment of a qualified medical practitioner who in addition to looking after the health of the children would be required to certify the age of each child employed in carpet factories. A higher minimum age for children was not acceptable to the industry because it was argued that, unless boys are employed on this work from their childhood, they would not be able to learn the art. In regard to the working hours of children nothing could be done by the local Government on account of the opposition of the master-weavers, who maintained that a reduction in the hours of employment would make it impossible for them to get the work done on the terms fixed by the carpet factory owners. The number of children under 12 years of age employed in the carpet factories at Amritsar as reported to the local Government is about 500, which represents 23 per cent. of the total number of operatives employed therein, and the hours of work, according to the Inspector of Factories, are from sunrise to sunset with a break of an hour at midday in the winter and two to three hours in the summer. The Government of India were unable to acquiesce in the continuance of the existing conditions and they pointed out to the local Government that the existence of more or less similar conditions in the carpet factories in Persia had led to the intervention of the International Labour Office, with the result that orders were issued by the Persian Government to the carpet manufacturers in Kerman, which is one of the principal seats of the carpet industry in Persia, whereby an eight-hour day was enforced and the employment of children under 10 was prohibited. The local Government was accordingly asked to consider the lines on which legislation might be undertaken to secure adequate control over the conditions of employment of children in carpet factories. The Government of the Punjab pointed out in reply that there were carpet weaving factories in Agra, Mirzapur, and in the Indian States and if the proposed legislation were applied to the Punjab alone it would place the Amritsar industry at a distinct disadvantage and would drive most of the labour from Amritsar to other places in India to the ruin of the Amritsar industry. An enquiry has been addressed to the Government of the United Provinces regarding the conditions under which children are employed in the carpet factories situated within the province and the reply of the local Government is being awaited before any further action is taken by the Government of India.

*Control over the System of Shifts in Factories.*—After the revision of the Indian Factories Act in 1922, the Government of Bengal suggested that a further amendment should be made which would enable the local Government to regulate the working of shifts in the case of any class of factories or in any area. The necessity for this control arose out of the difficulty which had been experienced by the local Government in enforcing the provisions of the Indian Factories Act relating to the employment of children in the jute mills which were working under a system of

multiple shifts. The proposal was supported by the Conference of the Chief Inspectors of Factories which was held in 1924, but the Government of Bengal subsequently decided not to press for the amendment until they had satisfied themselves that effective control over the working hours of children could not be exercised by means of a special employment register which they had recently prescribed for jute mills under Section 35 of the Act. The proposal for the control of shifts in factories was accordingly excluded from the Amending Bill which was passed in 1926. The local government have since reported that the special employment register in jute mills has failed to achieve its object, but the Government of India are awaiting a further communication from the local government on the subject.

*Prohibition of the Employment of Children in Mines.*—In the Mines Bill, which was introduced in the Indian Legislature in September, 1922, a provision was included prohibiting the employment of children (a child being defined as a person under the age of 13 years) in mines and also prohibiting their presence underground in mines. When the Bill was framed it was not considered practicable, owing to the floating nature of the labour population, to insist on each person employed in a mine having a certificate of age, but a provision was inserted which would empower local governments to prescribe a certification system in cases where they consider this to be practicable. In case of dispute between the inspecting staff and the management of a mine as to the age of a child, the Bill provided that the matter was to be referred to a qualified medical practitioner whose decision was to be conclusive evidence as to the age of the child. In the Joint Committee of the Indian Legislature, to which the Bill was referred, proposals were made for raising the maximum age of a child to 14 and even 15, but without success, and the provisions in the Bill relating to the employment of children were passed by the Legislature without any modification.

The Indian Mines Act of 1923 came into force on 1st July, 1924, but both in 1924 and 1925 children continued to be employed in a number of mines. This was due to a misunderstanding of the provisions of the Act on the part of the managers of mines,\* which was promptly removed by the Chief Inspector of Mines. So far, criminal proceedings have been instituted in three cases only, all of which ended in convictions. Instances have occurred of disputes between mine-owners or managers and the inspecting staff as to the age of a child employed in a mine, but the medical examination prescribed in such cases by the Act† has generally failed to confirm the inspector's suspicions,

*Prohibition of the Employment of Women in Mines.*—Soon after the passing of the Indian Mines Act of 1923, the Government of India, in accordance with the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee, addressed local governments on the subject of the prohibition of the employment of women in mines. On receipt of the replies‡ and after a careful consideration of the question they came to the conclusion that the summary exclusion of women in the main coalfields would result in a very serious dislocation to the industry and that the only solution was to adopt a method of gradual exclusion. Accordingly in 1927 revised proposals were referred for opinion to the Mining Boards and the provincial governments mainly concerned, and after their views had been received draft regulations on the subject were published for criticism in June, 1928. These regulations under Section 29 (j) of the Act, which were finally promulgated on 7th March, 1929, prohibit the employment of any woman underground in the coal mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces and the salt mines in the Punjab, with effect from 1st July, 1939, and in all other mines, with effect from 1st July, 1929. In the coal mines in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, and in the salt mines in the Punjab, women may still be employed underground up to 30th June, 1939, provided that the total number of women so employed at any time in any mine does not exceed a gradually decreasing percentage (i.e., 29 per cent. in the case of coal mines decreasing by 3 per cent. each year and 40 per cent. in the case of the salt mines decreasing by 4 per cent. each year) of the total number of both men and women employed underground in the mine. These regulations do not apply, and under the existing law cannot apply, to coal quarries or open workings, which are largely owned by the railways. With a view, however, to meet the criticism that these regulations will give the railway collieries an unfair advantage over privately owned collieries, the railway board has issued orders introducing, with effect from 1st July, 1929, a similar system of gradual reduction in the numbers of certain classes of women workers employed in open workings in railway collieries.

\* Pages 40 and 41 of the Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year ending 31st December, 1925.

† Section 27 of the Act.

‡ The correspondence with local governments is published in Bulletin No. 35 of Indian Industries and Labour.

## Chapter XII.—Wages.

*Lack of Accurate Statistics.*—The first attempt to collect wage statistics in India was made in 1873, when instructions were issued to district officers to submit half-yearly returns showing the average monthly wages of certain classes of skilled and unskilled labour. These returns were based on information collected by subordinate revenue officials and in some cases by police officers, and from these returns a series of comparative figures for selected districts in each province were published annually in the publication "Prices and Wages," issued by the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics. For the reasons given by Mr. Datta in his report on an enquiry into the rise of prices in India,\* these statistics were wholly unreliable, and by 1910 the half-yearly returns were discontinued throughout British India except in British Baluchistan. In their place a quinquennial wage census was adopted in all provinces except in the Central Provinces, where an annual return was obtained from district officers. The first quinquennial wage census was taken in 1911-12 and the second in 1916-17. The statistics regarding wages continued to be published in "Prices and Wages," which gave the results of the quinquennial wage census in respect of a few urban and rural occupations. As the statistics were still far from satisfactory, the third wage census, which was due in 1921-22 was abandoned, except in Madras and the Punjab. In 1921 an attempt was made by the Government of India to hold an All-India census of industrial wages with the "active and voluntary co-operation of employers," but nothing could be done partly because a number of employers either failed to submit returns or submitted incomplete returns, and partly because neither the central nor the local governments were able to provide the staff required for the purpose owing to financial stringency. In the circumstances the Government of India came to the provisional conclusion that "the question must be allowed to remain where it is for the present." But in communicating this conclusion to local governments they expressed the view that it might be necessary at some future date to take steps by legislation to secure statistics of this kind. The annual issues of "Prices and Wages" were also suspended in 1923 as a result of retrenchment, and no regular official wage statistics are now published for British India as a whole.†

*Rates of Wages and Earnings in Certain Industries.*—Three enquiries into the wages of operatives in the cotton mill industry in Bombay Presidency have been held since 1921. The last of these enquiries was held in 1926, but its results have not yet been published. According to the enquiry which was held in 1923, the average daily earnings of the millhands were as shown in the following statement, which is reproduced from the Report of the Labour Office, Bombay.

Average Daily Earnings (August, 1923).

Centre.	Men.			Women.			Big lads and children (a)			All work-people. (a).		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Bombay City .. .. .	1	7	2	0	12	5	0	12	3	1	4	2.
Ahmedabad .. .. .	1	6	2	0	12	9	0	11	4	1	3	10
Sholapur .. .. .	1	0	0	0	6	4	0	9	1	0	12	9
Baroda State .. .. .	1	0	6	0	10	10	0	8	0	0	15	3
Other Centres .. .. .	1	0	1	0	8	2	0	8	8	0	14	0
Bombay Presidency .. .. .	1	5	9	0	11	7	0	11	4	1	3	0

(a) Counting two half-timers as one full-timer.

These earnings are the actual earnings including monthly bonus and special allowances which are regarded as of the nature of wages, but excluding overtime pay, and the annual bonus, if paid, and all remuneration in the form of grain or clothing or accommodation at rates below market prices or rentals

\* Paras. 42-44 of the report.

† Para. 67 and Appendix 6 of the Report of the Indian Economic Enquiry Committee, 1925.

The average monthly earnings of the same workers in 1914, 1921 and 1923 are shown in the following table\* :—

Centre.		Monthly earnings per head in		
		May, 1914.	May, 1921.	August, 1923.
Bombay City ..	Men .. .. .	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
	Women .. .. .	18 6 8	34 15 2	35 10 7
	Big lads and children (a) ..	10 0 10	17 6 6	17 5 5
	All workpeople (a) ..	9 6 7	18 0 10	17 14 0
Ahmedabad ..	Men .. .. .	16 6 3	30 10 0	30 10 0
	Women .. .. .	15 7 1	34 2 11	33 0 9
	Big lads and children (a) ..	9 15 11	19 9 4	18 2 7
	All workpeople (a) ..	7 2 3	18 6 6	17 3 11
Sholapur ..	Men .. .. .	13 9 9	30 2 11	29 7 0
	Women .. .. .	14 3 11	25 13 9	22 3 10
	Big lads and children (a) ..	5 13 11	10 15 9	8 9 7
	All workpeople (a) ..	6 9 6	14 12 0	12 7 11
Baroda State ..	Men .. .. .	10 9 4	20 9 4	17 10 6
	Women .. .. .	13 8 7	23 12 4	24 0 1
	Big lads and children (a) ..	6 13 4	16 6 11	14 14 11
	All workpeople (a) ..	7 3 8	14 7 4	11 7 3
Other Centres ..	Men .. .. .	11 14 1	25 1 10	22 0 8
	Women .. .. .	13 8 7	28 12 4	24 7 4
	Big lads and children (a) ..	6 13 4	16 6 11	11 14 7
	All workpeople (a) ..	7 3 8	14 7 4	12 8 8
Bombay Presidency.	Men .. .. .	11 14 1	25 1 10	21 6 5
	Women .. .. .	17 0 8	33 6 10	33 1 10
	Big lads and children (a) ..	9 0 1	16 9 1	16 3 10
	All workpeople (a) ..	7 13 4	17 3 7	16 9 6
		14 11 11	28 14 4	28 9 1

It should be noted, however, that the monthly earnings for a full working month of 27 days, i.e., the earnings of a worker who is not absent on any working day in the month are appreciably higher, as will be seen from the following figures for August, 1923 :—

*Average Monthly Earnings of Full-time Workers.*

	Average monthly earnings for a month of 27 working days for—			
	Men.	Women.	Big lads and children.(a)	All workpeople.(a)
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Bombay City .. .. .	39 1 6	20 15 3	20 10 9	34 0 6
Ahmedabad .. .. .	37 6 6	21 8 3	19 2 0	33 7 6
Sholapur .. .. .	27 0 0	10 11 0	15 5 3	21 8 3
Baroda State .. .. .	27 13 6	18 4 6	13 8 0	25 11 9
Other Centres .. .. .	27 2 3	13 12 6	14 10 0	23 14 6
Bombay Presidency ..	36 11 3	19 8 9	19 2 0	32 1 0

In the enquiry which was made in 1921, the Bombay Labour Office attempted an estimate of the trend of nominal and real wages and came to the conclusion that real or effective wages for men operatives in Bombay City were 14 per cent. higher

(a) Counting two half-timers as one full-timer.

\* Report on an Enquiry into the Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry, published by the Bombay Labour Office in 1925, pages 9-11.

than in 1914. But in the second enquiry in 1923 a similar estimate was not attempted owing to certain limitations of the cost of living index numbers and other practical difficulties.\*

Accurate statistics of wages in the jute mills of Bengal are not available, but the following figures obtained in 1925, from the Chairman, Indian Jute Mills Association, may be of some interest :—

	Per week consisting of 4 working days.			Per day.		
	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
Male daily workers .. .. .	3	10	0	0	14	6
Female daily workers .. .. .	2	9	0	0	10	3
Male piece-workers .. .. .	6	9	0	1	10	3
Female piece-workers .. .. .	5	10	0	1	6	6
Children .. .. .	1	12	0	0	7	0

Since 1922 it has been the practice in the jute mills to work only for four days in the week. During the remaining three days a large majority of the workers are employed in the fields and in agricultural work generally. As stated in Chapter X, the Indian Jute Mills Association have now decided to introduce a 60-hour week in the jute mills.

In the coal mines, wages are paid on the piece-work system, i.e., at a fixed rate per tub of coal and the average out-turn of the miner is three tubs of coal per working day. The regulations under the Indian Mines Act require mine owners to submit returns regarding the wages paid to the various classes of labour employed in mines. On the basis of these returns the Chief Inspector of Mines in India, compiles statistics of the average daily earnings in each important mining field in British India. These statistics are reproduced in the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India.†

In the tea gardens in Assam, wages are mostly paid on the piece-work basis. In addition to the standard daily task which the worker must execute in order to earn his wages (called *hasira*), the labourer is given an opportunity at certain seasons to supplement his earnings by the performance of a second task, the payment for which is known as *ticca*. In Darrang, Sibsagar and the Lakhimpur districts, the unit system is in force under which wages are paid at the rate of 1 anna per unit in the case of hoeing and pruning and of 1 pice per unit for plucking. In some cases where it is impracticable to prescribe a definite task as in leaf plucking at the beginning and end of the season, payment is made by time.§ The annual reports on immigrant labour in the province of Assam, published by the Government of Assam, give statistics of average earnings of labourers separately for the Assam Valley Division and for the Surma Valley Division. The average monthly cash earnings calculated on the average daily working strength for the months of September, 1927, and March, 1928, in the Assam Valley Division was Rs. 13-2-1 pies for men, Rs. 11-6-11 pies for women, and Rs. 7-0-6 pies for children. The correspondings figure for the Surma Valley Division are Rs. 10-4-7 pies, Rs. 8-6-4 pies and Rs. 5-4 annas respectively. In addition to the cash wages, the labourers are allowed certain concessions, such as the supply of tea, rice and cloth at less than the market rate, private cultivation, free housing, free medical attendance, free fuel and grazing. The nature and extent of these concessions are discussed in Chapter III of the Report of the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22. In Assam, importance has always been attached to the necessity of taking into account joint family earnings in the case of tea garden labourers. The Assam Labour Enquiry Committee adopted Mr. Melitus' standard of an average working family as consisting of one working man, one working woman, and three-tenths of a working child. On this basis the figures tabulated below show the average family earnings calculated

\* The reasons for not attempting to publish index numbers of real wages are explained in detail in paragraph 58 of the report.

† For the figures for 1927, see table on page 5 of the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines for the year ending 31st December, 1927.

§ For details see Chapter IV of the Report of Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22.

on the average daily strength in 1914, 1922 and 1928. For 1914, the figures are based on the average earnings of September, 1913, and March, 1914; for 1922, on the average earnings of September, 1921, and March, 1922; and for 1928, on the average earnings of September, 1927, and March, 1928. Column 5 of the table shows the percentage of increase in 1922 as compared with 1914, while column 6 shows the percentage of increase in 1928 as compared with 1922:—

District.	1914.	1922.	1928.	Percentage of rise in 1922, since 1914.	Percentage of rise in 1928, since 1922.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1. Darrang Sadr ..	14 14 10	18 15 8	24 13 5	27	31
2. Mangaldai ..	15 11 5	18 15 4	28 4 2	21	49
3. Nowgong ..	16 11 9	18 8 10	23 2 7	11	25
4. Jorhat ..	15 7 7	18 0 11	23 4 4	17	29
5. Sibsagar ..	15 15 11	20 1 0	24 12 1	26	23
6. Golaghat ..	14 0 11	17 7 4	22 0 5	25	26
7. Lakhimpur Sadr ..	18 2 4	21 15 2	30 11 3	21	40
8. North Lakhimpur ..	15 13 10	20 4 3	24 4 2	28	20
9. Cachar Sadr ..	13 13 6	15 0 4	19 2 8	9	28
10. Hailakandi ..	13 11 7	15 8 10	19 10 8	14	26
11. North Sylhet ..	13 0 4	14 2 10	20 11 7	9	46
12. Karimganj ..	13 7 7	15 14 1	19 11 4	18	24
13. South Sylhet ..	13 15 0	15 13 8	21 7 11	13	36
14. Habiganj ..	14 12 1	16 8 9	21 5 6	12	29

In the absence of index numbers for Assam it is not possible to frame any reliable estimate of the movement of real or effective wages in the tea gardens. Mr. Datta, in the "Enquiry into the rise of prices in India," stated that in 1912 the *real* wages of tea garden coolies in Assam had fallen 5 per cent. *below*, while those of agricultural labourers in India had risen 38 per cent. *above* the level of the standard period (1890-1894). The Assam Labour Enquiry Committee also came to the conclusion that the family earnings in 1922 did not keep pace with the increase in the cost of living since 1914. From the table above it will be seen that there has been a substantial increase of wages since 1922. The percentage of increase is even higher than what is shown in column 6 as the figures for 1914 and 1922 include diet and subsistence allowances, whereas these items are being excluded from the statistics of wages since 1923. As it is unlikely that the cost of living has risen appreciably since 1922 in Assam, it may be inferred that real wages in the tea gardens are also tending to rise. This is due to the difficulties which are being experienced by the tea industry in securing an adequate supply of labour owing to the competition of other industries, e.g., the coal and the steel industries in Bihar and Orissa, and the textile industries in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces.

*Extent of Standardization.*—Wages are now paid mostly in money, except in the tea gardens in Assam, where certain concessions to which reference has already been made are allowed to the labourers. But no attempt has hitherto been made to standardize wages. Thus the report of the Bombay Labour Office on an enquiry into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry in 1923 refers to the fact that in one muster roll there were seven oilers doing exactly the same work for exactly the same length of time who received wages varying from 9 annas to Re. 1-6 annas per day.\* The question of standardization was considered by the Bombay Industrial Disputes Committee in 1922 and by the Textile Tariff Board in 1927. The Industrial Disputes Committee remarked that "employers' associations have not yet evolved any standard scales of wages and individual employers are usually ignorant of how their rates compare with the wages given by others," and that "the uncorrelated raising of wages in one factory is almost invariably seized upon as a grievance in other factories of the same class." The Textile Tariff Board also recommended for the consideration of the Millowners' Association the adoption of a system of standardized wages for the same class of work as between mill and mill. As a result of this recommendation the Millowners' Association prepared in 1928 a

\* Paragraph 30 of the report.



standardization scheme which was examined in detail by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29.\* It appears from the report of this committee that the Millowners' Association propose to introduce their standardization scheme in October, 1929.

*Effect of higher Wages on Indian Labour.*—Compared with European standards, the Indian worker lives in a vicious circle of low wages, low standard of living and low efficiency. To increase his efficiency it is necessary to raise both his wages and his standard of living. There is, however, a consensus of opinion among employers in India that an increase in wages does not effect an improvement in the standard of living of the Indian worker and does not, therefore, result in increased efficiency. It is argued that an increase in wages is either wasted on useless expenditure, e.g., on drink, or leads to greater idleness on the part of the labourer. Thus the Indian Industrial Commission made the following observation :—

" All authorities who are qualified to speak on the subject agree that Indian labour is content with a very low standard of comfort. This secured, the Indian workman, speaking generally, takes advantage of the greater earning power given to him by increased wages to do less work, and shows no desire to earn more money by working more regularly or by improving his own efficiency. In the case of Bombay, witnesses have stated that since the 10 per cent. rise in the wages of mill operatives given during the rains of 1917 there has been an actual falling off in output."†

Similarly, most of the witnesses who appeared before the Assam Labour Enquiry Committee, 1921-22, were of opinion that any appreciable rise in the rates of wages would result in the labourer doing just sufficient work to enable him to earn the same amount as before. But the committee were not disposed to accept this view without qualification and made the following observation :—

" If the increase in the rate of wages corresponds more or less to the rise in the cost of living they (the committee) think it probable, unless the standard of living has fallen, that the average coolie will be inclined to do as much work, while some may be encouraged by the higher wage to do more. If the rise in wages is in excess of the increased cost of living, many would probably do less work."‡

The Indian Coal Committee, 1925§, also remarked " that the standard of comfort of the labourer in the Indian coalfields is so low that the only effect of an increase in wages is a decrease in output, as he can obtain the amount which he needs by working fewer days in a week." The immediate effect of higher wages may be less work, but it has not been proved conclusively that this is the permanent effect or that the out-turn of the worker does not tend to rise after he has adjusted himself to the higher rate of wages. In any case, the remedy for this lies in education and in the improvement of the conditions of employment. So long as the worker is compelled to live in unhealthy and insanitary surroundings, an increase in wages must necessarily be a temptation for him to spend longer periods in his village. And it is not the Indian worker alone who is apt to dissipate his extra income in forms of pleasure which are positively harmful.

*Minimum Wages.*—The International Labour Conference at its eleventh session, held at Geneva in 1928, adopted a draft convention and a recommendation concerning the creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery. The convention contemplates the creation of such a machinery only in the case of trades or parts of trades (and in particular in home-working trades) in which no arrangements exist for the effective regulation of wages by collective agreement or otherwise and in which wages are exceptionally low. The obligation which the convention imposes on a State member ratifying it is to create such a machinery and to communicate annually to the International Labour Office a general statement giving a list of the trades or parts of trades in which it has been applied and certain other particulars; questions such as the nature and form of the machinery and the trades to which it is to be applied are left entirely to the discretion of the state concerned. In view of the fact that labour in India is for the most part unorganized, the acceptance of the Convention, if it is to be applied in a reasonable manner, would present many difficulties and the Government of India therefore came to the conclusion that it would not be possible to enter into any commitment or to give any indication of possible ratification until a thorough enquiry was held into the practicability of establishing Wage Boards in India. The question of minimum wages was new to India and had not been considered in any province except in Bengal, where a resolution for the statutory fixation of

\* Chapters IV and VI of the report.

† Paragraph 235 of the Report.

‡ Assam Labour Enquiry Committee Report, 1921-22, paragraph 133.

§ Paragraph 40 of the Report.

minimum wages was moved on the 7th July, 1921, by Mr. K. C. Roy Chaudhury in the local council. The resolution was lost on the opposition of the local government which considered that it would not be practicable to give effect to such a proposal.\*

*Deductions from Wages.*—In June, 1926, the Government of India made an enquiry from local governments as to the extent to which fines and other deductions were being realized by employers in India from their workpeople. The views of the local governments were also invited on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise, to counter any abuses which might be found to prevail. The replies received indicated that :—(1) Except in the tea gardens of Assam and the coalfields of Bihar and Orissa, the system of fining is common throughout India ; (2) in addition to the fines imposed for breaches of discipline or for bad or negligent work, or injury to materials, deductions are made in the Bombay Presidency in respect of supply of materials and tools, rents for housing, supply of medicines, medical attendance, food grains and water, contributions to provident funds, use of reading rooms and libraries, education and compulsory contributions to charity and entertainments provided by the employer ; (3) in a number of cases the fines collected are credited to a fund mainly devoted to the benefit of the workmen.

All the major local governments, except Bombay, were of opinion that the system of fining had not led to any serious abuse and that legislation was unnecessary. The Government of Bombay, on the other hand, after an exhaustive enquiry into the subject by its Labour Office,† came to the opposite conclusion. A copy of the correspondence with local governments on the subject is contained in Appendix XII to this memorandum.

*Periods of wage-payment.*—In 1924 the Government of India collected information for the leading branches of organized industry in India regarding the periods by which wages are paid and the time which elapses between the end of the period for which wages are earned and the date of payment, i.e., the waiting period. This information was published in Bulletin No. 34 of Indian Industries and Labour. Briefly, the enquiry disclosed that, in the case of skilled workers, the most general system is that of payment on a monthly basis, the most important exceptions to this rule being the jute mills in Bengal, where payment is made on a weekly basis, and the Ahmedabad cotton mills, where payment is made by *haptas* (a period varying from 14 to 16 days). Unskilled labour is frequently paid on shorter periods. The waiting period varies widely. As a general rule it lies between one-third and one-half of the period of payment, i.e., the monthly payments are normally made ten to fifteen days after the close of the month, fortnightly payments within five days to a week after the close of the fortnight, and weekly payments in two to four days. Wide variations in the date of payment are common only in the smaller and less organized industries, while in the larger establishments regularity of payment is the rule.

In September, 1924, Dewan Chaman Lal introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly known as the "Weekly Payments Bill." The object of this Bill was to provide for the payment of wages on a weekly basis, but it allowed employers to continue payments on any other system provided wages were not withheld for more than a week. The Bill which was circulated for opinion, met with general opposition, particularly in regard to the proposal to interfere with the existing periods of payment. When it came before the Assembly for the second reading in February, 1926, it was opposed by Government, and on an assurance being given that the question of legislation to secure the prompt payment of wages would be considered, the Bill was withdrawn by its sponsor. In July, 1926, the Government of India accordingly invited opinions from local governments on the advisability of legislation. The correspondence with local governments is reproduced in Appendix XIII. It will be observed that most of the local governments are opposed to legislation, but in view of the contemplated appointment of a Commission to enquire into various problems connected with labour, the Government of India decided not to formulate, at present, any definite conclusions in the matter.

*Treatment of unclaimed wages.*—The question of the forfeiture of unclaimed wages was raised in connection with the question of the prompt payment of wages. The practice of forfeiting wages which are not claimed within a certain time is common in the mills in Bombay. In some cases it is the rule that the wages of a worker absent without leave for over a month should be forfeited, unless a medical certificate is produced. In others wages are not forfeited until six months have elapsed. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29,‡ considered this question, and recommended that in future unclaimed wages should be paid at any time on their being claimed by the operative or his legal representative, subject to the operative being sufficiently identified.

\* Bengal Legislative Council Proceedings, Vol. III, No. 1, pages 316—334.

† See Report of an enquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines, 1928.

‡ Para. 91 of the Report.

*Indebtedness.*—Indebtedness is as much a feature of town life as of village life in India. The results of the enquiries conducted into the family budgets of the working classes in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Rangoon show that indebtedness is generally prevalent among the operatives in all these centres. In Rangoon the labourer from India is generally indebted to the *maistry*, who advances him money in order that he may be able to come to Burma. The report of the Officer-in-charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Burma, indicates that the labourer generally remains indebted to his *maistry* for the rest of his life.\* In the important industrial centres of the Bombay Presidency, the prevailing indebtedness of the operatives is attributed chiefly to the social and religious customs of the people which necessitate an expenditure on marriages, funerals, etc., quite out of proportion to the income of the family. The Ahmedabad Report † shows that the millhand at that centre is generally heavily indebted, while in Bombay City ‡ and in Sholapur § it is estimated that the percentage of the millhands who are in debt is 47 and 60 respectively. The average indebtedness extends to an equivalent of 2½ months' earnings in Bombay City, while in Ahmedabad it varies from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. The rates of interest charged are heavy. In Bombay the usual rate is 75 per cent. per annum, while the rates in Ahmedabad vary from 12 to 24 per cent., but higher rates are not uncommon.

*Bonus and profit sharing schemes.*—Bonuses are granted to workers in India for different reasons. In some cases a bonus is merely an allowance for dearness of food, which is granted to the operatives in order to avoid the necessity of raising wages. For instance, a war bonus of 10 per cent. was granted in the cotton mills in Bombay in July, 1917. This was raised to 15 per cent. in January, 1918, and to 35 per cent. in January 1919, when it was termed a special allowance on account of the high prices of foodstuffs. The allowance was further increased on 24th January, 1920, and on 30th November, 1920, till it stood on the latter date at 70 per cent. for operatives on fixed wages and for winders, and at 80 per cent. for pieceworkers other than winders. Again, a bonus is also sometimes granted for regular attendance. This bonus is paid in cash in the textile mills in the Bombay Presidency, except in Sholapur, where it is given in the form of a grain allowance to all workers who are present on 22 days in the month. There is another form of bonus, called the efficiency bonus, which is granted by several concerns in the Bombay Presidency. During the boom period the cotton mills in Bombay were paying an annual bonus of one month's wages, but this was discontinued at the beginning of 1924. Similar bonuses were also paid by the cotton mills in Ahmedabad and Sholapur.

Profit sharing schemes have been tried by very few concerns in India. In April, 1928, the Tata Iron and Steel Company introduced such a scheme for their workers under which a monthly bonus based on production is paid to all men drawing less than Rs. 300 per mensem or Rs. 10 per day whose work contributes to the production obtained and who have been in the Company's employ for at least six months. The bonus is based on the total monthly finished production from each producing unit, and the works as a whole. It is reduced if the production falls below a certain figure and increased if it rises above that figure. For the standard figure of production, the total amount of bonus is fixed at Rs. 10 lakhs per annum. The men on lower rates of pay receive a higher bonus in relation to their wages than those on higher rates. Another interesting scheme is in operation in the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills where half-yearly bonuses are paid to the workmen on a basis relative to the dividend declared. Thus, if the Company pays a dividend of 10 per cent. on the ordinary shares, the bonus is paid to each workman at the rate of 10 per cent. on the total pay he has earned during the half-year.

*Annual leave.*—No information is available with regard to the extent of annual leave taken by workers or the extent to which it is countenanced or assisted by employers. There is probably no regular system for the grant of leave to operatives, except in rare cases. The Empress Mills, Nagpur, have fixed rules for the grant of leave to their employees. The apprentices, assistants and clerks serving in the mills on fixed salaries are allowed privilege leave to the extent of two days for every month of active service, but in the case of the other operatives leave on full pay is allowed only for 12 days in a year to those whose period of service with the Company exceeds

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\* Report of an Enquiry into the Standard and Cost of Living of the Working Classes in Rangoon, 1928, para. 195.

† Report of an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1928, para. 59.

‡ Report of an Enquiry into Working Class Budgets in Bombay, 1923, para. 44.

§ Report on an Enquiry into Family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Sholapur City, 1928, page 25.

20 years. From the Report of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee, 1928-29,\* it appears that the Bombay Millowners' Association have under consideration the question of framing a new rule regarding the grant of leave to the operatives in the textile mills.

#### Chapter XIII.—Trade Combinations.

*Growth of the Trade Union Movement in India.*—The trade union movement in India is of comparatively recent origin, and the period during which it may be said to have taken root in this country is from the year 1918 to 1920. Organizations intended to promote the interests of workers were in existence before 1918, but the primary function of trade unionism, viz., the organization of wage-earners with a view to promote collective bargaining, had not been developed until 1918, when the economic, social and political conditions obtaining in India as a result of the Great War were decidedly favourable to the growth of the trade union movement. As early as 1884 an organization known as the Mill-hands Association was formed in Bombay under the chairmanship of Mr. N. M. Lohhanday, but its main purpose was to agitate for a revision of the first Indian Factories Act of 1881.† Similarly the Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha and the Social Service League, Bombay, which were both started in 1911, and also the Servants of India Society took an active interest in the welfare of the working classes, but these organizations were not, and in fact did not claim to be, trade unions. The lateness of the trade union movement in India was due partly to the slow progress of the industrialization of the country, and partly to the special difficulties arising out of the illiteracy of the workers, their migratory habits and the heterogeneous composition of the labour force in industrial centres. It is significant, however, that the period which marked the birth of the movement synchronised with the period of unprecedented boom in trade and industry which immediately followed the Great War. The movement was essentially an economic one, though it was given a political complexion owing to the fact that a number of its supporters were politicians. During this period there was a steady rise in the cost of living without a proportionate increase in wages and the growth of labour unrest was therefore only natural. A series of successful strikes demonstrated to the workers, as nothing else could have done more successfully, the importance of organization. Trade unions were formed either immediately before or immediately after a strike. Many of them were more of the nature of temporary strike committees than proper trade unions, and they ceased to exist as soon as the grievances of the men were remedied. But the trade union movement had come to stay. A number of important unions which had been established during this period, e.g., the Madras Labour Union (started in 1918), the G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union (started in 1919), and the Ahmedabad Textile Workmen's Union (started in 1920) are still functioning.

In 1920 an important development took place in the trade union movement of the country. In that year the All-India Trade Union Congress came into being, and held its first session at Bombay under the presidentship of the late Lala Lajpat Rai. The object of the Congress as laid down in its constitution was "to co-ordinate the activities of all the labour organizations in all the trades and in all provinces in India, and generally to further the interests of Indian labour in matters social, political and economic." The Congress has established provincial committees in most of the important provinces, and has so far held nine annual sessions. A factor of some importance in the formation of the Congress was the establishment of the International Labour Conference to which, according to the Treaty of Versailles, it is incumbent on the Government of India to nominate to each session of the conference a non-official delegate in consultation with the industrial organizations which are most representative of workpeople. The object of the promoters of the All-India Trade Union Congress was to ensure that the Workers' delegates to the International Labour Conferences would be duly elected representatives of the organized workers in India.

*Extent of Trade Unionism in India before 1926.*—Accurate and reliable statistics are not available of trade unions in India, except in Bombay, where information regarding the trade unions in the Presidency is given in the *Labour Gazette* published by the Bombay Labour Office. In the report of the first annual session of the All-India Trade Union Congress in 1920, it was stated that 60 unions were affiliated to the Congress while 42 more unions expressed their sympathy with its objects, and it was estimated that the Congress represented no less than 5,00,000 workers. But in 1926 the General Secretaries' Report to the Sixth Annual Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress showed that the number of affiliated unions was only 52, and the total membership a little over 1,25,000. The All-India Trade Union Congress does not, however, include all the trade unions which are in existence in the country. The Ahmedabad Labour Union, which is one of the best organized unions in India.

\* Page 28 of the Report.

† Clow, Indian Factory Legislation, page 15.

has not yet been affiliated to it and from the Directory of Trade Unions, which was prepared in 1925 by Mr. R. R. Bakhale, Assistant Secretary of the All-India Trade Union Congress, it appears that there were in that year no less than eight federations and 167 unions. But all these unions are not equal in strength and vitality, and about half of them are organizations either of Government servants or of persons connected with Government employment. Trade unionism has made, substantial progress among railway, postal and telegraph employees, but on the whole it is still weak in the great organized textile and mining industries, though rapid progress is being witnessed in some important centres like Ahmedabad and Bombay. The movement embraces only a small fraction of the workers in India, and considerable progress remains to be made before it can be said to have attained the level of other industrial countries.

*Registration of Unions under the Indian Trade Unions Act.*—The Indian Trade Unions Act \* came into force on the 1st June, 1927, and it is yet too early to pronounce any judgment as to the effect of this Act on the trade union movement of the country. The total number of unions registered under the Act up to the 31st March, 1928, was 29, with a total membership of 1,00,619; no less than 12 of these unions with a total membership of 52,559, were registered in the Bombay Presidency. In Bengal only two unions were registered under the Act, while in the Punjab out of the six unions registered during the year only one union, viz., the North Western Railway Union, with a membership of 5,000, is of any importance. The total membership of the remaining five unions was less than 800, and one of them, viz., the Homeopathic Association, with a membership of only 19, can hardly be said to be a trade union in the ordinary sense of the term. An explanation given for the slow progress of registration in the first year of the working of the Act is that the constitutions of the existing unions had to be revised in order to comply with the provisions of the Act, and this took a little time. The total receipts during the year in the general fund of all the 29 registered unions amounted to about Rs. 1,63,600, which gives an average of Rs. 5,641 per union and Re. 1 and annas 10 per member. Only one registered union† constituted a political fund, but the income during the year in this fund was only Rs. 340 as against an income of Rs. 7,735 in the general fund. No federations were registered in the year 1927-28. The returns for the year ending 31st March, 1929, have not yet been received, but the progress of registration during the two years of the operation of the Act is shown below :—

*Employees' Unions registered during the years 1927-28 and 1928-29.*

Serial No.	Province.	No. of trade unions registered during the year ending 31st March 1928.	No. of members of trade unions in column 3 on the 31st March 1928.	No. of trade unions registered during the year ending 31st March 1929.	No. of members of trade unions in column 5 at the time of registration.
1	Madras .. .. .	3	9,557†	7	6,003‡
2	Bombay .. .. .	12**	52,559	24	34,792
3	Bengal .. .. .	2	2,029	7	18,163††
4	The United Provinces ..	1	3,119	3	112
5	The Punjab .. .. .	6	5,799	7	190
6	Burma .. .. .	1	216	—	—
7	Bihar and Orissa .. ..	1	25,203	1	15,000
8	The Central Provinces ..	3	2,137	—	—
9	Assam .. .. .	—	—	—	—
10	The North-West Frontier Province .. .. .	—	—	1	1,960
	Total .. .. .	29	100,609	50	76,220††

\* For an account of the circumstances leading to the passing of this Act, see Clow's "The State and Industry," pages 158-159.

† The Madras Labour Union for Textile Workers.

‡ For two unions only; the third union is defunct, and it is proposed to cancel its registration.

§ For six unions only.

\*\* Two of these unions have since amalgamated.

†† For five unions only.

‡‡ For 47 unions only.

The importance of registration as securing a special status for a trade union became apparent during the general strike in the Bombay textile mills which commenced in April, 1928. Before the strike, the two important unions consisting of employees in the textile mills were the Bombay Textile Labour Union and the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal. But owing to differences among the labour leaders, two other associations, viz., the Bombay Mill Workers' Union and the Girni Kamgar Union, under the control of extremist labour leaders, and decidedly communist in character, came into being. The Millowners' Association which had hitherto refused to recognize any union of textile workers in Bombay City, gave an assurance to His Excellency the Governor that it would be prepared to receive representatives of registered trade unions with a view to opening negotiations for a settlement of the dispute. The Bombay Textile Union was then the only trade union registered under the Act, but it had arrived at an agreement with the other unions whereby a Joint Strike Committee, consisting of representatives of the four unions, mentioned above, was appointed to negotiate with the Millowners' Association. The latter, however, refused to enter into any discussion with the Joint Strike Committee unless all its members were representatives of duly registered trade unions. The deadlock thus created was removed by the action of the President of the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal which resulted in the registration of this union on the 21st May, 1928. Two days later the Girni Kamgar Union, a rival union controlled by the extremist labour leaders of the Workers' and Peasants' Party, also obtained registration, and the Bombay Mill Workers' Union followed suit on the 1st June, 1928. Thus all the members of the Joint Strike Committee were members of registered unions, and the ground was prepared for a round table conference. In referring to the events of the general strike in his report for the year ending 31st March, 1928, on the working of the Act, the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, observed as follows:—"In the six months that have elapsed since the 31st March, 1928, it has become abundantly clear that registration will be sought by every union of any importance." The table of the principal trade unions in the Bombay Presidency, which is published in the Bombay Labour Gazette for April, 1929, bears testimony to the correctness of this observation. By April, 1929, no less than 35 unions with a total membership of about 1,57,000, were registered under the Act; the number of unregistered unions was 60, but their total membership less than 44,000. In this connection it is interesting to note the progress made by the Girni Kamgar Union in Bombay City. At the time of registration (23rd May, 1928) this union consisted of only 174 members, but the membership has since risen to 54,000, which is six times the aggregate membership of the other three unions of the textile workers in Bombay City.

*The Trade Unions Act and unregistered Unions.*—The question of legislation for the protection of Indian Trade Unions arose out of a decision of the Madras High Court in 1920, granting an injunction restraining the leader of a local labour union from influencing the employees of a mill to break their contract with their employers. The object of the Indian Trade Unions Act was to give trade unions in India the necessary protection from civil suits and from the criminal law relating to conspiracy in order to enable them to carry on their legitimate activities. The Indian Act, however, differed in one important respect from similar legislation in Great Britain and the Dominions. The privileges which it proposed to confer were only for those unions which accepted registration, and the legal position of unregistered unions was left unaltered. As registration is not compulsory, the immunity from civil suits and from prosecutions for criminal conspiracy does not extend to all trade unions, but registration involves no obligation which a reputable and well-conducted union should not be willing and indeed anxious to accept. An attempt was made when the Act was under consideration in the Legislative Assembly to extend to unregistered unions the privileges which it proposed to confer on registered unions, but without success. In February, 1928, Mr. Joshi introduced a Bill to amend the Indian Penal Code, the object of which was to extend immunity from criminal prosecution to other combinations of workmen. The Bill, on circulation, received little support, and was rejected by the Legislative Assembly in September, 1928. The fact that unregistered trade unions are still in the same position as before the passing of the Indian Trade Unions Act, was shown by a case in Sholapur which was decided shortly after Mr. Joshi's Bill was rejected by the Legislative Assembly. On the application of three of the mills at that centre an interim injunction was granted against certain members of an unregistered union, restraining them from inciting the workers of these mills to strike work or to continue to be on strike.

*Attitude of Government towards Associations consisting of its Employees.*—Before 1919, it was not the policy of Government to accept any representation from an association consisting of its employees or even a joint representation from its employees. The Government Servants' Conduct Rules did not prohibit Government employees from forming themselves into associations, but disciplinary action could be taken against a Government servant if his membership of an association involved

a breach of the Government's Servants' Conduct Rules. The right of association for all lawful purposes by the employed as well as by the employers was recognized in Article 427 of the Peace Treaty, which was signed in 1919, as a principle which the High Contracting Parties regarded as being of special and urgent importance. In view of the assertion of this principle, the Government of India found it necessary to consider the circumstances in which they would be prepared to accord recognition to Associations of their own employees and rules for the recognition by Government of associations formed by its employees were accordingly framed and issued in 1921. To obtain recognition an association must ordinarily consist of a distinct class of Government employee, and every Government employee of the same class must be eligible for membership. No representation or deputation will be received except in connection with a matter which is, or raises questions which are, of common interest to the class represented by the Association. Outsiders are not definitely excluded from being office-holders of the Association, but Government reserves the right in particular cases of refusing recognition to associations of which all the office-holders are not either in the active service of Government or honourably retired officers belonging to the same class of employees as the Association represents. Government can also require the regular submission for their information of copies of the rules of the Association, and the annual statement of its accounts and of lists of its members. It was also provided that in the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered. The Recognition Rules do not apply to employees subject to military law or to the Indian Army Act, 1911, and more stringent conditions are laid down for the employees in the police and prison departments.

The passing of the Indian Trade Unions Act has created certain difficulties in its application to Government servants, as both the Government Servants' Conduct Rules and the rules for the recognition of associations consisting of Government servants are in certain respects inconsistent with its provisions. Thus, the following activities permitted by the Act are forbidden by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules :—(i) The payment of expenses of a political candidate (Section 16 (2) (a) ) ; (ii) the holding of a meeting and the distribution of literature or documents in support of a candidate (Section 16 (2) (b) ) ; (iii) the maintenance of a member of a legislative body (Section 16 (2) (c) ) ; (iv) the registration of electors or the selection of a candidate (Section 16 (2) (d) ) ; (v) the holding of political meetings of any kind or the distribution of political literature or political documents of any kind (Section 16 (2) (e) ).

The Government Servants' Conduct Rules are statutory rules framed or confirmed under Section 96-B (2) of the Government of India Act and in so far as they are inconsistent with the Trade Unions Act they override it. But these rules regulate only the actions of individual Government servants ; there is nothing forbidding them to form themselves into an association, and once an association is formed the corporate body cannot be controlled by the Government Servants' Conduct Rules or by any rules framed under Section 96-B of the Government of India Act. With regard to the rules for the recognition of associations consisting of Government servants the difficulty arises from the fact that these rules enforce the principle of homogeneity while the Indian Trade Unions Act contains no such restriction. The position is thus somewhat anomalous. Government servants are free to form themselves into a registered association which can indulge in activities forbidden to Government servants. Such an association may, under the Indian Trade Unions Act, include outsiders in its membership, and it may consist of different classes of Government servants, but, in accordance with the Recognition Rules, Government will not have any dealings with it.

The reconsideration of the principles which should govern the recognition of associations of Government servants in the light of the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act has presented numerous difficulties, and the Government of India have not yet formulated their final conclusions. On the one hand, it is necessary that Government, which is the largest employer of labour in the country, should not adopt too conservative an attitude in the matter of the recognition of associations consisting of its employees, particularly those who belong to the artisan class : on the other hand, it is necessary for Government to take adequate precautions against such activities on the part of associations consisting of its employees as would be subversive of reasonable discipline. It is clearly impossible for Government to promise that recognition will be given or continued to every registered union of their servants, for there are many actions open to a union which would amply warrant a withdrawal or refusal of recognition but which would in no way impair the union's right to registration. For example, in the past it has been necessary to withhold recognition from a union whose officers indulged in scurrilous attacks on the officers of the department with which the union was concerned. Pending the consideration of this difficult question, Government have relaxed the provision contained in the existing rules for the recognition of associations consisting of its employees which requires them to register under the Act.

*Trade Combinations among Employers.*—There are numerous organizations in India which protect the interests of employers. First of all are the chambers of commerce, which are mostly either preponderantly European or entirely Indian. The Indian Chambers of Commerce are under one federation known as the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, while the European chambers are federated as the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon. In addition to these chambers are the associations representing particular branches of trade. The Bombay Millowners' Association, the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association and the Indian Jute Mills Association, Calcutta, represent the textile interests in India, while the Indian Tea Association with its branches in Assam, Surma Valley, Darjeeling and the Dooars represent the tea planting interests in these areas. There are two other important planters' associations, viz., the Bihar Planters' Association, which is, however, gradually losing its importance since the decline of indigo cultivation, and the United Planters' Association of Southern India, which represents the interests of organized plantations in Madras and the neighbouring Indian States. The mining interests are looked after by the Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation; the former includes all European employers and a number of Indian concerns in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa, while the latter represents only Indian capital in the coal-mining industry of these two provinces. There are also a number of smaller local organizations, such as the Delhi Factory Owners' Federation, Delhi, the Factory Owners' Association, Central Provinces and Berar, and the Mills and Factories Owners' Association, Beawar.

Generally speaking, the employers' organizations in India are concerned more with the promotion of business interests than with labour problems. Comparatively little has been done to standardise wages or to secure uniformity in the conditions of employment. But the growth of labour unrest in recent years has in some cases, e.g., in the textile industry in Bombay, and the jute industry in Bengal, compelled employers to take collective action in dealing with their workpeople. The Indian Trade Unions Act applies to employers' as well as employees' organizations, but so far no employers' organization has registered itself as a trade union under the Act.

#### Chapter XIV.—Administration.

*Labour Questions in the Central Legislature.*—In the Central Legislature a number of labour measures have been passed in recent years. These include (i) three Acts amending the Factories Act of 1911, one of which constituted a radical revision of that Act in almost every direction; (ii) a new Mines Act passed in 1923 and an amending Act passed in 1928; (iii) the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, with two amending Acts passed in 1926 and 1929 respectively; (iv) the Trade Unions Act, 1926, with a minor amending Act which was passed in 1928; (v) an Act regulating child labour in ports\*; (vi) an Act repealing certain provisions of the law relating to criminal penalties for breach of contract by workmen; (vii) the Trades Disputes Act, 1929.

All these were Government measures, but in some cases action by Government followed on proposals made in the Legislative Assembly. For instance, the Trade Unions Act was the outcome of a private member's resolution adopted in the Assembly and a private member's Bill (i.e., the Workmen's Freedom Bill, introduced by Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Legislative Assembly on 23rd September, 1924) influenced Government in connection with the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act. In addition, two other Bills were introduced by private members, viz., Diwan Chaman Lal's Weekly Payments Bill and Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefits Bill, an account of which has already been given in previous chapters. Of the Resolutions on labour matters discussed in the Central Legislature, the majority were moved by Government in connection with the proceedings of the International Labour Conferences.

The interest of the Legislative Assembly in labour questions was at the outset small, but, with the growing importance of economic questions, labour measures now occupy the attention of the House to a very much larger extent. The radical revision of the Factories Act in 1922 went through with a fraction of the discussion that a similar measure would evoke to-day. In the debates on the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 Government were able to carry through a large and detailed measure without a single amendment being made to which they were opposed. The Indian Trade Unions Bill did not, however, have such an easy passage in 1926, and a number of amendments were made by the Legislative Assembly in the Select Committee and in the House. The most important of these amendments was the introduction of a clause permitting registered trade unions to maintain a separate fund for political purposes. In the case of the Trade Disputes Bill, the

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\* The Indian Ports (Amendment) Act, 1922.



Assembly made itself felt to a very much larger extent. Although all the three parts of this Bill were accepted by the House, important amendments were made in the Select Committee. The period during which the Act was to remain in force was limited to five years, and the scope of the provisions relating to strikes in public utility services and general strikes was curtailed considerably. The attitude of the Legislature towards this Bill was, however, to a large extent influenced by political considerations. The Council of State has generally devoted less attention to labour matters. All the Acts referred to above were passed in this Chamber without much discussion.

*Labour Questions in the Provincial Legislatures.*—Provincial Legislatures are competent to enact labour legislation, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General. But their output has been small. The only labour measures which have been passed up to the present are (i) an Act\* repealing the Madras Planters' Act, which included provisions for criminal penalties for breach of contract; (ii) the Coorg Labour Act, 1926, which was a step in precisely the opposite direction as it made provision for the criminal punishment of breaches of contract; (iii) the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act, 1929, which provides for the grant of maternity benefits to women employed in factories.

The first two were Government measures but the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act, 1929, was introduced by a private member and was passed by the local council in spite of the initial opposition of the local government. Certain other labour measures have been introduced in local councils but have not passed into law. Mr. R. W. Fulay, a non-official member of the Central Provinces Legislative Council, introduced two labour measures in January, 1929. One was a Maternity Benefit Bill and the other a Workmen's Welfare Bill, which would make it compulsory for all factory owners employing more than 100 persons to provide free of charge dining sheds and rest rooms for their workers and creches or day nurseries for the infants of the female employees. A Bill known as the Bengal Tea Gardens Public Health Bill, which was designed to set up a Board of Health for the tea-producing areas of Bengal and to replace the Jalpaiguri Labour Act of 1912, was introduced in the first Bengal Legislative Council in 1923, but lapsed with the dissolution of that Council. A Statistics Bill, which was designed mainly to overcome the difficulties experienced by the Bombay Labour Office in collecting labour statistics was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council in 1924, but was eventually abandoned by the local government owing to the vigorous opposition with which it was received. Of the resolutions on labour matters moved from time to time in local councils, the majority related to the investigation of the problem of unemployment, particularly amongst the educated classes, an account of which has already been given in Chapter IV. A resolution was moved in the Bengal Legislative Council in 1921 recommending the statutory fixation of minimum wages and a resolution was moved in the Bihar and Orissa Council in 1926 regarding the payment of maternity benefits. The former resolution was rejected, while the latter was adopted, but no legislative action has yet been taken to give effect to it.

*India and the International Labour Conference.*—The preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles refers to the fact that "the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries." In order to establish universal peace based on social justice the Peace Treaty not only laid down general principles in regard to questions affecting labour which were recognized by the High Contracting Parties to be "of special and urgent importance," but also brought into being an organization to which was entrusted the task of securing, as far as practicable, the observance of these principles. The Conventions and recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference are not automatically binding on the members of the organization, but they have to be submitted to the legislature of each country, and this secures the regular examination both by the executive and the Legislature of schemes which international opinion considers necessary and desirable for the amelioration of labour conditions. The International Labour Organization has thus been able to exercise a considerable influence on recent labour legislation in India. Eleven sessions of the International Labour Conference have been held between 1919 and 1929, and no less than 26 draft Conventions have been adopted by the Conference. Of these, eleven Conventions have been ratified by India, while the question of ratifying certain other Conventions is still under consideration. But the progress achieved in India as the result of the deliberations of the International Labour Conference cannot be judged solely by the number of ratifications. Account must also be taken of the extent and nature of the legislation which has resulted from

\* Madras Planters (Repealing) Act, 1927. The Madras Planters' Labour Act, 1903, ceased to have effect from the 1st January, 1929.

the decisions of the Conference. As was stated by Sir Louis Kershaw, the Government delegate to the tenth session of the International Labour Conference, "if a Government, whose legislation is already in conformity with the provisions of a Draft Convention, ratifies that Convention, it is clear that no tangible benefit follows to the worker; but if, on the other hand, ratification involves new obligations and fresh legislation, then the workers benefit."

The action taken by India on each of the Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference is indicated below. The Conventions marked with an asterisk are those which have been ratified by the Government of India.

*First Session. (Washington, 1919).*

(i) \**Draft Convention limiting the Hours of Work in Industrial Undertakings.*—This Convention required India to adopt the principle of a sixty-hour week for all workers in industries covered by the Indian Factories Act, in mines and in such branches of railway work as may be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. The Indian Factories Act of 1911 contained no provisions for limiting the weekly hours of work. It placed a daily limitation on hours of work, but that too, so far as male workers were concerned, applied only to textile factories. The position under the Indian Mines Act of 1901 was still worse; it contained no provisions for regulating the hours of work. The ratification of the Convention accordingly led to a radical revision of both these Acts. In the case of railways, orders were issued in September, 1921, that the sixty-hour week should be adopted for workshop staff and station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. These orders were, however, modified in January, 1922, so as to exclude from their operation the following classes of electrical workers on railways (i) running and maintenance staff of power house; (ii) maintenance staff in shops who can be classed as millwrights; (iii) maintenance staff on outside work who are required to work on maintenance of electric installation, distribution mains, etc.

The question of extending the application of the sixty-hour week on railways has been for some time under the consideration of the Government of India. The matter was referred to the Indian Railway Conference Association, which, at a meeting held in October, 1927, adopted a resolution approving of certain rules on the subject. These rules have also been approved of by the Railway Board in respect of the State-managed railways and by the several boards of directors concerned in respect of company managed railways, but the question of their enforcement is still under consideration.

(ii) \**Draft Convention concerning Unemployment.*—An account of this Convention has already been given in Chapter IV.

(iii) *Draft Convention concerning the Employment of Women before and after Child-birth.*—As already explained in Chapter VI, this Convention was not intended to be applied immediately to India.

(iv) \**Draft Convention concerning the employment of Women during the Night.*

(v) \**Draft Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.*—The position in regard to both these Conventions, which have been ratified by the Government of India, is explained in Chapter XI.

(vi) *Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.*—This Convention required India to prohibit the employment of children under twelve years of age in (a) manufactories working with power and employing more than ten persons; (b) mines, quarries and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (c) the transport of passengers or goods or mails, by rail or in the handling of goods at docks, quays and wharves but excluding transport by hand.

The Indian Factories Act as it stood at the time when this Convention was under consideration applied only to factories using power and employing more than 49 persons. The Government of India proposed to amend the definition of "factory" in the Act so as to cover factories using power and employing not less than 20 persons, and to empower local governments to bring within the scope of the Act any factory employing not less than 10 persons. But they were not prepared to go so far as was required by this draft Convention, as they realized that, without an efficient inspecting staff, legislation would prove nugatory, and it was quite impossible to provide for the large and sudden increase of staff that would be required to deal with the numerous small industrial establishments employing 10 or more persons. The Government of India therefore expressed their inability to ratify this draft Convention unless the two following reservations were accepted (i) that it shall not apply to factories employing more than 10 but less than 20 persons unless the local

Government so direct; (ii) that transitional regulations should be made regarding children between the ages of nine and twelve already lawfully employed in factories.

Although the Draft Convention was not ratified, provisions were included in the Indian Factories and Mines Acts prohibiting the employment of children under the age of twelve years in factories and under the age of thirteen years in mines. An amendment was also made in the Indian Ports Act of 1908 so as to make it obligatory on a local government to make rules prohibiting the employment of children under the age of twelve years upon the handling of goods at piers, jetties, landing-places, wharves, quays, docks, warehouses and sheds.

*Second Session (Genoa, 1920).*

(vii) *Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.*—This Convention was designed to prohibit the employment of children under the age of fourteen years on all ships and boats of any nature whatsoever engaged in maritime navigation, except ships of war, school ships, training ships and vessels in which members of the same family are employed. It further provided that every shipmaster should be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of 16 years employed on board his vessel and of the dates of their birth. The ratification of this Convention presented two difficulties. In the first place, under the existing Indian Shipping law, agreements with seamen are obligatory only in respect of engagements for service on foreign-going ships and home-trade ships of a burden exceeding 300 tons, and it is only where agreements are obligatory that the Government of India could undertake to enforce this Convention. Secondly, a practice exists in India whereby Indian seamen are allowed to take with them on boardship their young sons and nephews. These boys serve as deck-hands on nominal wages and are, in fact, apprentices. The practice is regarded in the light of a privilege, and it was not possible to interfere with it. The Government of India were, therefore, unable to ratify the Draft Convention, but they decided to give effect to it subject to the following reservations (a) that it shall apply only to foreign-going ships and to home-trade ships of a burden exceeding 300 tons; and (b) that nothing in the Draft Convention shall be deemed to interfere with the Indian custom of sending young boys to sea on nominal wages in the charge of their fathers or near relatives.

No legislation has as yet been undertaken, but the question of introducing a single Bill dealing with all the maritime Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference is at present under the consideration of the Government of India.

(viii) *Draft Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship.*—This Convention required the owner of a vessel, or the person with whom the seamen had contracted for service on board the vessel, to pay to each seaman employed thereon an indemnity against unemployment resulting from loss or foundering of the vessel. This indemnity was to be paid at the same rate as the wages payable under the contract for the days during which the seaman in fact remained unemployed, but the Convention provided for the limitation of the total indemnity to two months' wages. The Government of India anticipated great difficulties in giving effect to this Convention in the circumstances obtaining in India, where no labour exchanges or employment offices exist with whom shipwrecked seamen on their return to India could be registered for employment. The Draft Convention was not ratified, but the resolution which was adopted by the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State recommended to the Government of India that enquiries should be undertaken to ascertain whether the law should not be amended so as to provide (1) that any Indian seaman whose service is terminated before the period contemplated in his agreement by reason of the wreck or loss of the ship should be entitled to his wages until he is repatriated to the port of his departure from India; and (2) that he should be paid compensation for loss of his personal effects up to the limit of one month's wages. No legislation has yet been undertaken.

(ix) *Draft Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen.*—The Legislature did not recommend the ratification of this Convention but suggested that an examination should be undertaken of the methods of recruitment of seamen at the different ports in India in order to ascertain whether abuses existed and, if so, whether they were susceptible of remedy. A Committee was accordingly appointed in 1922 to enquire into the whole system of recruitment of seamen in India, and, as a result of its investigations, administrative action was taken to prevent certain serious abuses which were found to exist at Calcutta.

*Third Session (Geneva, 1921).*

(x) *Draft Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture.*—This Convention was designed to prohibit the employment of children under the age of 14 years in any agricultural undertaking, except outside the hours

fixed for school attendance. The wording of this Convention was somewhat ambiguous and the Government of India had some correspondence with the Director of the International Labour Office with regard to the exact intention of its provisions. According to the interpretation of the Director, the obligation imposed by the Convention upon a State member ratifying it is confined to securing that those children who are compelled by law to attend school should have no obstacle placed in their way by reason of their employment in agriculture. But in that event, while the ratification of the Convention involved no legislative action so far as India was concerned, it became virtually devoid of meaning. On the whole, therefore, the Government of India decided not to ratify it.

(xi) *\*Draft Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.*—This Convention has been ratified, but it involved no legislative action on the part of the Government of India. The Convention required a State member ratifying it to secure to all those engaged in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as to industrial workers. There was nothing in the law in force in India at the time when this Convention was ratified which discriminated between these two classes of workers and this position has been maintained by the Indian Trade Unions Act, which was passed in 1926.

(xii) *Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.*—This Convention required each State member ratifying it to undertake to extend to all agricultural wage-earners the provisions of its workmen's compensation laws. It was obviously impossible to bring agricultural labourers within the scope of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, and the Convention was not, therefore, ratified.

(xiii) *Draft Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.*—The action taken on this Draft Convention has already been indicated in Chapter VI.

(xiv) *\*Draft Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.*—This Convention, which has been ratified, applies in India to factories as defined by the Factories Act, mines and to such branches of railway work as may be specified for the purpose by the competent authority. The ratification of this Convention was made possible by the amendment of the Factories Act in 1922 and by the Indian Mines Act of 1923. In the case of railways a weekly rest-day is granted by railway administrations for practically all classes of employees except train staff, certain men working on stations and yards, those engaged in light intermittent duties, such as gatemen and men employed on maintenance of way and bridges, but in all these cases periods of rest are arranged which, although not strictly in accordance with the Convention, approximate to the principle involved. The application of the weekly rest-day on railways has in some cases led to certain practical difficulties. For instance, on one railway, where, under the existing arrangement, station staff are employed on work for eight hours a day throughout the week, an arrangement to allow a day for rest once a week by increasing the working hours on other days, without raising the total hours beyond 60 in the week, was objected to by the staff. On another railway, gangmen employed on the permanent way objected to a weekly day of rest which was proposed to be substituted for two days' leave every fortnight now given to the men to enable them to go to their homes. The whole question is still under examination by the Railway Board, in consultation with the railway administrations.

(xv) *\*Draft Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.*—This Convention stipulated that young persons under the age of 18 years shall not be employed on vessels as trimmers or stokers, but in the case of vessels exclusively engaged in the coastal trade of India it permitted young persons of not less than 16 years of age to be so employed. The Convention was ratified by the Government of India and instructions were issued to the shipping officers not to permit any young person to be signed on as a trimmer or stoker in contravention of the terms of the Convention. It is proposed to undertake legislation for giving statutory effect to this Convention.

(xvi) *\*Draft Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea.*—This Convention stipulated that no child or young person under the age of 18 years shall be employed on any vessel, unless he produces a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work. It also provided for the periodical medical examination of young persons employed at sea. This Convention was also ratified and its provisions have been enforced by means of executive instructions. It is also proposed to undertake legislation for giving statutory effect to this Convention.

*Seventh Session (Geneva, 1925).*

(xvii) *Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.*—The provisions of this Convention went much beyond the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and its application in India involved a radical revision of that Act,

which had then been in force only for little over a year. The Government of India considered it impracticable to undertake any such revision at that time and the Convention was not, therefore, ratified.

(xviii) \**Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.*—The ratification of this Convention led to the amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Act already provided for the grant of compensation for such diseases, but a slight amendment was made in order to bring the Act into conformity with the Convention. It was also necessary for the Governor-General in Council to issue a notification under section 3 (3) of the Act adding mercury poisoning to the list of occupational diseases for which compensation can be claimed.

(xix) \**Draft Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.*—This Convention has been ratified but it necessitated no legislative action on the part of the Government of India, as foreign workers in British India are equally eligible with nationals for the benefits conferred by the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act.

(xx) *Draft Convention concerning night work in bakeries.*—This Convention was designed to prevent the making of bread, pastry or other flour confectionery during the night. It was not suited to conditions in India, where the night is normally the more healthy time for such work than the day. The Convention was accordingly not ratified.

#### *Eighth Session (Geneva, 1926).*

(xxi) \**Draft Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship.*—The ratification of this Convention led to the amendment of the Indian Emigration Act of 1922. The term "emigrant ship" was defined and the Governor-General in Council was empowered to make rules for the appointment of Inspectors for the voyage should circumstances require such action. But no Inspectors were actually appointed for the inspection of emigrants, as it was considered that, in view of the short duration of the voyages concerned in Indian emigration, and the fact that the peculiar complications of European emigration did not arise, the guarantees afforded by the existing system of port inspection were sufficient to protect the emigrant.

#### *Ninth Session (Geneva, 1926).*

(xxii) *Draft Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement.*

(xxiii) *Draft Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen.*

The ratification of both these Conventions would have involved the amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act. The resolution adopted by the Legislature recommended that the question of the ratification of these Conventions should be considered at a later date when the amendments necessary to bring the existing law into conformity with these Conventions had been further examined in consultation with the parties interested.

#### *Tenth Session (Geneva, 1927).*

(xxiv) *Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and for domestic servants.*

(xxv) *Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers.*

These Conventions have already been dealt with in Chapter VI.

#### *Eleventh Session (Geneva, 1928).*

(xxvi) *Draft Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery.*—A reference to this Convention has already been made in Chapter XII.

Thus out of the eleven Conventions ratified by India only three involved no further legislation, viz., items (ii), (xi) and (xix) above. Two Conventions [items (xv) and (xvi) above] have been ratified but the necessary legislation has not yet been undertaken. In some other cases [e.g., items (vi), (ix) and xviii] above] some action has been taken, though the Conventions have not been ratified by the Government of India.

*Relations between Central and Local Governments.*—Under the existing constitution, industrial matters included under the following heads, namely:—(a) factories; (b) settlement of labour disputes; and (c) welfare of labour, including provident funds, industrial insurance (general, health and accident) and housing, are provincial reserved subjects but subject to central legislation. The provincial legislatures are not debarred from initiating legislation on these matters but they can only do so with the previous sanction of the Governor-General. The actual administration of the Acts passed by the Central Legislature under the above heads falls on the local governments which have to bear the entire cost of administration, as it is not permissible under the constitution to incur any expenditure from central revenues on the administration of provincial subjects. This constitutional position is perhaps, to some extent, responsible for the opposition shown by some of the local governments to labour measures on which their opinions have recently been invited by the Government of India. The Governor-General in Council exercises control over the administration of the Acts passed by the Central Legislature falling under the above heads in two ways. In the first place he is vested by statute with the general power of superintendence, direction and control, and, secondly, these acts in most cases either specially reserve certain powers to him or make the exercise of the powers conferred on local governments subject to his control. Thus, the Indian Factories Act confers power on the Governor-General in Council to make rules requiring occupiers or managers of factories to furnish returns and for the adequate disinfection of wool used in factories which may be infected with anthrax spores (Sections 38 and 38A) while Section 57 of that Act also empowers the Governor-General in Council to exercise any power conferred upon the local government by the Act. Again, the exercise by local governments of the powers to make rules under Section 37 and to grant exemptions from the provisions of the Act under Sections 30 (1), 32 and 32A, is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, reserves the following powers to the Governor-General in Council:—(1) to extend the scope of the Act to persons employed in any occupation, which may be declared to be a hazardous occupation (Section 2 (3)); (2) to add to the list of occupational diseases contained in Schedule III (Section 3 (3)); (3) to direct persons employing workmen to furnish returns relating to the amount of compensation paid and the number of injuries in respect of which compensation has been paid (Section 16); and (4) to make rules to carry out the purposes of the Act (Section 32). The power conferred by Section 33 of this Act on local governments to make rules is subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. The general principle observed by the Government of India has been to grant to the provinces as free a hand as possible in the administration of these Acts. Where interference is found to be necessary, the general policy has been to tender criticisms in the form of advice and to avoid the issue of direct orders.

Under the Devolution Rules "Regulation of mines" and "Inter-provincial migration" are central subjects. The Indian Mines Act of 1901 conferred large powers on the local governments, but these were curtailed considerably by the Act of 1923. The technical administration of the latter Act is vested in the Governor-General in Council, while minor matters of administration are left to be dealt with by local governments. Here again the power to make rules conferred on local governments can be exercised by them only subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council. In the matter of inter-provincial migration the part played by local governments is that of an agent of the Central Government. There are four embarkation depots\* in Bengal and two emigration hospitals in Assam† which are maintained at the expense of the Central Government. In Burma, there is a whole-time officer called the Assistant Protector of Emigrants and Immigrants under the control of the officer in charge of the Labour Statistics Bureau, Rangoon.

*Work of Special Labour Offices or Officers.*—There are only four provinces in India in which there are special labour offices or officers to deal with labour questions. In Madras there is a Commissioner of Labour and in Calcutta a Labour Intelligence Officer. Both of these officers were appointed in 1920. The former is also Protector of Depressed Classes, in which work most of his time is occupied, while the latter also acts as a deputy secretary to the local government. The Bombay Labour Office, which is organized on an elaborate scale, was established by the local government in April, 1921. This office has to its credit most of the statistical research into labour conditions done in India. It has conducted three enquiries at different times into the wages and hours of labour in the cotton mill industry in the Bombay Presidency and one enquiry into the wages of agricultural labour.

\* These embarkation depots are at Kharagpur, Naihati, Asansol and Goalando.

† At Gauhati and Tezpur.

It has also conducted a number of investigations in other directions, and has published monthly since 1921 a Labour Gazette containing information on questions concerning labour in Bombay. In Burma a Labour Statistics Bureau was set up in 1926. This Bureau has conducted an extensive investigation into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, the report of which was published in 1928.

A Labour Bureau was also established by the Government of India in 1920, but it was abolished in March, 1923, on the recommendation of the Indian Retrenchment Committee. It was intended to act as a Bureau for the collection of information, but its attention was mainly devoted to labour legislation, which was particularly heavy during that period.

*Effect of differences in Law in Indian States and British India.*—Few Indian States have any labour legislation but most of them are of little industrial importance. From an enquiry which was made on behalf of the International Labour Office, Geneva, it appears that there are only seven Indian States\* in which the number of persons employed in factories and mines is over 8,000. Most of these States have a Factories Act which is, however, much below the standard of the corresponding Act in British India. In recent years there has been a distinct tendency on the part of certain capitalists to endeavour to evade the provisions of the factory law of British India by establishing mills or factories in the territories of Indian States. The Inspector of Factories, Punjab, in his annual report on the working of the Indian Factories Act for the year 1924 reported as follows :—

“ Factory owners in districts adjoining Indian States protest that the Amended Act, entailing the upkeep of registers and compliance with other regulations regarding working hours, Sunday closing, etc., places them at a disadvantage with those in Indian States, where the Factories Act is not in force. Their complaint is a genuine one and felt particularly during the busy ginning season, when there is an all-round demand for skilled and unskilled labour. Employment in factories in States situated within two or three miles of the British territory is always given preference by the workers as they know they are at liberty to work in State territory as long as they wish and thereby earn bigger wages. This is particularly applicable to child labour. During 1924, one factory in Multan district was removed to an Indian State for the purpose of avoiding the provisions of the Indian Factories Act, whilst another in Lyallpur district is expected to be removed next season. Unless the Factories Act is made uniform in both the British and Indian States territories, the tendency will be for factories to be erected in States where factory legislation does not exist and the objects of the Act will be defeated.”

Another case was reported in 1928 in which a certain factory owner attempted to remove his factories from one Indian State, where recently a law had been adopted imposing restrictions on the hours of work, to another State, where no such law was in operation.

*Factory Inspection.*—The inspection of factories is entrusted to officers designated, Inspectors of Factories. They fall broadly into two classes, viz., (1) whole-time officers with technical qualifications who are specially appointed for the purpose by the local government, and (2) district magistrates who are ex-officio inspectors under the Act. In addition, the local government may appoint such other public officers, e.g., Sub-divisional Officers and Directors of Public Health, as additional inspectors for all or any of the purposes of the Act. At first, the inspection of factories in India was entrusted almost entirely to local officials, but this proved a complete failure, as the district magistrates were able to devote very little time to the inspection of factories owing to their other and more important duties. Besides, they were not in a position to deal with technical matters such as the adequate fencing of machinery. The tendency has therefore been to rely more on a regular staff and less on local officials for the administration of the Factories Act. Owing to the size of the country and to the fact that the smaller factories lie scattered over a vast area, it has not been possible to dispense with the inspection by district officers, but the responsibility for the efficient administration of the Act now rests primarily with the regular staff, which in each province is under the control of a Chief Inspector of Factories. In order to secure the necessary co-operation between the district magistrates and the inspecting staff the rules made by local governments provide that a copy of all inspection notes shall be sent by the one to the other for information. In addition to inspectors, the Act also provides for the appointment of qualified medical practitioners as certifying surgeons. The powers and duties of these officers are laid down in Section 7 of the Act; they are

\* Viz., Hyderabad, Mysore, Indore, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Gwalior and Travancore.

required ordinarily to visit every factory within their jurisdiction in which children are known to be employed at least once in every three or four months. At each visit the manager of a factory has to produce all the children employed by him before the certifying surgeon who has to satisfy himself as to their fitness for employment.

When the revision of the Indian Factories Act was under consideration the Government of India impressed on local governments the necessity of strengthening the whole-time inspecting staff in the provinces in order to secure the regular inspection of the numerous small concerns and seasonal factories which it was proposed to bring within the scope of the Act. The statement below shows the increase in the regular staff in each province since 1921.

*Strength of the Factory Inspection Staff in 1921 and 1927.*

Name of Province and year.	No. of Chief Inspectors.	No. of Inspectors.	No. of Assistant Inspectors.	Total.
Madras .. .. 1921	1	2	..	3
	1927	4	1	6
Bombay .. .. 1921	1	10	..	11(a)
	1927	4	3	8(b)
Bengal and Assam .. 1921	1	5	..	6
	1927	6	3	10
The United Provinces 1921	..	1	..	1(c)
	1927	1	3	4(d)
The Punjab .. .. 1921	..	1	1	2(e)
	1927	1	6(f)	7(e)
Burma... .. 1921	..	1	1	2
	1927	1	2	3
Bihar and Orissa .. 1921	..	1	..	1
	1927	1	1	2
The Central Provinces 1921	..	1	..	1
	1927	1	2	3

(a) Combined staff for factory and boiler inspection.

(b) Staff employed solely for factory inspection.

(c) Also the Senior Inspector of Boilers.

(d) Combined staff for factory and boiler inspection.

(e) The staff in the Punjab also serves three Administrations, viz., the North-West Frontier Province, Ajmer-Merwara, and Delhi.

(f) The Assistant Inspectors in the Punjab are Industrial Surveyors who are appointed additional Inspectors of Factories.

In view of the fact that the number of factories has increased by about 85 per cent. and a large number of the new factories are situated at some distance from the main lines of communications, the increase of staff can hardly be regarded as adequate. In 1921 the Government of India drew the attention of local government to the desirability of appointing medical women as lady inspectors, but, so far, only one such appointment has been made.\* The only province which has not a separate staff is Assam where most of the factories are seasonal and there is not sufficient work for an Inspector of Factories during the off season. At the instance of the Government of India, the local government are now trying to recruit an inspector who will combine the work of factory inspection with that of electrical adviser to the local government. There are only four whole-time certifying surgeons in India of whom two are employed in Bombay and two in Bengal.

In spite of the fact that the increase of staff has not kept pace with the increase in the volume of work, considerable progress has been made in the number of

\* The only lady inspector in India is employed in the Bombay Presidency.



inspections, as will be seen from the table below. It should, however, be pointed out that the figures for 1926 and 1927 include inspections by ex-officio inspectors, which were excluded from the statistics of 1921 in some provinces.

Name of Province and year.	Total number of factories.	Percentage of factories inspected				Percentage of factories inspected.	Percentage of factories remaining un-inspected.
		Once.	Twice.	Thrice.	More than three times.		
<b>Madras—</b>							
1921 ..	519	36	45	12	1	94	6
1926 ..	1,198	23	43	22	8	96	4
1927 ..	1,301	14	38	30	17	99	1
<b>Bombay—</b>							
1921 ..	926	43	7	4	34	88	12
1926 ..	1,398	29	32	17	20	98	2
1927 ..	1,426	26	34	19	20	99	1
<b>Bengal—</b>							
1921 ..	698	25	6	4	5	40	60
1926 ..	1,234	44	16	6	14	80	20
1927 ..	1,297	43	18	10	17	88	12
<b>The United Provinces—</b>							
1921 ..	201	33	22	7	3	65	35
1926 ..	313	38	21	15	15	89	11
1927 ..	332	54	22	7	4	87	13
<b>The Punjab—</b>							
1921 ..	261	57	26	6	4	93	7
1926 ..	548	73	18	2	..	93	7
1927 ..	546	77	13	2	..	92	8
<b>Burma—</b>							
1921 ..	729	57	1	..	..	58	42
1926 ..	923	80	9	..	..	89	11
1927 ..	940	79	8	..	..	87	13
<b>Bihar and Orissa—</b>							
1921 ..	88	43	6	2	..	51	49
1926 ..	242	63	15	..	1	79	21
1927 ..	255	36	5	2	2	45	55
<b>The Central Provinces—</b>							
1921 ..	459	34	16	6	5	61	39
1926 ..	677	43	34	16	7	100	..
1927 ..	704	39	33	15	12	99	1
<b>Assam—</b>							
1921 ..	22	55	..	..	..	55	45
1926 ..	589	43	4	..	..	47	53
1927 ..	591	46	9	..	..	55	45
<b>All India, including Administrations—</b>							
1921 ..	3,957	41	14	5	10	70	30
1926 ..	7,251	44	24	11	9	88	12
1927 ..	7,515	42	23	13	11	89	11

The best progress has been made in Madras, Bombay and the Central Provinces, while in Assam the percentage of uninspected factories continues to be high. The figures regarding convictions also show that substantial progress has been made in the enforcement of the Act. In 1921 the number of persons convicted was only 55, but in 1927 no less than 1,420 convictions were obtained against 432 persons. In some provinces\* the number of prosecutions for infringements of the Act has been comparatively small, and in one case† the attention of the local government was drawn to the fact that the small number of prosecutions accompanied by a high accident rate might give the impression that the Act was not being stringently enforced within the province.

A complaint which is often repeated in the factory reports is the inadequacy of the fines inflicted by magistrates for deliberate violations of the factory law. As the result of the action taken in some provinces there has in recent years been a marked improvement in this respect, but there are still a large number of cases in which the penalty imposed can hardly be regarded as deterrent.

*Inspection of Mines.*—The inspection of mines in India is entrusted to the Mines Department, which is directly under the Central Government. In the year 1901 when the first Indian Mines Act was passed, the department consisted of one Chief Inspector and two Inspectors. In 1905 an additional Inspector was appointed and in 1913 the department was further strengthened by the appointment of a junior Inspector. In 1919-20 two more officers were appointed, and in 1922, in view of the increasing use of electricity in mines, an Electric Inspector of Mines was added to the staff. In 1925 the department was further strengthened by the addition of two more appointments, viz., one of an Inspector and one of a junior Inspector. The inspecting staff now consists of one Chief Inspector, three Inspectors, five junior Inspectors, and one Electric Inspector. The Inspectors and junior Inspectors are all required to possess first-class certificates of competency to manage a coal-mine, while the Electric Inspector is a qualified Electrical Engineer with knowledge of electricity as applied to mines. For purposes of inspection, British India has been divided into two circles, the first circle consisting of the Provinces of Baluchistan, North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Ajmer-Merwara, the United Provinces, and a portion of the province of Bihar and Orissa, and the second circle of the rest of British India including Burma. Each circle is in charge of an Inspector of Mines who is assisted by junior Inspectors and is responsible for the inspection of mines within his jurisdiction.

The Indian Mines Act of 1923 involved a considerable increase in the work of the Mines Department as the definition of a mine was changed to include a large number of stone and other mines which are scattered throughout India. This increase has, to a certain extent, been countered by the large number of collieries which have been closed owing to the slump in the coal trade. The total number of mines in 1928 coming within the scope of the Act was 1,948, of which 982 mines were inspected during the year. Many of these mines were inspected several times, the total number of inspections being 2,410. The causes and circumstances of practically all fatal accidents and serious accidents of importance, and all complaints of breaches of rules are promptly investigated by the Indian Mines Department. It is not possible for the staff to inspect each mine annually or to inspect more than a part of a mine in the case of the larger mines, but, as will be seen from the statement below the number of inspections has nearly doubled since 1920.

*Inspection of Mines in British India.*

Year.	No. of mines within the scope of the Act.		No. of mines inspected.	No. of inspections.
	Coal-mines.	All mines.		
1919 ..	741	1,719	312	564
1920 ..	783	1,716	702	1,228
1921 ..	884	1,741	798	1,233
1922 ..	953	1,618	877	1,769
1923 ..	942	1,543	903	1,680
1924 ..	846	1,804	763	1,539
1925 ..	810	2,011	958	1,938
1926 ..	722	1,897	1,180	2,321
1927 ..	644	1,992	1,096	2,395
1928 ..	556	1,948	982	2,410

\* E.g., the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam.

† Bihar and Orissa.

The following table shows the number of prosecutions instituted in each year since 1919 and their results :—

Years.	Number of prosecutions.	Number of persons prosecuted.	Number of persons convicted.
1919 .. .. .	35	57	42
1920 .. .. .	53	62	47
1921 .. .. .	47	72	47
1922 .. .. .	59	76	50
1923 .. .. .	39	61	46
1924 .. .. .	68	97	72
1925 .. .. .	62	122	76
1926 .. .. .	75	123	70
1927 .. .. .	61	109	81
1928 .. .. .	88	122	93

## APPENDICES.

### APPENDIX I.

#### *The Assam Labour Recruitment Bill.*

*A Bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to recruitment to the Labour Districts of Assam.*

Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the law relating to recruitment for the labour districts of Assam; it is here by enacted as follows :—

#### *Chapter I.—Preliminary.*

1. (i) This Act may be called the Assam Labour Recruitment Act, 19 ..
  - (ii) It extends—
    - (a) to the Presidencies of Madras and Bengal and to the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa (including the Santhal Parganas), the Central Provinces, and Assam; and
    - (b) to such other parts of British India as the local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official Gazette, direct.
  - (iii) It shall come into force—
    - (i) In the territories mentioned in Clause (a) of Sub-section (ii), at once; and
    - (ii) in any territories to which it may be extended by a notification under Clause (b) of the said Sub-section, on such day as may be specified in that behalf in the notification.
  2. (i) In this Act, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context—
    - (a) " Board " means the Assam Labour Board constituted under Chapter III;
    - (b) " dependent " includes any woman (not being a labourer), any child and any aged or incapacitated relative or friend accompanying any labourer with the consent of a garden-sardar or recruiter or the local agent under whose control the garden-sardar or recruiter may be working;
    - (c) " employer " means the chief person for the time being in charge of any estate;
    - (d) " Estate " means land used for the purposes of tea plantation upon which labourers have been engaged to labour and may, if so notified by the Governor-General in Council, include land used for purposes other than of tea plantation;
    - (e) " garden-sardar " means a person employed on an estate and deputed by his employer to recruit labourers;
    - (f) " labour-district " means any of the districts of Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong, Darrang, Kamrup, Goalpara, Cachar and Sylhet in the Province of Assam;
    - (g) " Labourer " means any person (not being a native of a labour-district) of the age of 16 years and upwards who is recruited, engaged, or assisted to proceed from any part of the territories in which this Act may for the time being be in force, to a labour-district for the purposes of performing manual labour for hire on an estate otherwise than as a domestic servant.
- Explanation.*—If any such person having proceeded from an Indian state into such territories is assisted to proceed therefrom for the purpose aforesaid, he shall be deemed to be a labourer within the meaning of this definition :
- (h) " local agent " means a local agent licensed under this Act;

(i) "magistrate" means a District Magistrate or other person appointed by the local government to perform the functions of a magistrate under this Act ;

(j) "native district" in the case of a person who, having proceeded from an Indian State into territories in which this Act is in force, proceeds therefrom, includes such an Indian State ;

(k) "recruiter" means a person who is not a garden-sardar and is deputed by an employer to recruit labourers ;

(l) "recruiting-district" means a district in which this Act is for the time being in force, other than a labour-district.

3. (i) The local government may, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the local official gazette, prohibit either absolutely or subject to such exceptions, conditions and restrictions as may be prescribed in the notification all persons from recruiting, engaging or assisting any native of India, or any specified class of natives of India, to proceed from the whole or any specified part of the province, to any labour-district or any specified portion of any labour-district otherwise than through the agency of garden-sardars.

(ii) The local government may with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council by notification in the local official gazette, direct that garden-sardars shall work under the control of local agents duly licensed under this Act ;

Provided that a notification under this section shall not take effect until the expiry of six months from the date of its publication in the gazette, unless for any special reason the local government thinks it necessary to direct otherwise.

4. (i) The local government may appoint so many persons as it thinks necessary to be officers for the administration of this Act, and, with respect to any such officer, may declare the local area situate in the province within which he shall exercise the powers and perform the duties conferred and imposed upon him by this Act or any rule thereunder.

(ii) Every person so appointed shall be deemed to be a public servant within the meaning of the Indian Penal Code.

#### *Chapter II.—Garden-Sardars and Recruiters.*

5. The Government of Assam may prescribe by rules the conditions for and the procedure to be observed in the grant of a certificate of authority to a garden-sardar or recruiter by his employer for recruiting labourers in recruiting districts. The certificates shall be in such form and contain such particulars as may be prescribed.

6. (i) The local government may authorize any district magistrate to grant licences to suitable persons to be local agents, for the purpose of representing employers within a specified area and for a specified period, in all matters connected with the supervision of garden-sardars and recruiters under this Act.

(ii) Any employer, or on behalf of any employer, any association or firm duly authorized by general or special order of the local government for the purpose of this clause, may apply for a licence as aforesaid to be granted to a specified person.

(iii) A local agent shall furnish such information and make such returns as the local government may, by rules, prescribe.

7. (i) The district magistrate of any district within which a local agent acts as such may, by order in writing, cancel or suspend for a specified period a licence granted to a local agent :—(a) If he is satisfied that the conduct of the local agent justifies such a course ; or (b) on an application made for the cancellation or suspension of the licence by an employer, association or firm at whose instance the licence was granted under Section 6.

(ii) A local agent may, within three months from the date of any order of a district magistrate cancelling or suspending his licence under Clause (a) of Sub-section (i), appeal against the order to the local government, and the decision of the local government thereon shall be final.

8. The local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council prescribe by rules the procedure to be adopted and the duties to be performed by garden-sardars and recruiters working independently, and, by garden-sardars and recruiters working under the control of local agents, respectively, and by local agents, for the recruitment of labourers, their registration, medical inspection (if necessary), accommodation, removal to labour-districts, and provision of escort.

9. (i) Subject to any orders which the local government may make in this behalf, a district magistrate (or any other magistrate empowered by the local government in this behalf) may, if he thinks fit, detain and send back to his native district any

labourer found within the jurisdiction of the said magistrate, together with his dependants (if any), on the ground that the labourer was recruited by any coercion, undue influence, fraud or misrepresentation, or of any irregularity in connection with his recruitment.

Any expenditure incurred under this sub-section may be recovered from the employer on whose estate the labourer concerned was working or was proceeding to work.

(ii) The magistrate may provide an escort or make such other arrangements as he may think necessary for ensuring that the labourer or other person is actually conveyed to his native district. Any expenditure incurred under this sub-section may be recovered as part of the amount expended in sending the labourer or other person back to his native district.

10. (i) Every employer shall keep such registers of all labourers and other persons employed on the estate of which he is in charge, and of their dependants, in such form, and shall make to the district magistrate within the local limits of whose jurisdiction the estate is situate, such periodical returns in writing as the local government may, by rule, prescribe.

(ii) The district magistrate, or any other magistrate authorized by him, may examine the registers so kept and muster all labourers and other persons employed on any estate within the said local limits, and may verify the accuracy of the entries in the registers, or in any prescribed periodical return.

#### *Chapter III.—Assam Labour Board.*

11. (i) There shall be a board, to be called the Assam Labour Board, for the supervision of local agents, and of the recruitment and engagement of natives of India under this Act.

(ii) The Assam Labour Board shall be a body corporate, and have perpetual succession and a common seal, and may by that name sue and be sued.

(iii) The Assam Labour Board (hereinafter called the Board) shall consist of nine members, including the chairman, who shall be an officer in the service of Government, to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council by notification in the Gazette of India. Four persons shall be nominated by the Governments of Madras, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces, respectively, to represent the interests of labour. The remaining members shall be elected by the following bodies, namely:—(a) Two by the Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, as representatives of that Association and of the Indian Tea Association, London; (b) one by the Assam Branch, Indian Tea Association; and (c) one by the Surma Valley Branch, Indian Tea Association.

(iv) The election shall be made in such manner as may be determined by the electing bodies subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council, and the name of every person so elected shall be published in the Gazette of India.

(v) If within the period prescribed by rules made under this chapter any of the aforesaid bodies fails to elect representatives or to elect the full number of representatives to which it is entitled, the Governor-General in Council may nominate persons to be members of the Board as representatives of the said bodies.

(vi) No act done by the Board shall be questioned on the ground merely of the existence of any vacancy in or any defect in the constitution of the Board.

12. (i) The Governor-General in Council may fix the salary of the chairman of the Board.

(ii) Such salary shall be paid in such proportions by the Governor-General in Council and the Board as the Governor-General in Council may from time to time determine.

13. (i) The Board may appoint so many persons as it thinks necessary to be supervisors, with such powers and duties in respect of the supervision of local agents, and the other matters mentioned in Section 11 as may be conferred and imposed on them by rules made under this chapter.

(ii) Subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, the Board may fix the salary to be paid to supervisors.

(iii) The local government may, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, declare the local area in the province within which supervisors shall exercise the powers and perform the duties conferred and imposed upon them by rule under this chapter.

(iv) Every supervisor shall be deemed to be a public servant within the meaning of the Indian Penal Code.

14. (i) Subject to the provisions of rules made under this chapter, the Board may levy a cess on employers for the purpose of meeting expenditure incurred in carrying out its functions under this Act, and in particular for the payment of the salary of the supervisors and of such proportion of the salary of the chairman as may be determined under Section 12.

(ii) Such cess shall be payable on every garden-sardar or recruiter deputed by an employer to recruit or engage labourers and on every labourer assisted to proceed to a labour-district :

Provided that the rates at which the cess is levied shall not exceed the following rates, namely :—Rs. 5 a year on each garden-sardar or recruiter so deputed ; and Rs. 5 on each labourer assisted to emigrate.

(iii) On the failure of an employer for the space of one month after the receipt of a notice in such form and served in such manner as the Governor-General in Council may, by rule under this chapter, prescribe to pay any sum due under Sub-section (i), the same shall be recoverable from him.

15. (i) The Governor-General in Council shall, after previous publication, make rules to carry out the purposes of this chapter.

(ii) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power such rules may, subject to the provisions of this Act, provide :—

(a) For the powers to be exercised and the duties to be performed by the Board in carrying out the purposes for which it is constituted, and for the powers and duties of the chairman ;

(b) for the period within which elections to the Board must be made, and for the appointment of temporary or acting members of the Board during the absence of any member ;

(c) for the times and places of meeting and procedure of the Board ;

(d) for regulating the rate of the cess, the method of levying and collecting the cess, the purposes to which the cess may be applied, and the accounts to be kept and the audit thereof ; and

(e) for the powers and duties of supervisors appointed under Section 13.

#### *Chapter IV.—Rules.*

16. (i) In addition to the powers hereinbefore conferred, the local Government may make rules to carry out any of the purposes and objects of this Act in the province.

(ii) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such rules may :—

(a) Define and regulate the powers and duties of the several officers appointed by it under this Act ;

(b) prescribe the returns and reports to be made under this Act by any such officers as aforesaid or by any local agent within the province and the form in which they shall respectively be made ;

(c) prescribe the forms of all registers, licences, certificates, permits and notices required under this Act with respect to the province ;

(d) prescribe the fees to be paid for any licence granted under this Act and for the registration of labourers or their dependants in any district in the province ;

(e) regulate the provision of the accommodation, food, clothing, and medical treatment of all labourers and their dependants detained on account of sickness by order of a magistrate at any place within any district in the province.

(iii) Where any employer, local agent or other person fails to perform any act which he is by any rule made under Sub-section (ii) required to perform, the local Government may cause the act to be performed and the cost may be recovered from the employer, local agent, or other person, as the case may be.

(iv) In making any rule under this Act the local Government may direct that every breach thereof shall be punishable with a fine not exceeding in any case Rs. 500.

(v) All rules made by the local Government under this Act shall be published in the local official gazette, and, on such publication, shall have effect as if enacted by this Act.

#### *Chapter V.—Penalties and Procedure.*

17. Whoever knowingly recruits, engages or assists, or attempts to recruit, engage, or assist, or abets the recruitment, engagement or assistance of any person to proceed to a labour district in contravention of any of the provisions of this Act or of any

rule or notification for the time being in force thereunder, shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to six months, or with a fine which may extend to Rs. 500, or with both.

18. Whoever, being an employer, refuses or wilfully omits to keep such registers or to make such periodical returns in writing to the district magistrate as may be prescribed by any rule made under this Act, or knowingly keeps an incorrect register or makes an incorrect return, shall be punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 500.

19. Whoever, being an employer, or acting under the orders or on behalf of an employer, wilfully obstructs any entry, inspection or inquiry, or omits to comply with any requisition made under Section 10 shall for every such offence be punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 500.

20. Whoever commits any offence under this Act or under any rule framed under this Act shall be triable for the offence in any place in which he may be found, as well as in any other place in which he might be tried under any law for the time being in force.

#### *Chapter VI.—Miscellaneous.*

21. Every sum recoverable under this Act from any person may be recovered on application to a magistrate having jurisdiction where the person is for the time being resident, by the distress and sale of any moveable property belonging to that person and situated within the limits of the magistrate's jurisdiction.

22. The Assam Labour and Emigration Act, VI of 1901, and of the Assam Labour and Emigration (Amendment) Acts, XI of 1908, VIII of 1915, XXXI of 1927, are hereby repealed.

## APPENDIX II.

### *Unemployment.*

*Letter from the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour, to all major local Governments, No. L.1373, dated 26th May, 1926.*

I am directed to forward, for the information of the local Government, a copy of the debate which took place in the Legislative Assembly on 28th January, 1926, on the subject of unemployment. A resolution was passed in the Legislative Assembly in the following terms:—

“ This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means; and that the said committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible.”

2. A perusal of the debate will show that two different and, in the view of the Government of India, distinct problems came under discussion. A portion of the debate had reference to the question of unemployment in the sense in which it is understood in western countries, i.e., unemployment among industrial workers. The Government of India are aware that such unemployment occurs sporadically among particular classes of workers, and is possibly a regular feature in a few industries, such as shipping. They do not believe, however, that, either at the present time or normally, general unemployment, as it is known in Europe, is a feature of the Indian industrial system. It is certainly true that in a number of industries, at any rate, the demand for labour is generally greater than the supply. Widespread unemployment in the ordinary sense of the term is probably confined to seasons when the occurrence of scarcity or famine produces partial or complete stoppage of agricultural activity over considerable areas, and thus throws out of work not only agricultural labour but labour employed in industries subsidiary to agriculture. A situation of this character is met in India by a system of famine relief which probably has no parallel in other countries, but to which no reference was made in the course of the debate.

3. The Government of India do not desire to pursue this aspect of the question. For it is clear, both from the actual wording of the resolution and from the general course of the debate, that the majority of members who supported the resolution in the Legislative Assembly had principally in mind a problem of an entirely different

character, namely, the problem of unemployment among the educated classes. But for certain statements to the contrary made in the course of the debate, it would be unnecessary to say that the Government of India have never attempted to minimize the gravity of this problem, which they believe to be one of increasing urgency and importance. There is ample evidence of the fact that in almost every part of India the openings for employment in clerical and professional occupations are few in proportion to the numbers seeking such employment. The economic stress resulting from this state of affairs is responsible in no small measure for political discontent, and it is obvious that, even if the governments in India were, as some critics incorrectly alleged, indifferent to the humanitarian side of the problem, self-interest alone would impel them to do what they can towards securing an improvement.

4. It is no part of the intention of the Government of India to attempt in this letter either to analyse the causes of, or to suggest remedies for, this state of affairs. The present trade depression is an incident, possibly temporary and certainly by no means the most important, contributory to this form of unemployment. The root causes lie far deeper, and are far more complex. The educational system, the state of industrial development, the changes that are being slowly wrought in the social structure, such as the gradual disintegration of the caste system, which at one time operated to prevent middle-class unemployment by restricting admission to the clerical professions, and at the bottom psychological factors inherent in the habits and customs of the people are all contributory causes to a state of affairs for which, from the nature of the case, no Government can find a panacea. The people alone can produce a change, and the change must necessarily take time to accomplish.

5. These considerations, however, must not stand in the way of the adoption of any measures which would tend to alleviate the situation, and the opposition of the Government of India to the resolution in the Assembly was based not on these considerations, but on their conviction that the problem is one which must be tackled in the first instance by local governments and local bodies. It is not merely the case that the problem differs both in nature and extent in different parts of India, but it seems to the Government of India that such remedies as may be found practicable are remedies which only local governments, and more particularly the transferred sides of local governments, can apply. Industrial development and changes in educational policy are the direct concern of Ministers, and the immediate appointment of a committee by the Central Government could not, in the view of the Government of India, serve any useful purpose. The Government of India are, of course, fully aware of the fact that the subject is one which has not been neglected either by local governments or local legislative councils. On the contrary, it has already been discussed by legislative councils in the majority of the major provinces, and in some it has been, or is at present, the subject of investigation by committees appointed by the local governments. The deliberations of these committees should indicate the extent to which Government action can provide a means of ameliorating the existing situation. It is not apparent to the Government of India that there is any present need for a central committee to co-ordinate local efforts, and unless and until it becomes clear that such co-ordination would be of real value, the Government of India are not prepared to give effect to the resolution of the Assembly for the appointment of such a committee. They can only for the present ask that the problem, the gravity of which they fully recognize, should receive the most careful consideration of the local government.

### APPENDIX III.

#### *Ventilation and Humidification in Cotton Mills.*

*Letter to all Local Governments (except Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam) and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, No. L.843, dated 26th April, 1924.*

I am directed to address you regarding the regulation of ventilation and of humidification in cotton mills.

2. The question has been the subject of discussion for many years, and has been investigated on several occasions during that period. As early as 1891 local governments were empowered to make rules for the ventilation of factories and for the protection of the health of the operatives. In most factories the regulation of the atmospheric conditions has presented no great difficulty. But in the majority of cotton mills the necessity for the employment of artificial humidification has proved a serious obstacle. It is unnecessary here to recapitulate the history of the question, because in spite of the attention given to the subject by Governments and employers and by more than one committee, no satisfactory solution was reached. It has



hitherto proved impossible to introduce regulations which would adequately secure the comfort and health of the operatives in cotton mills and which would not injure very seriously the cotton mill industry and, in consequence, the operatives themselves.

3. The Government of India accordingly instituted a special enquiry in 1921. The investigation was entrusted to Mr. T. Maloney, M.C., A.M.C.T., who was instructed :—

(1) To obtain accurate observations regarding the method of humidification and ventilation employed in cotton mills and their effect on working conditions ; and

(2) to evolve recommendations designed to effect a marked amelioration in conditions without serious detriment to the industry.

His enquiries covered a period of 18 months and the detailed results, together with his recommendations, were embodied in his report entitled " Humidification in Indian Cotton Mills," which was presented to the Government of India in 1923. Printed copies of this report have now been in the hands of local governments, of employers, and of the public for some months, and the Government of India therefore trust that local governments are now prepared to give their views on the questions involved.

4. The need for improved ventilation and for the control of humidification in a number of cotton mills has never been seriously disputed. It has long been admitted that the conditions of work were the cause in many cases of serious discomfort, and occasionally of impaired health among the operatives, Mr. Maloney's general conclusion is that " while it has not been definitely proved that health is materially affected in every case, it is significant that the physique of the average cotton operative is much lower than that of workers of similar castes and wage-earning capacity in other trades, and that weight decreases after a few months' continuous service." He further adds, " There is also abundant evidence to show that when high temperatures were combined with a high degree of humidity, conditions were most distressing and uncomfortable, and on humanitarian grounds, even though health may not be permanently affected, something should be done to improve conditions." These conclusions do not differ from those generally held in the past, but, as a result of the investigations made, they now rest on full scientific enquiry. Mr. Maloney's report gives for the first time a detailed and accurate survey of conditions in all the important centres ; it contains full statistics summarizing his observations in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Cawnpore, Madras, Coimbatore, Sholapur, the Central Provinces, Calcutta and Delhi. The conditions in each of the more important centres are discussed at some length, and local governments will no doubt devote special attention to those parts of the report dealing with centres for which they are responsible. The Government of India do not propose, therefore, to pass in review here the detailed analysis given in the report, but I am to add a few general conclusions that follow from the facts which have been ascertained.

5. It is clear in the first place that there are wide differences in working conditions between centre and centre. In view of the climatic variations some such differences were inevitable. Thus, in some centres there is no serious difficulty in maintaining comfortable conditions of work, and the report, while indicating the possibility of minor improvements, suggests that the operatives in such centres do not stand in pressing need of protection. In most centres, however, there appears to be considerable room for advance, and in some a strong case has been made out for insisting on radical alterations in the working conditions. For example, Mr. Maloney's description of conditions in Ahmedabad weaving sheds on page 16 of his report reveals a state of affairs which cannot be regarded with equanimity.

6. It is evident, however, that in addition to the inevitable variations between centre and centre, there are unexpectedly wide differences in conditions in different mills in the same centre. For example, in Bombay Mr. Maloney shows that the conditions in one weaving shed in December approximate to those in another in May—the worst month of the year—and that between the two mills there is an average temperature difference of 6° all the year round. In Ahmedabad the statistics show equally large differences ; it is clear that both here and in the Central Provinces, where climatic conditions must be regarded as unfavourable, there are individual mills where conditions are markedly superior to the average. In practically every case in which comparisons are possible, conditions vary considerably from mill to mill. This conclusion is especially significant, as it indicates that conditions in the mills, while they are not, of course, independent of the climatic conditions, do depend to a large extent on factors lying within the control of factory owners and managers.

7. The problem can thus be reduced to one of standards. But there are two difficulties to be surmounted before standards can be laid down. In the first place, a system must be selected which will render possible a fairly accurate measurement

of the air conditions in any factory, viewed from the standpoint of the health and comfort of the operatives. These conditions must be expressed in some numerical form which will enable the inspector, employers and all who are concerned to compare without undue difficulty conditions in one mill with those in another, and conditions on one day or at one period with those on another day or at another period. The scale or scales evolved must be such that a movement in one direction or the other does correspond more or less accurately to a change for the better or for the worse in the conditions under which the operatives work. In the second place, if such a scale can be successfully constructed, there remains the difficulty of determining in the light of the needs of the operatives and the requirements of the industry the actual standards to be fixed, i.e., the minimum position or positions on the scale to which mills or departments are to be required to conform.

8. The method of measurement proposed in Section 15 of the report has as its basis the cooling power of the air, as ascertained by the kata-thermometer. A full description of this instrument is given in the report, with clear instructions for its use. It is sufficient to say here that it is an alcohol thermometer graduated from 95° F. to 100° F., and that the cooling power of the air is measured by observing, subject to certain precautions, the time taken for the temperature of the thermometer to fall from 100° to 95°. The cooling power is obtained by dividing the fixed number recorded on the instrument by the number of seconds of time occupied by the thermometer to fall. The kata-thermometer can be used either "dry or wet," i.e., the bulb of the thermometer may be either exposed in a dry state to the air or it may be covered by a small thread bag which is moistened with water before an observation is taken. It is the latter method which Mr. Maloney proposes to employ.

9. The theory underlying the use of the kata-thermometer is that, by registering the cooling effect of the air on the bulb when that bulb is approximately at blood heat, it indicates the cooling effect which the air conditions exercise upon the human body. The dry kata-thermometer gives an approximate measurement of the cooling power of the air on a person who is not losing heat by evaporation, i.e., who is not perspiring. When heat is being lost by evaporation the wet kata-thermometer gives a more reliable index. The measurement is always approximate, for the effect of clothes has to be considered, but where, as in Indian cotton mills, the workers are very lightly clad and the temperature is high, the wet kata-thermometer should give a very reliable estimate of the index of comfort. For other reasons, also, the dry kata-thermometer cannot suitably be used in Indian mills. It would be out of place here to enter into a technical discussion of the theory of the subject; reference may be made to the results of recent researches as given in such publications as the two Reports of the Medical Research Council on "The Science of Ventilation and Open-air Treatment" and the more recent report entitled "The Kata-thermometer in Studies of Body Heat and Efficiency." The Government of India observe that the conclusions reached independently by various researches in England and elsewhere have been confirmed by Mr. Maloney's extensive observations in India. In particular, to quote from the last of the reports, cited above, "In the judgment of all observers in all parts of the world, atmospheric conditions classified by one of us on the objective basis of kata-thermometric readings as unsatisfactory are, when tested by the subjective sensations of the observer, hard to endure."

10. The basis proposed—the cooling power of the air as measured by the kata-thermometer—is not as yet statutorily employed in any country in the world. But the existing standards in other countries date from a period before the recent researches were undertaken, and, in fact, before the kata-thermometer had been designed. Further, in addition to the strong case for the use of this method, there are serious objections to the use of any other method which has been suggested. The first method proposed in India was the prescription of the size of lateral openings in the factory walls or roof; an attempt to enforce such standards in Bombay more than thirty years ago was abandoned almost at once. The mere existence of openings of a certain size affords no guarantee to the workers of suitable conditions, while it may make the continuance of some processes impossible at certain seasons. The measurement of the content of carbon dioxide which has been used in England and other countries and which was contemplated by the Textile Factories Labour Committee of 1907 is now generally admitted to be thoroughly unsatisfactory; such a standard gives no measurement of comfort of the operative. The prescription of standards depending on the dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures and the difference between them is of more value, but it fails, like the standards just mentioned, because it takes no account of the vital factor of air movement. The adoption of wet and dry bulb scales on the lines of those laid down in Great Britain as necessary for the protection of the operatives would practically extinguish the cotton mill industry in India. Even if full allowance were made for the fact that the Indian operative does not undergo discomfort in conditions in which an English operative would find it difficult to work, any such system would act arbitrarily in preventing humidification when its

use was not objectionable, and in permitting its use when it should be forbidden. A system so prepared would, in fact, show little correspondence to the actual needs of the operative or to the legitimate requirements of the industry.

11. If the method of measurement is approved, the remaining question is the standard of cooling power to be adopted. Mr. Maloney suggests that the standard of cooling power as measured by the wet kata cooling power should be 11 (milli-calories per sq. cm.) at head level. He notes that a considerably higher standard would be advantageous, but, as a result of his observations, he considers that the standard proposed if applied, would prevent danger to health and serious discomfort among mill operatives. The standard is certainly a low one; it is far below the minimum suggested by Dr. Leonard Hill for sedentary work (18) and still further below the standards suggested for manual work (25 and 30). But Mr. Maloney has given grounds for the conclusion that standards regarded as suitable in Europe should not be applied unaltered to Indian conditions. And it is evident that the attainment of this standard would mean a vast improvement in existing conditions; it would probably fail to eliminate discomfort, but it would certainly prevent the continuance of conditions seriously detrimental to the operatives. While, therefore, this standard need not be regarded as an ideal one, its attainment would go far towards the solution of the problem. I am, therefore, to suggest that efforts during the next few years should be concentrated on making its enforcement practicable.

12. There remains the important question of the reconciliation of the demands of the industry with the standards to be introduced. Unfortunately, it is only too clear from Mr. Maloney's observations that the immediate introduction even of the low standard discussed in the preceding paragraph is impracticable at present. In some centres, e.g., Madras, the standard is exceeded for most of the year, and there would probably be no great difficulty in conforming to the standard continuously. But it is evident that in most of the mills in Ahmedabad and Bombay the cooling power seldom remains above the standard for the whole day, and frequently fails to attain the standard at any time in the course of the day. In some centres, such as Cawnpore, the standard is maintained only when the weather is cold. Mr. Maloney therefore proposed to allow the mills a period of about two years to enable them to introduce adaptations and arrangements capable of producing the required standard of cooling. Assuming that the standard is generally approved, the Government of India doubt if the period suggested will prove adequate for the purpose, and on this question I am to request that in reply an opinion may be expressed.

13. I am now to invite attention to the regulations proposed by Mr. Maloney for immediate application. These will be found on pages 87 to 90 of the report; they are designed to effect as much improvement as is immediately practicable in existing conditions and to enable millowners to prepare for the introduction of the standard of cooling power already discussed. Mr. Maloney's proposal, in essence, is to permit, as a temporary alternative to a standard of cooling power, a standard based on the difference between the wet bulb and dry bulb temperatures. The schedule of temperature suggested by Mr. Maloney naturally allows much wider latitude than the schedule at present in force in England. Mainly in order to meet monsoon conditions, Mr. Maloney further proposes to allow humidification so long as the wet bulb temperature inside the mill does not exceed the corresponding temperature outside in the shade by more than a small fixed amount. The result would be that artificial humidification would only be prohibited if the conditions in a mill violated each of three different standards. If the mill satisfied the regulations either by maintaining an adequate difference between the dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures, or by preventing the wet bulb temperature inside the mill from rising by more than a fixed amount above the wet bulb temperature outside, or by providing the necessary standard of cooling power, no restriction would be placed on artificial humidification. It is further proposed that where steam is used for the purpose of artificial humidification its introduction should cease when the dry bulb temperature of the room exceeds 85° F. There is abundant evidence to prove that the most distressing conditions are associated with use of live steam for humidification. As Mr. Maloney observes, the great objection to its use is that "it increases the wet bulb temperature, but unlike cold water humidification does not at the same time decrease the dry bulb temperature." The evidence which Mr. Maloney has adduced, affords, in the opinion of the Government of India, strong support for the immediate introduction of a regulation of the type proposed.

14. Mr. Maloney's examination of the application of his rules to existing conditions in the mill suggests that these regulations could be introduced without much difficulty. The existence of the alternative standards he suggests appears to afford considerable latitude, and as steam humidification when used in mills appears to be invariably supplemented by water humidification, the prohibition of steam humidification when a temperature of 85° is reached should not prove impracticable. It is, of course, obvious that the present unsatisfactory conditions cannot be improved

without placing a certain initial burden upon some millowners. The Government of India are reluctant, more especially at a time when the industry is not in a particularly flourishing condition, to impose any unnecessary burdens, but they feel that the existence of conditions disclosed by Mr. Maloney's investigations justify them in demanding that, in a number of cases, measures shall be taken to effect material improvements in working conditions. No factory should be permitted to conduct its work in conditions which constitute a serious menace to the well-being of its workers, and if the conditions regarded as objectionable are eliminated in other mills working under exactly similar climatic conditions, the argument for bringing pressure on the mills in which the worst conditions are found is extremely strong.

15. There are, however, reasons for believing that the benefits which will accrue from an improvement in working conditions will not be confined to the operatives. Researches in England and elsewhere have shown that an improvement in cooling power results in an increase of efficiency, and the experiments described on pages 60 to 73 of Mr. Maloney's report indicate clearly that similar results may be anticipated in India. It is indeed only natural to expect that, where the operatives have to carry on their work under conditions involving extreme discomfort, their efficiency should be temporarily, if not permanently, impaired, and there is every hope that an improvement in atmospheric conditions will be accompanied by an increase in output which may compensate for the extra expense incurred.

16. Mr. Maloney further proposes to insist on (a) the provision of an adequate number of hygrometers in departments where humidity is likely to be excessive, and (b) the maintenance of humidity registers containing records of the wet and dry bulb temperatures. The regulations requiring the maintenance of a number of hygrometers and the corresponding regulations for their proper care are obviously necessary. It is also evident that if accurate registers can be maintained in the form prescribed by Mr. Maloney, the data provided will be of great value. The statistics so collected would not merely provide information regarding any particular mill; they would furnish material for estimating the effect of any regulations introduced, and for enabling Government to modify unsuitable rules and to introduce fresh rules when required. There is considerable fear, however, that the entries in the register will be inaccurate, more especially in mills where the prescribed standards are being contravened, and it is clear that the register, if maintained, cannot be expected to provide a check on breaches of the regulations, or to take the place of adequate inspection. But the better mills may be expected to maintain reliable records, and in all mills the maintenance of the registers will ensure that the hygrometers are kept in working order; the work of the inspectors may be largely nullified if no such precaution is taken. On the whole, therefore, the Government of India are inclined to support Mr. Maloney's proposals.

17. Finally, it is proposed to empower inspectors to insist on the adoption of methods designed to reduce temperature and to place restrictions upon the methods of construction in the case of new mills. Rule 8 of the draft rules framed by Mr. Maloney contains certain proposals of this nature, and a number of other suggestions are made on pages 74 to 84 of the report. So far as existing mills are concerned, it may be advisable to empower inspectors to insist on the whitewashing of roofs or on spraying them with water when temperatures are excessive. It is also worth considering whether inspectors should not be empowered to insist on the introduction of suitable devices, where these are necessary, to mitigate unusually high temperatures. It should not be difficult for the inspector to select the mills or departments where abnormally high temperatures prevail, and general orders might then be applied to these cases.

18. As regards new mills, there appears to be no reason why effective control should not be maintained over their construction. As Mr. Maloney points out, a considerable amount of the discomfort suffered at present is due to the faulty construction of mills. Municipalities have usually the power to control the construction of new buildings in certain respects, but the considerations which weigh with such authorities in granting or refusing permission to construct are usually unconnected with the internal temperatures likely to prevail in the mill after it has been built. The Government of India are inclined to the view that, subject to the control of the local government, the sanction of the factory inspector should be necessary to the construction of a new factory or the conversion into a factory of an existing building used for some other purpose. The factory inspector would thus be able to prevent the erection of mills in which, by reason of the details of their construction, the operatives would be unable to work under humane conditions. This principle, if adopted, might apply equally to cotton mills and to other types of factories. If this suggestion is adopted, it will be necessary to ensure that industrialists are not subjected to unavoidable delay or unnecessary interference. It might be advisable for the local Government to issue and to publish for general information

instructions for the guidance of factory inspectors, specifying the particulars, e.g., as regards class of building, roof material, height, etc., which should render a proposed building above question.

19. In conclusion, it may be convenient to set down the main questions upon which the Government of India desire the views of the local Government.  
your views.

These are :—

(1) Should cooling power, as measured by the kata-thermometer, be adopted as the most satisfactory basis for ultimate control of the humidification and ventilation in cotton mills ?

(2) If so, should the standard suggested by Mr. Maloney be approved ?

(3) What period must be allowed to elapse before a standard of this kind can be enforced ?

(4) Is it advisable to introduce immediately the alternative standards suggested in Rules 1 and 2 on page 87 of Mr. Maloney's report ?

(5) Should the use of steam be prohibited when the temperature of a department exceeds 85° F. ?

(6) Should mill managers be required to maintain humidity registers ?

(7) Should inspectors be empowered to insist on whitewashing, roof-spraying, or other measures to reduce excessive temperatures ?

(8) What measures should be taken to control the construction of new factories with a view to ensuring healthy conditions of work ?

*Letter to all Local Governments (except Burma, Bihar and Orissa and Assam) and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, No. L.843, dated 11th December, 1925.*

The Government of India have considered in detail the opinions expressed on their circular letter No. L.843 of 26th April, 1924, and I am to forward for the information and guidance of the local Government their provisional conclusions.

2. In respect of one of the proposals put forward by Mr. Maloney, there is practically complete unanimity. This is the suggestion that the use of steam for the purpose of humidification should be prohibited when the temperature in a department exceeds 85° F. It is generally admitted that the worst conditions are associated with the use of steam for humidification at high temperatures, and the Government of India consider that prohibition of this practice will be attended with little difficulty and will constitute an important reform. They desire, therefore, that rules should be issued by local Governments to secure this end after allowing such period as is considered reasonable to enable the management of the mills affected to make the necessary alterations. Suggestions have indeed been made that a lower temperature standard might reasonably be insisted on and, if the local Government consider that it is feasible and wise to insist on a more stringent standard than is suggested by Mr. Maloney, the Government of India have no objection to their so doing. I am to request that copies of the draft rules and of the rules as finally framed may be forwarded to the Government of India after their publication.

3. On the first four questions formulated at the close of this department's previous letter, there is some divergence of opinion. The importance of effecting an improvement in conditions is generally recognized and the method of regulation suggested by Mr. Maloney has not been seriously questioned by competent critics. But there is in many quarters some reluctance to adopt the definite standards suggested without further investigations. In at least one province further inquiries are being conducted by the local Government. Considerable stress has been laid on the wide climatic differences prevailing between province and province; and, while the Government of India are anxious that advance in one province should not be delayed by inaction in another, they recognize that it is probably impracticable, at present at any rate, to prescribe minimum standards applicable to the whole of India.

4. They therefore approve the suggestion that further inquiries and experiments should be made, and they consider that the scope and nature of these inquiries can best be determined by local Governments with full regard to local conditions and local needs. They believe that in nearly all cases the maintenance of humidity registers in the more important mills will be an essential preliminary. And they are inclined to think that in most cases it will be necessary to proceed as Mr. Maloney has suggested, by the introduction of intermediate standards before final standards can suitably be prescribed. The Government of India consider that the necessary steps should now be taken by the local Government to obtain any further information which they require to enable them to formulate final conclusions. I am to request

that a special report embodying the results of any inquiries made, together with an account of the working of any rules, experimental or otherwise, which may have been introduced in the period, may be submitted to the Government of India not later than 31st October, 1927. The Government of India consider that the period allowed should be sufficient to permit of a full investigation, and it may then be possible, by examining the results obtained in different provinces, to secure some co-ordination in the rules relating to the subject.

5. Paragraph 17 of this department's previous letter raised the question of the control of temperature in factories generally. The Bill to amend the Indian Factories Act, 1911, introduced in the Legislative Assembly in September, 1925, contains clauses which, if adopted, will place inspectors in a position to secure that reasonable temperatures are maintained. This Bill has been separately circulated to local Governments for their opinions, and no further reference to this question is necessary here.

6. The question of the control and inspection of new factories, which were discussed in paragraph 18 of this department's previous letter, will form the subject of a separate communication.

## APPENDIX V.

### *Sickness Insurance.*

*Letter to all local Governments, No. L. 1518, dated the 20th September, 1928.*

The following resolution was adopted by the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly on the 20th and 27th March respectively :—“ That this Council/Assembly having considered the Draft Conventions and Recommendation adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference recommends to the Governor-General in Council that he should not ratify the Draft Conventions nor accept the Recommendation.”

2. The Government of India are satisfied that the introduction in India of any comprehensive scheme on the lines of the Conventions is not a practical proposition in existing conditions. The reasons for this conclusion were indicated in the course of the debates in the Legislative Assembly and Council of State, and the Government of India do not think it necessary to enlarge upon them. They are of opinion, however, that the possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance requires further examination. Sickness insurance laws are now in force in nearly every leading country, and the Government of India are in entire sympathy with the ideals that underlie these laws. They are satisfied that the need of Indian workers for some provision is in no way less than the need of workers in other countries, and the problem as it presents itself to them is one of determining the extent to which the serious practical difficulties that must attend the introduction of any scheme can be overcome. I am to request that this matter may kindly be investigated by the local government, and I am to suggest for their consideration that it might be advisable to entrust the examination to a small and informal committee including a few representatives of employers and employees.

3. The Government of India do not desire to put forward any particular scheme for consideration at this stage. They recognize that conditions differ widely throughout India, and they would prefer to await suggestions from those who are familiar with the working conditions in different centres. Certain features, however, are common to practically every scheme of compulsory sickness insurance. These include the provision both of medical attendance (including medicines, etc.), and of a regular allowance to the worker who is prevented by sickness from earning a regular wage. Ordinarily benefits are withheld from persons who have not contributed for a specified minimum period before falling sick and a minimum period of sickness is necessary to qualify for benefit.

4. Laws relating to sickness insurance are generally national in their application ; but the workers covered are ordinarily distributed for the purposes of insurance among a number of groups, each of which is responsible, under State control, for its own fund. These groups may be organized in various ways ; they are commonly formed on a regional or an industrial basis, i.e., they may cover the workers in a particular local area or the workers in a particular division of industry. The benefits due to the workers in any group are met from the fund pertaining to that group ; and to this fund insured workers are required to contribute regularly ; their contributions almost invariably provide at least one-half of the income required. The remainder of the income is ordinarily met by a contribution from the employer,

supplemented in a considerable number of cases by a contribution from the State. The levy of a contribution from the employer is justified both by the extent to which the conditions of employment contribute to produce sickness, and by the benefit which the industry derives from a healthy and regular labour force.

5. It will be evident therefore that in any consideration of the problem there are certain factors which must receive attention. These include :—(1) the extent to which it is possible to provide medical facilities ; (2) the extent to which medical facilities are likely to be acceptable to the persons insured ; (3) the extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate ; (4) the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme ; (5) the extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them ; (6) the extent to which State assistance can be granted.

6. The Government of India anticipate that an examination of the questions will lead to the conclusion that if sickness insurance schemes can be successfully introduced, they must, in the first instance at any rate, be applicable only within well defined limits, either regional or industrial, or both. If this anticipation is fulfilled and if the local government consider that the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance is practicable, they will doubtless consider whether legislation should be provincial or central. On this and the other questions raised in this letter, the Government of India are anxious to receive the views of the local Government, and they will be prepared to consider sympathetically any constructive proposals that may be put forward.

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, No. 5131-D., dated the 15th February, 1929.*

In the opinion of the Government of Bombay a scheme of sickness insurance is not a practical proposition at the present time, and assuming it were, if it involved contributions from the funds of the local Government, the latter would be unable to find them. If the Whitley Commission, after hearing evidence in all parts of India, comes to the conclusion that a scheme of sickness insurance is desirable and is practicable, and indicates the lines upon which such a scheme can be started, then the Government of Bombay will give the scheme its hearty support to the extent of the resources which may be made available.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 1719-Com., dated the 6th March, 1929.*

In view of the impending appointment of a Royal Commission on Indian labour, the Government of Bengal propose to take no further action in the matter until the subject is dealt with by the Royal Commission.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. 903-L., dated the 19th March, 1929.*

The Commissioner of Labour was asked to entrust the examination of the question to a small and informal committee as suggested by the Government of India, but the Committee so formed has not been able to suggest any satisfactory method of introducing a scheme of sickness insurance, and is of opinion that actual experiment is the only way to arrive at a definite appreciation of the practical difficulties involved and possibly a solution. This Government doubts whether any committee could within a reasonable time arrive at any result reasonably conclusive. A survey would have to be made of the wages paid in a large number of industries. Some knowledge also would have to be gained of the profits which those industries make in order to ascertain how far any particular industry would be able to bear the cost of the contribution which the employers would have to make. Extensive enquiries would also be necessary amongst the labourers themselves as to their willingness to contribute a portion of their wages for the scheme. All this would take time, and the Government do not consider it either expedient or necessary to have such an experiment made.

2. His Excellency the Governor in Council has carefully considered the question, and entertains grave doubts whether compulsory sickness insurance is at present feasible in the existing conditions in India. In the first place, the most authoritative opinion amongst those consulted is to the effect that the labourers themselves would be unwilling to share the cost which the scheme would entail, and the Government concur in this view. In a large proportion of the tea and coffee plantations and in

all well-organized industrial concerns, medical attendance is now given free, and in such cases in particular labourers would object to pay a contribution for what they now get for nothing. Secondly, in a large number of industries the labour population is floating, and the Government anticipate great difficulty in applying a compulsory scheme of sickness insurance to such men. This is particularly the case in the tea and coffee plantations in this Presidency, where labourers leave the estates for several months in the year and return to their villages in order to cultivate their own lands or often merely to revisit their own homes.

As regards medical facilities to work the scheme, it might be possible to provide them, but the real difficulty would be that the labourers who are mostly illiterate would very often look askance at the allopathic system of medicine, and would prefer to be treated by those who have a knowledge of the indigenous systems. This factor will greatly increase the difficulty of introducing any compulsory scheme, for the number of persons qualified in the indigenous systems who could reasonably be trusted would be quite inadequate to meet the demand, and the Government are opposed to the idea of allowing workmen coming under the scheme to be treated by people who in the large majority of cases may be little more than quacks.

Further, it is almost impossible on the data available to calculate what the cost of the scheme would be, particularly in reference to that portion of it which the State would have to bear. This Government have no funds at present to finance any such scheme, and the resources of the province are required to provide more important services such as elementary education and increased medical facilities and sanitary measures which would benefit the whole population, and not privileged sections of it. This is essentially an agricultural province, and the Government see no reason why they should go further to confer more privileges on the small section of industrial labour which already enjoys far greater amenities in respect of education, medical attendance, water supply and other sanitary requirements than the general taxpayer in the rural tracts, whose equipment in those respects lags behind that of those in towns. Illiteracy, which generally elementary education alone can break down, would be a fatal obstacle to the working out of any general scheme of sickness insurance, and even if a scheme restricted to industrial labour alone were attempted, the Government see no reason why they should bear the financial burden in respect of the large volume of industrial labour employed in undertakings in this Presidency directly or indirectly under the control of the Government of India, such as railways under company management. This Government also see no reason to suppose that the local legislative council would assent to the additional taxation required to meet the expenditure from provincial funds, nor would it agree to funds which are required for other general purposes being diverted to such a scheme, which attempts to impose on India measures which ignore Indian conditions, and are based on Western practice and conditions.

3. In the above circumstances, this Government are opposed to the introduction of any scheme of sickness insurance in this province.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. Immgn. 320-1674-G.J., dated the 23rd March, 1929.*

In the opinion of the Governor in Council no compulsory sickness insurance scheme would be practicable in Assam at present. The tea and mining industries already provide free for their employees all the benefits that could be obtained by any such scheme, and the introduction of any compulsory insurance to which the employees must contribute would be greatly resented by the labour force. The labour employed in these industries is illiterate and excitable. The labourers would not understand the merits of such insurance. They would certainly regard the contribution levied from them as an impost by their employers, and their resentment might lead to serious trouble and violence.

Outside the tea and mining industries labour in Assam is casual and migratory, and it would be impossible to bring such labour within any scheme of sickness insurance.

2. The question might be examined by the Royal Commission which is to be appointed to investigate labour conditions in India, but the Governor in Council sees no chance of success in Assam for any compulsory sickness insurance scheme on a contributory basis, until the spread of education and the general uplift of the labour population have changed the conditions now prevailing.

3. If conditions in other provinces are so far different as to justify such a scheme, and it is decided to introduce central legislation, the Governor in Council must urge that such legislation should not at present be applied to Assam.



*Letter from the Government of the United Provinces, No. 110-C., dated the 28th March, 1929.*

This Government appointed a small committee to examine the problem of sickness insurance.

The terms of reference of the committee and a copy of its proceedings are attached. It will be observed that the committee's views recorded in the proceedings represent those of employers of labour and Government officials only.

2. In 1927 the number of operatives in factories in the United Provinces under the Indian Factories Act was 88,319. Of these 19,331 were employed in Government and local fund factories. The number of perennial factories was 206, and of seasonal factories 126. The number of employees in the latter was about 12,000. There is little or no immigration of labour from outside the province to the provincial factories, so that provincial arrangements might be self-contained in regard to medical treatment as far as workers insured in this province are concerned. There is, however, considerable emigration of labour to other provinces, and the questions of transfer of insurances from province to province, and of provision here of benefits for men insured in other provinces would cause difficulty.

3. The Government agree with the committee that any legislation on the subject should be All-India rather than provincial. They also agree that at first, at any rate, a scheme could only be applied to factories under the Indian Factories Act; and that its application to domestic servants and other employees would be impracticable. They further agree that if it is decided to apply such a scheme to factories of a certain class only, as an experiment, the application should be an All-India one rather than local, in order that the factories in one locality may not be penalized in competition with those in others. The Government consider that if such a scheme is to be introduced at all, experiments should first be made; and they think that the Government and local fund factories, and particularly the railway workshops, offer a suitable field. They are further of opinion that it will be difficult to finance any part of such a scheme from provincial finances, and more especially so as the committee consider that Government will have to make a direct contribution as well as bear a share of administration expenses.

4. As regards the provision of medical facilities, they consider that it will be possible to arrange medical facilities for factory workers in this province in the places of their employment in view of the small numbers affected; but quite impossible to do so if they leave those places and return to their homes. If the payment of benefit is made contingent on acceptance of medical treatment, it is possible that there will be less tendency to such migration. The question of certification will present great difficulties. The provincial scheme for subsidizing medical practitioners to settle in the rural areas has so far proved a failure, and those areas are still very scantily provided with medical aid. The popularity of the various indigenous systems of medicine will add another complication. It will hardly be possible not to provide treatment by such systems for those who prefer it.

5. The Government can give no estimate of the expenses of administration. The figure in England is stated by the committee to be 1-9th of the total subscriptions. In the opinion of the committee, with which the Government agree, the funds must at the start be administered by a Government organization, even though separate accounts and separate funds may be maintained for the workers in separate industries or in smaller units. The committee could not come to clear finding on the point whether the separate funds should be on a basis of industries, or of locality, or both, but apparently they prefer a basis of industries. The Government think that a scheme should allow some flexibility in this matter.

6. The opinion of the committee that in the case of workers, drawing under Rs. 40 p. m., the burden would be shifted to the employers by a demand for increased wages is important. A 3 per cent. contribution from the workers, as in Japan, would mean six pies in the rupee, and might well produce a demand for an increase in the case of workers on daily or piece rates of Re. 1 per day or less. The committee in general consider that the introduction of sickness insurance is likely to be burdensome to the provincial industries in present circumstances and to hamper their expansion. The Government do not consider that there is yet any strong demand for such a scheme among the workers or the public of the province; and they think that its introduction is surrounded with such difficulties as to make it doubtful if it is worth while making an attempt at present to do so. Any such attempt should be on a small scale.

7. The Director of Industries put before the committee an outline alternative proposal of his own for a compulsory provident fund system as opposed to compulsory insurance. The idea has certain attractions in view of the industrial conditions of the country. It lends itself easily to extension for provision for old age, maternity,

unemployment and so forth ; and its administration would be easier ; since the risk of fraud is less. A person who draws from his provident fund under false pretences is at any rate only damaging himself, and not defrauding others. The disadvantages are that such a scheme cannot provide the same protection for an equivalent contribution, and would not entail compulsory medical treatment, and thus encourage the extension of facilities for medical relief. The Government do not therefore endorse the committee's approval of this scheme.

*Copy of Terms of Reference.*

To consider the practicability of introducing some provision for sickness insurance for industrial workers and to make recommendations. In particular, and without detracting from the generality of the above, the committee should examine the following questions :—

- (i) should such insurance first be made applicable to all industries or to certain selected industries only, and if so to which ;
- (ii) should it first be made applicable all over the province or only in certain local areas (whether to all industries or only to some) and if so in which ;
- (iii) should separate insurance funds be formed for the workers in certain industries or groups of industries ; or for those in certain local areas ;
- (iv) the extent to which medical facilities (a) can be provided and (b) will be acceptable to the insured ;
- (v) the extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate ;
- (vi) the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme ;
- (vii) the extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them ;
- (viii) how far the existing industrial structure of the province can afford to bear the burden involved without being seriously handicapped ;
- (ix) the extent to which State assistance can be granted ;
- (x) how far certain practical difficulties, e.g., in connection with the obtaining of medical certificates, the extent of the reliability of such certificates, compulsion to undergo medical treatment, the administration of the insurance funds, etc., can be met.

*Proceedings of the Committee appointed by the United Provinces Government to consider the practicability of introducing Sickness Insurance for industrial workers.*

*Date of Meeting, 4th February, 1929.*

*Present :*

- (1) Mr. S. P. Shah, I.C.S., M.L.C., Director of Industries, United Provinces—*Chairman.*
- (2) Mr. E. M. Souter, M.L.C., *Member.*
- (3) Mr. W. R. Watt, M.A., B.Sc., *Member.*
- (4) Lala Padampat, *Member.*
- (5) Sardar Kirpal Singh Majithia, Sarava Sugar Factory, Gorakhpur, *Member.*
- (6) Lieutenant-Colonel H. Ross, I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Cawnpore, *Member.*
- (7) Mr. W. G. Mackay, M.B.E., Chief Inspector of Factories and Boilers, *Secretary.*

1. Mr. W. Vernon, of the Elgin Mills, could not attend, as he had to go away from Cawnpore. Mr. Ganesh Shanker Vidyarthi, President of the *Mazdoor Sabha*, too, could not attend, but sent a written note. This note was read out to the committee at the very outset. The committee thought it was a case based on the same arguments as Messrs. Joshi and Chaman Lal had used in the debates in the Assembly, and contained very little original matter needing special attention.

2. Before the committee proceeded further, Mr. Souter raised the question whether in view of the announcement by His Excellency the Viceroy of the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the problems relating to industrial labour, it would be desirable for this committee to proceed. The chairman explained that he had already ascertained that the United Provinces Government did intend the committee to examine the problem as defined in the terms of reference to it. The committee thereafter proceeded with its work.

The question whether in the present industrial structure of the province sickness insurance was needed at all was raised. The chairman explained that a consideration of this question would be outside the scope of the reference to the committee.

3. The chairman explained in brief outline the history of the case and the scope of the terms of reference. The ten particular terms were, he said, intended to be a fairly exhaustive detailed analysis of the first sentence, which was the basic term of reference. The members present were asked if any of them had any other particular points to suggest. No member had any. The chairman, however, said he had two such points for the committee's consideration, viz. (i) whether any other more practicable scheme for insuring against sickness can be suggested. He added that he had such a scheme in view, which he would bring up for the committee's consideration later on; (ii) whether such scheme as might be introduced should apply to all classes of industrial labour or to only certain selected ones. The committee proceeded to consider this second point.

4. The committee unanimously accepted the proposition, that it will be difficult to supervise the actual working of any scheme except in the case of labour employed in factories under the Indian Factories Act. Messrs. Watt and Souter further held that it would be unfair to introduce a scheme not applicable to non-factory labour. Colonel Ross proposed that the scheme should, in the first instance, embrace only skilled and semi-skilled but not unskilled labour. The reason for the restriction proposed by him was that unskilled labour would be more migratory (not only from factory to factory but from one industrial centre to another), and being normally in receipt of lower wages would not be able to bear the burden so well as skilled and semi-skilled workers. Mr. Souter said that in practice it would be difficult to define in precise terms the distinction between skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour. Mr. Watt said that being poorer the unskilled labourer was in even greater need for a provision against sickness than his skilled and semi-skilled confrere.

After some discussion, the committee could not arrive at a unanimous resolution. Sirdar Kirpal Singh was for restricting the scheme to only skilled labour, Colonel Ross and the chairman to skilled and semi-skilled labour, and the other three members were for applying it to all three classes simultaneously. Even Sirdar Kirpal Singh, Colonel Ross and the chairman made it clear that their proposal to restrict the operation of the scheme was conditional on satisfactory and generally acceptable definitions of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour being practicable.

The committee were unanimously of opinion that no industrial employee (i) whose engagement is on a genuinely temporary basis, or (ii) whose aggregate annual income as a wage-earner in a factory or factories exceeds a thousand rupees a year (or if his wages are regulated on a monthly, weekly, daily or other periodical basis, then such amount as represents a proportionate fraction thereof) should be brought under the operation of such scheme. The difficulty of defining the word "temporary" in (i) came up for some discussion. But the committee decided that it would not be possible for it to go into such details, and it preferred to leave the definition of this term to Government in the light of such material as the proposed industrial labour commission will, in all probability, make available. In connection with point (ii) the committee suggested that in case full annual income is not actually earned, the calculation for the purpose of ascertaining whether the scheme is applicable to that case or not, should be based on an estimate of what the aggregate annual income would, at the rates applicable and in force, be.

5. The committee then considered the terms of reference seriatim, but it desired, that its views on the question and especially on terms of reference Nos. 1 and 2 should be taken as an organic whole.

(i) In the committee's opinion it would not be quite fair to pick out certain industries and accord them differential treatment from the rest; this would amount to undesirable discrimination. On the other hand, some members emphasized that a universal application of the scheme to all industries was utterly impracticable, and indeed in some cases unnecessary and even undesirable. In this connection the distinction between seasonal and non-seasonal industries was discussed, and in spite of the difficulty of drawing it in every case, it was decided to adopt it on the ground that, generally speaking, it is well understood, and is already officially recognized. Ultimately the following resolution was adopted:—"In principle any such scheme should be applied to all industries and all areas, not only in the province but in the country. In the present stage of industrial evolution, however, it is impossible to apply it to seasonal industries." As to non-seasonal or perennial industries, Messrs. Souter and Watt were, for the reasons stated above, for bringing all of them under the operation of the scheme. All the other members of the committee, however, were in favour of restricting the scheme to selected non-seasonal industries. Consistently

with their view as just stated, Messrs. Souter and Watt would not specify the non-seasonal industries, which should, in the first instance, be put under the scheme. Colonel Ross thought that the workshops run by the State railways furnished "the most excellent places for experimenting with such a scheme;" he was not prepared to go further. The secretary explained that the railways already have got systems which provide *inter alia* some insurance against sickness. But Colonel Ross still thought that as regards any formal scheme of sickness insurance, the State should first experiment with the workshops. Sardar Kirpal Singh and Lala Padampat agreed with him. The chairman's view was that in the light of the secretary's remarks regarding the system already generally in force in the workshops, and also because the numbers of those benefited would in such case be a small fraction of the total industrial population of the country and even of the province, some other non-seasonal industry would also have to be brought under the scheme. He thought, that from the points of view of the organization of the industry, the stability of labour supply and the genuinely "industrial" character of the labour employed, the textile industry furnished another suitable field for experimenting. But he added that the application of the scheme to any private as distinguished from State industry should, in any case, be subject to similar industries in the other provinces being treated in an essentially similar manner; otherwise he thought there would be unfairness in the internal competition among the units of the industry or associated industries in the different provinces. To this the committee unanimously agreed.

(ii) The committee unanimously accepted the proposition that in the application of the scheme no discrimination between various local areas should be made, whether such application be merely experimental or substantive. In fact, as explained towards the close of the discussion on point (i) the committee agreeing with the chairman went a little further.

(iii) The committee felt that a decision on this question would to a large extent depend upon the character of the scheme adopted and the extent of its applicability. The chairman explained the various systems prevalent in European countries, and classified them into three groups. Colonel Ross explained in brief outline the scheme in operation in one of the Cawnpore mills. These formed the basis of the discussion that ensued. The propositions (i) that if and when reliable private enterprise (in the form of insurance companies or of associations of employers in general or in specific industries) is or becomes available, it should be utilized, but (ii) that for the present and subject to the above proviso the State should undertake the administration of all such insurance funds through a central organization located at Cawnpore, but with local representatives at important centres, were both unanimously agreed to. The committee thought that in the present circumstances of the country, especially of this province, this was the only sound way of securing stability, solvency and efficiency. The committee had, however, no objection to accounts and actuarial tables and other similar material and information being maintained industry-wise: in fact this was, in its view, the only way of securing a fair distribution of the burden of the scheme in force among the various component units, e.g., textiles, engineering, tanning, leather-working, etc.

(iv) and (v) Before the committee proceeded to discuss these points, the chairman remarked that terms Nos. (iv) and (v) would have to be taken together. He explained that the United Provinces Government had accepted, and to some extent even applied certain schemes for the extension of medical relief in the rural areas. Colonel Ross said he did not have the latest information or figures about these schemes. These schemes were kept in view throughout the discussion from the standpoint of their bearing on the practicability of sickness insurance. Colonel Ross had already made it clear that the question of surgical treatment would have to be dealt with separately from that of medical treatment as the problems and solutions were not identical. The committee felt that it could not advise in any precise terms on the extent to which medical facilities can be provided, unless it had much more material, especially that relating to provincial finances and Government's intentions in the matter of rural medical relief. Ultimately the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:—

(a) "Barring the towns, the existing medical facilities (even making an allowance for such schemes of expansion as Government have accepted) are in the committee's opinion utterly inadequate to deal with any scheme of sickness insurance. This is particularly so in the rural areas. It will not be possible to introduce and work any such scheme, unless and until such facilities are very greatly augmented."

(b) "In view of the facts, that the western scientific (or 'allopathic') system of medicine is not universally acceptable in this country, and that many other systems, e.g., homeopathy, bio-chemistry, unani, ayurvedic, etc., co-exist, and that some workers will prefer one or the other of these and will have a legitimate right to that which he prefers, such extension of medical facilities, as the province consistently

with its financial capacity is likely to be able to undertake in the near future, will still be utterly inadequate for the purpose of applying any scheme of sickness insurance on western lines. In the committee's opinion, however, it is possible, though not without difficulty, to work such a scheme in the more important towns."

(c) "It is impossible to state in precise terms the extent to which the insured persons suffering from sickness are liable to remain under continuous medical treatment. But the committee endorses Colonel Ross' view, that if any scheme is introduced, enabling workers to draw sickness insurance benefit for such time as they remain under medical treatment, it should considerably alter the normal workers present attitude towards (a) going to or remaining in hospital or other medical relief centre, and (b) going away to his own or to his friend's or relation's home."

"Beyond this it is impossible to know the extent to which such facilities as can be provided will be acceptable to the insured."

(vi) There was not sufficient material available for an adequate discussion of this question. The committee thought that it would be necessary to obtain relevant statistical information from other countries, especially Japan, where such schemes are in operation. In its opinion, any estimate or alternative estimates would involve considerable labour and would still be of very hypothetical value. It noted the secretary's statements that in Britain the cost of administration amounts to one-ninth of the total subscriptions, but that he was not sure whether this includes the expense of settling disputes.

(vii) The committee considered that all employees would be able to bear their share of the burden of sickness insurance. But it thought it likely that while industrial employees drawing approximately Rs. 40 per mensem and over will be willing to bear it, the great majority of employees drawing less than about Rs. 40 per mensem will not be so. In case a system of compulsory contribution is, as it should be, introduced, the committee thought that there will probably be a demand for increased wages. The incidence of the burden will, in the committee's opinion, be shifted to the employers. It was, however, emphatically of opinion that if any such scheme is introduced, compulsory contributions levied both from employers and employees should be its essential feature, the employers' contribution being equal to but in no case exceeding the employees'.

(viii) The committee reviewed the salient features of the industrial situation in 1929 and contrasted them with those during the period 1919 to 1922. The effect of the one-sixth ratio of exchange came in for a lively attack. The severe competition of foreign industries, especially continental ones with their depreciated currencies was reviewed. Ultimately the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—

"In the existing condition of the country's industrial system any burden, which the inauguration of any such scheme must necessarily entail, will be found intolerably heavy, and will aggravate the handicap already imposed by the one-sixth ratio. The committee does not consider this an appropriate time even for experimenting with such schemes."

(ix) The principle underlying State assistance towards the introduction of sickness insurance schemes was next discussed. The non-official members were unanimous in their view that the State must contribute. The chairman thought that the State in India had already so many schemes on hand that it could not in its present financial condition be legitimately expected to make a contribution other than the cost of administering the scheme as contemplated by the committee in sub-paragraph (iii), towards a scheme which would benefit the employer and the employee but not in any specific manner the general taxpayer. The committee did not accept his contention, and adopted the following resolution:—

"Some State assistance, not only administrative but also financial, is essential. Having considered the system in force in Japan the committee consider that this is just about the system which would suit the circumstances of this country."

(x) The committee considered it impossible to work any such scheme, unless a system for medical relief and other matters corresponding to the one which prevails in Britain (viz., "panel doctors"), is simultaneously introduced. Having regard to the existing circumstances, especially the failure of the scheme of subsidized medical practitioners settling in the rural areas to achieve even a modest measure of success, the committee thought it would be impossible to introduce any scheme for sickness insurance as such; it could not see how more medical practitioners could or would settle for practice in the rural areas.

Holding this view the committee could not think of any practical scheme for rendering medical certificates, especially in respect of workers leaving the towns, more reliable. Yet the committee thought the reliability of such certificates would be the pivot of any specific sickness insurance scheme.

As regards compulsion to undergo medical treatment, the committee held that no scheme lacking this feature would be practicable, and yet in view of the co-existence of numerous medical systems, they could not devise or even think of any practicable and reasonably economical scheme whereby such compulsion can be enforced.

As to the administration of insurance funds, the committee had already in (iii) above held that at present and subject to a proviso therein stated, such funds should be administered by the State through a central organization located at Cawnpore. Even in case it was decided to make over their administration to private agency (other than regular insurance companies or associations), whether such agency be under the control of, and responsible to, employers or employees or both, the administering agency should be made subject to the effective supervisory control of the State.

6. The chairman then proceeded to explain his scheme for a practical solution of the problem of provision against sickness (see paragraph 3). The committee endorsed his views, that sickness insurance was only the thin end of the wedge and that the claim of accident, unemployment and old age insurance would, in all probability, be put forward by Geneva for India's acceptance. He thought that on actuarial principles every specific scheme for insurance must entail a certain proportion of dead loss to society, and he held it to be far more practicable and economical for India, in her present condition, to adopt a general scheme which would meet all reasonable needs arising from sickness, accidents not covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act, unemployment and old age. He thought a scheme for a general provident fund (based on compulsory deductions of certain proportions, whether uniform or progressive or declining) would not only provide general insurance but would eliminate the problem of the difficulty of obtaining medical certificates, the risk of corruption and chicanery, the need to apply compulsion, etc. It would also have the important elements of self-help and self-interest. He added that the railways and government and public bodies and some private firms have such system in operation already. It would also provide for expenditure on "social events," e.g., marriages, funeral and post-funeral ceremonies, religious rites, festivities, etc.

The committee unanimously agreed that this would be an easy, economical and practical solution, not only in respect of sickness but also accident, unemployment, old age and "social events." The committee did not think they were called upon to go into further details, and preferred to leave them to be worked out by Government with or without the assistance of any other general or expert committee.

7. Before declaring the meeting over the chairman thanked, on behalf of Government and himself, all the gentlemen, especially the non-official ones, for the valuable assistance and advice which, at personal inconvenience and sacrifice, they had given to the department.

*Copy of Note by Babu Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi, M.L.C., President, Masdoor Sabha, Cawnpore, dated the 3rd July, 1929.*

The introduction of the sickness insurance benefit for the industrial workers in these provinces, if undertaken will not be a little bit too soon. Under the present circumstances, it will really be unmanageable to put the scheme in work as regards the workers who are in domestic and agricultural services. Some optional scheme can, however, be sketched out for these classes of persons, but as we have to take into consideration only the scheme of the sickness insurance for the industrial workers, I shall confine my remarks to that item only. The Honourable Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, while moving in the Assembly on 27th March, 1928, not to ratify the Draft Conventions and accept the recommendations of the International Labour Conference regarding the sickness insurance scheme for the workers of all sorts, raised certain objections against the scheme. He held that owing to the migratory nature of the labour in India, the absence of qualified doctors in the interior, and compulsory contribution to the insurance fund by the workers, the scheme for the sickness insurance for the workers could not work in this country. He was also very much afraid of the great expenses which would have to be incurred by the State if a sickness insurance scheme was put into practice. I think that the fears of Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra are too imaginary. He has not gone deeper in the matter, and had he taken the trouble to base his arguments on the data which were at his disposal in the form of the Health Insurance Act of Japan, he would have reached the conclusion that the things would be managed safely in the same way as they were being managed in that eastern country. The first objection that the labour in India is migratory, and a worker when ill is in the habit of leaving his place of work and going to his village, holds good as long as the conditions remain as they

are at present. The worker comes from the village. He works at the industrial centre. As soon as he falls ill, his income stops and expenses increase. He has no resources at the centre to fall back upon. He has to leave the centre and fly back to his village, where, of course, he has no good medical aid, but at least he finds his people and a sympathetic atmosphere. If there be a sickness insurance scheme working at the centres, the worker will have its benefit in full, partial wages for some weeks and good medical aid. Under these circumstances he will rather like to remain at the centre, when sick instead of going to his village where he will have no such benefits. The industry will also gain immensely thereby. They will have no longer to complain of the unstable character of the labour. Every worker will like to resume his duties as soon as he is cured. There is a dissatisfaction among the workers at present that when after illness they come back to their work they have to bribe the higher staff to be readmitted. But under the insurance scheme the worker will have the satisfaction that there is nothing to hold him back from his job, and this satisfaction will also contribute to the gain to the industry.

The main centres of industry at present in the provinces are:—Cawnpore, Lucknow, Gorakhpur, Jhansi, Allahabad, Agra, Aligarh, Firozabad and Hathras. There can be no difficulty of having proper medical aid for the workers at these places. The insurance societies can have the assistance from properly qualified vaidyas and hakims as well. Sir Bhupendra Nath's objection as regards the absence of a sufficient number of qualified medical men does not hold good as regards the industrial centres of our provinces, and I am sure that we shall have no difficulty on that account here.

There is a reasonable misgiving that the workers themselves will not like the insurance scheme when they will feel the pinch of compulsion of paying their contributions. Most of the workers are illiterate and ignorant, and it is possible that they may raise objections if the scheme is suddenly harnessed upon them. But if an earnest effort is made to get the workers to understand what the scheme will mean for them they will be very glad to come forward and offer their contributions. I had a talk with a number of ignorant and illiterate workers of Cawnpore, and after giving them to understand what the sickness insurance scheme would mean to them, I found each and every one of them ready to get a part of their wages cut for this purpose. Much depends upon the part of the wages to be cut, as well as the time after which the worker will be benefited by the insurance. In Japan they do not cut more than 3 per cent. of the wages of the workers. This works out to be half an anna per rupee. I found these men with whom I had the talk ready to get their wages cut at this rate for the benefits to be accrued from the sickness insurance.

Will it be a burden on the finances of the State if the scheme is put into action? I think not. At least not to any appreciable degree in these provinces. Here we have about 70,000 persons working permanently at the industrial centres of the provinces. The State in Japan contributes 10 per cent. to the funds of the workers' insurance. If we put Rs. 25 as average monthly wage of a worker—I think this amount is by no means a low estimate—we find that the monthly wages for the industrial workers amount to about  $70,000 \times 25$  Rs. = 17,50,000. Three per cent. of this amount  $\frac{70,50,000 \times 3}{100}$  = Rs. 52,500. A similar amount according to the

system in Japan will have to be contributed by the employers. The sum will then come to  $52,500 \times 2$  = Rs. 1,05,000. The Government will have to contribute to this 10 per cent. of it which is Rs.  $10,500 \times 12$  = Rs. 1,26,000. It is a paltry sum for such a cause and I think that the local Government should have no objection to make this contribution for the welfare of the industrial workers. I do not know what made Sir Bhupendra Nath raise a false alarm of great expenses if Mr. Joshi's amendment to the main resolution was to be carried. Sir Bhupendra thought that the Government would thereby have a fresh burden of six crores annually. I think that his estimate was totally wrong and alarming. The Government of India while working on the line of the Government of Japan, would have to spend only Rs. 90 lakhs annually if they would have accepted the amendment of Mr. Joshi.

In the end I think that the sickness insurance will do much good to the workers, give stability to the migratory labour and benefit the employers too. The local Government will act wisely if they adopt a scheme of sickness insurance for the industrial workers of the provinces at once.

The replies to the questions sent to me with the agenda are as follows:—

- (1) Insurance should be made applicable to all the factory workers in the whole of the provinces. No particular industry need be selected.
- (2) It should be made applicable to the whole of the province.
- (3) Separate insurance funds be formed on the basis of locality. If the place is small, two such places be amalgamated for the formation of insurance funds.

(4) (a) I think that in all the industrial centres of the provinces we have a sufficient number of qualified medical men and if there is a dearth anywhere I am of opinion that proper qualified vaidyas and hakims should be asked to co-operate; (b) the medical assistance by the proper medical men will be acceptable to the insured worker. I cannot think of any hitch, and if there be any hitch, it will not be difficult to bring the worker round.

(5) The worker will not move out of the area to his village if he gets the benefits of the insurance. It is definitely advantageous to him to remain at his place of work at the time of sickness. If he moves he is bound to lose the advantage.

(6) I have no knowledge of the expenses of an insurance business and its administration. In Japan the insured person and his employer each bears one-half of the amount of insurance and sometimes the proportion of the insurance contribution to be borne by the employer is increased by the State in an undertaking of the kind in which danger occurs frequently to the insured employee. The State makes a contribution of 10 per cent. on the whole. It seems that the insurance machinery and its administration keep themselves well within the limits of this income and meet all their expenses and liabilities. However, I think that it is necessary to call for an experts advice on this item.

(7) All the classes of workers will be willing and able to meet the charges when they will be allowed to properly understand what insurance will be to them.

(8) I cannot say how far the existing industrial structures of the provinces can afford to bear the burden, but they should try to bear it as it is bound to prove beneficial to them as well.

(9) At least 10 per cent. of that which comes out from the employers and employees.

(10) They are minor details and can be worked out very easily when the Government earnestly desire to come forward with an insurance scheme for the industrial workers. Administration of insurance fund will need a very watchful supervision, and the State, with the co-operation of the employers and the representatives of labour, will always have to keep an eye on its proper working.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 2985—Industries, dated the 2nd April, 1929.*

In Delhi, for the purposes of the present reference, labour may be divided into two classes (i) factory labour and (ii) contractors' labour, i.e., labour employed by contractors in New Delhi.

2. As regards factory labour, about 33 per cent. of the workers in factories are said to live in Delhi with their families. Most of the remaining two-thirds come from outside the province, principally from the United Provinces. The biggest employer of factory labour in Delhi tells me that probably nearly 50 per cent. of the workmen in his employ at any given time have been with him for less than 12 months. These figures give some indication of the proportion of casual labour in Delhi factories.

3. Some of the Delhi employers are alive to the importance of making medical facilities available to their workmen. The management of the Delhi Cloth and General Mills has made arrangements with three neighbouring medical institutions for the treatment of their employees. In serious cases which necessitate medical attendance on patients in their quarters, the fees are paid by the employers in the case of the workmen who live in the quarters provided by the millowners. These number about 1,800 out of a total of about 5,500.

4. Wages stop as soon as a man goes off work, and the only sickness benefit the workmen get is that they are generally permitted to remain on in their quarters (provided they are living in the mill quarters) during temporary illness.

5. It seems to me impossible at present to provide either for adequate medical attendance or for sickness benefits in the case of workmen who live in the villages. No system of sickness insurance can be worked without adequate safeguards against malingering, and the first safeguard must be an adequate supply of doctors to tour the villages where the workmen live. I cannot think that a sufficient number of competent practitioners would be available at present.

Further, no system of sickness insurance would be worth maintaining for the 50 per cent. or so of casual labour.

6. It would seem, therefore, that the problem narrows itself down to a regional one, that is, whether any system of sickness insurance could be devised for the factory employees who live in Delhi or other areas where proper medical supervision is available. Even within these limits there will be a considerable number of casual workmen who will complicate the problem.



7. I am informed that the workmen are in favour of a compulsory system and the employers of a voluntary. It is hardly possible to imagine a system which would be voluntary as regards the employers, and I am disposed to agree with the workmen that if a system of health insurance is to be introduced, it should be compulsory, both for them and for the employers, within the regional limits suggested above. Within these limits I am in favour of the scheme being tried.

8. As regards contractors' labour, this is almost entirely migratory and casual, and is drawn from a very wide area in Northern India. I do not think that any system of health insurance could at present be applied to this class of labour, or would be appreciated by them.

9. The position will no doubt be thoroughly examined by the Labour Commission, and it is therefore hardly necessary for me to say more. I shall, therefore, deal very briefly with the questions set forth in paragraph 5 of Mr. Clow's letter of 20th September, 1928, to all local governments :—

(1) There will be no difficulty provided the regional scheme suggested above is adopted.

(2) It will probably be found necessary to put hakims and vaidas on to the panels, as many of the workmen are accustomed to employ them in preference to practitioners of western medicine.

(3) All those whose homes are in Delhi are likely to remain in Delhi when suffering from sickness.

(4) It is impossible to say what proportion the cost of administration is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme. In Great Britain, I understand, it is about 12½ per cent.

(5) Neither the workmen nor the employers would be willing to meet any heavy expenditure. There is a feeling against paying for medical relief in India, and it would be to the sick-pay that the employees would look for a return for their contributions. In England the average cost per head insured appears to be about 50 shillings, but I have not been able to ascertain how this is divided between the State, the employer and the employed. If the average cost in India were 25 shillings, and the cost were equally divided, the workers would, I think, be able and willing to pay their share.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 311.V.28, dated 28th March, 1929.*

The question has been subjected to a preliminary examination by a conference assembled for the purpose by the Financial Commissioner (Transferred Subjects). At this conference employers of labour were well represented, but owing to the almost entire absence of properly organized trade unions in Rangoon, only one representative of labour was present. The conference was also attended by the Inspector-General, Civil Hospitals, the Chief Inspector of Factories, the Labour Statistics Officer, and Professor Jevons, Professor of Economics in the Rangoon University. At this conference the various points raised in paragraph 5 of your letter were carefully discussed, but it is unnecessary to give in detail the conclusions arrived at on each point, for the general conclusion arrived at by a majority of the conference was that in present circumstances the immediate introduction even of a limited scheme of sickness insurance was not practicable, and the Financial Commissioner considers that action must be postponed until further progress has been made with the organization of workpeople in Burma. He points out that at present there is only one registered union. This union (the Motor Drivers Union) moreover is hardly concerned with sickness insurance. At any rate, it would be very difficult to apply any scheme of sickness insurance to motor drivers in Rangoon. And the final conclusion of Mr. Dunn, the financial commissioner, is that nothing should be done until the report of the Royal Commission on Labour has been received. He believes that this Commission's enquiries will ventilate a subject about which little is known—particularly among those for whose benefit it was raised—and will give us a clearer understanding than is at present possible both of the difficulties in the way of introducing even a limited scheme of sickness insurance and of the best way of surmounting those difficulties.

2. The opinion of the conference, however, was not unanimous. The representative of labour thought that a scheme should at once be introduced, but considered that the cost of the scheme should be borne by Government and the employers, and that wage-earners should not be required to contribute. Professor Jevons considers that a workable scheme of sickness insurance for skilled workers could be devised, and he has drawn up an outline of the sort of scheme he recommends, a copy of which is enclosed for the information of the Government of India.

As will be seen from the scheme itself, it is suggested that in the first instance this scheme should be applied only to skilled regular employees in a limited number of industries in specified towns, but that as experience is gained, it should be extended to other occupations and to unskilled workers.

3. The Government of Burma are disposed to take the same view as Mr. Dunn, though not altogether for the same reasons. They do not doubt the desirability of introducing some provision for sickness insurance for workmen, but they are impressed by the practical difficulties in the way and they believe that those difficulties are even greater in Burma than they are in India. Clearly if a scheme is to be introduced it can be made applicable in the first instance at any rate, only to certain well-defined areas, only to specified industries within those areas, and only to some of the workmen in those industries. These limitations themselves indicate the difficulty of the subject. The conference thought that any scheme which might be thought practicable should be introduced only in the ports of Rangoon, Akyab, Bassein and Moulmein, and Professor Jevons would omit Akyab. The Government of Burma would go further still. It seems to them obvious that any scheme which is introduced must be introduced by way of experiment, and that the experiment should be tried in the place where it has the best chance of success, where medical men are comparatively numerous, and where existing hospital accommodation is reasonably adequate. In other words they consider that in the first stage any experiment which may be tried under the auspices of the Government of Burma should be tried in Rangoon. But even in Rangoon the difficulties are very great. The principal one arises from the fact that labour in Rangoon is entirely Indian labour. Much of it indeed is purely migratory and seasonal, and even when the labourers are more or less settled in Rangoon they are constantly going back to India whether for a holiday or by reason of sickness or for other reasons. Any system which might be introduced would inevitably be a merely partial system and would leave large bodies of labour entirely untouched. And even in respect of those labourers to which it would be applied, the system probably would not work very satisfactorily. For periodically they would go off to India, and presumably they would thereby lose the benefit of payments made by them to the fund. The second difficulty arises from the fact already noted, namely, that the organization of labour into trades unions has hardly begun. This fact is no doubt due mainly to the different parts of India from which the Rangoon labour supply is drawn. Many come from Chittagong, many are Uriyas from Ganjam, and many are Telegus from Coconada. The different languages spoken by these three classes—which incidentally would complicate any system of medical attendance under a sickness insurance scheme—are a difficulty in the way of combination, but the fact that in spite of this handicap, there has been little attempt at combination indicates that the level of intelligence is not high, and lends point to the apprehension expressed by the conference that any contributory system of sickness insurance would be resented by the wage-earners. Whatever the cause may be, however, the fact remains that hardly any properly organized trade unions exist. Nor is there anything in Rangoon corresponding to the friendly societies of England, and the whole burden of organizing, supervising and working a system of sickness insurance would probably fall on the Government. Finally, there is the practical difficulty that in all probability no scheme can be introduced with any hope of success unless the Government, as Professor Jevons proposes, contributes to the cost. Professor Jevons, indeed, suggests that Government's share of the cost of the scheme outlined by him should be borne by the Government of India. But the Government of Burma do not suppose that the Government of India will accept this liability. Probably, indeed, there are constitutional difficulties in the way of their doing so, and the plain fact is that the Government of Burma are not in a position themselves to undertake the liability. It must be remembered that the liability is an indeterminate one. In the first place no information is available as to what the direct cost to Government would be of a scheme such as that outlined by Professor Jevons even if that scheme were confined in the first instance to Rangoon. Nor is it certain whether the inception of such a scheme would not necessitate the provision in Rangoon of additional hospital accommodation. Finally, the scheme is put forward merely as an experiment. If that experiment is successful, the idea is that it should be extended to other industries, to other places and to other classes of workers. And as it is extended obviously greater expense direct and indirect will fall upon the Government. And, as has already been stated, the Government of Burma are unable to face this expenditure.

4. These last remarks indicate what is a real difficulty—probably not only in Burma but also in other provinces—in the way of any scheme which proceeds on the basis that the local Government will bear part of the cost. At the conferences of the international labour organizations great pressure is put—quite naturally—on India to introduce measures for the amelioration of labour conditions which have been worked successfully in western countries. Those measures are usually

in themselves desirable, but apart from other differences between conditions in the west and conditions in the east, it is often forgotten, especially by those who speak for labour in the Central Legislature, that western countries are very much richer than India, and that they are able to finance measures which, however desirable they may be, are not practicable in India merely by reason of the fact that the local Governments cannot afford to pay for them. In the view of the Government of Burma it would serve little purpose to experiment with a modest limited scheme such as that proposed by Professor Jevons unless the Government were prepared to face the expenditure involved in extending that scheme in the event of the experiment being successful. And, apart from the difficulty of financing in present circumstances, even the limited scheme proposed by Professor Jevons, the Government of Burma are quite clear that an extended scheme would involve additional taxation, and they are equally clear that there is no hope of their Legislative Council agreeing to this additional taxation for the benefit of imported labour—particularly as that imported labour already commands much higher wages than it can hope to obtain in India. That, indeed, is the reason why there is such a continuous flow of labourers from India into Burma.

5. On the other hand, if Government does not contribute to the cost of sickness insurance, the prospect of the successful introduction of any scheme is diminished. Heavier contributions would be required from wage-earners, and already doubts are felt whether wage-earners would pay the contributions necessary under a scheme to the cost of which Government would contribute. Heavier contributions would also be required from employers of labour, and some industries are not in a position to bear this addition to the cost of production. The cotton mill industry of Bombay is one case in point. The rice milling industry of Rangoon is another.

6. Nor, again, are the Government of Burma satisfied that sickness insurance is the first subject that should be attacked in any comprehensive campaign for the amelioration of conditions of labour. Speaking for Rangoon indeed—and the same remark is probably true also of the cotton mill industry of Bombay and the jute mill industry of Bengal—they are inclined to think that the housing problem is more urgent. But it does not matter much whether this statement is correct or not. It will generally be admitted on the one hand that much remains to be done for the amelioration of conditions of labour, and on the other hand that the funds at the disposal of local Governments are strictly limited, and that there is also a limit to the burdens which can be placed on employers of labour in addition to those considerable burdens which have been placed on them by labour legislation in the course of recent years. These two last factors are the governing factors of the problem. It has now been decided that labour conditions in India should be subjected to a comprehensive survey by a Royal Commission specially appointed for the purpose. The Commission will no doubt have many recommendations for the improvement of those conditions, and it may be assumed that even if the Commission does not arrange its recommendations in order of urgency, it will stress some more than others. The subject of sickness insurance, as the Government of India themselves admit, is one of peculiar difficulty in India. As has already been pointed out, it is of little use to embark on limited schemes of partial application unless local Governments are prepared subsequently to extend those schemes in the light of the experience gained. In other words the introduction of a partial scheme must necessarily involve local Governments in a liability the extent of which it is impossible to foresee. It is a step, therefore, which should not be taken until the whole ground has been thoroughly explored. This exploration will be undertaken by the Royal Commission on Labour, and the Government of Burma consider that no further action should be taken on the subject of sickness insurance until the report of the Commission has been received. For it may well be that the Commission may report that there are other matters in connection with labour which should be taken up before the question of sickness insurance is attacked.

*A Scheme of Sickness Insurance for Skilled Workers drawn up by Professor Jevons.*

*General.*—This scheme is proposed as a workable system of assistance for skilled workers who may become ill for more than a few days. It is purposely limited in scope, the idea being to gain experience in administering a small scheme which could afterwards be extended to other occupations, and to unskilled workers. The figures of rates of wages, contributions and benefits are given merely for the sake of illustration, and would need adjustment on the basis of data to be collected.

*Persons to whom Applicable.*—Skilled regular employees paid at a wage-rate equivalent to Rs. 24 per mensem or more up to Rs. 80 per mensem in certain organized industries, e.g., rice mills, saw mills, engineering and contractors, workshops, printing, petroleum oil refining and packing, vegetable oil mills, flour mills, match factories

and aerated water factories in Rangoon, Moulmein and Bassein, and within five miles of municipal limits of these towns. After two or three years the scheme would be extended to all industrial establishments coming under the Factory Act.

**Contributions.**—The workers' contributions to be 4 annas per mensem for persons earning Rs. 24 per mensem and over up to Rs. 30 per mensem, 5 annas per mensem for those earning over Rs. 30 and up to Rs. 40 per mensem, and 6 annas per mensem for those earning over Rs. 40 per mensem. The contributions to be paid by affixing special insurance stamps to a card which lasts the year. Whilst a man is in employment the card will be with the employer, and the latter must deliver the card duly stamped to date to the employee on the latter giving notice of his intention to quit, or being dismissed.

The insurance fund will be made up of the workers' contributions and equal amounts paid in by the employers and by Government, i.e., each party pays one-third. Assuming for the sake of illustration that 16,000 persons would be insured in the above towns, and that the average rate of contribution be 5 annas, the income of the fund would be Rs. 15,000 per mensem from all sources.

**Benefits.**—An insured person will be entitled to free medical attendance and medicines, and to free treatment in hospital, including food for himself, or cost thereof, if supplied otherwise than by the hospital.

A person who does not go to hospital because he cannot be admitted must be attended at his home and receive a food allowance immediately. Should he be unwilling to go to hospital, or should the doctor consider the illness not serious enough to require it, he will be entitled only during the first seven days to an allowance in kind of milk or other invalid food which may be prescribed.

Should the illness continue, or the man be unfit for work after seven days, he will become entitled from the eighth day to a maintenance allowance at a rate equal to 64 times his monthly contribution. This will give Rs. 16 per mensem to the lowest class (up to Rs. 30 wages), and Rs. 24 to the highest class. The benefit at this rate to continue until the man is fit for work, or for six months, whichever is less.

For the protection of the fund at the commencement there should be a special rule that the total benefit which may be drawn during the first twelve months will not exceed 64 times the total of contributions paid by the insured before he fell ill, or six months, whichever is less. Thus, if he has paid contributions for four months he will be entitled to benefit for four months, and so on.

Maintenance allowances will be paid either through the employer or if employer or worker so demands, by an office maintained by the fund in each town. The worker should have an identification card besides his stamp card, and may send a relative for the money or have it delivered by postal money order.

**Medical Attendances.**—There will be a panel of doctors, amongst whom those employed by companies as wholetime medical officers will be included. Insured persons will be assigned to doctors; and if a company keeps a works doctor, all the employees of that company would be assigned to that works doctor, in the absence of any special reason to the contrary. Each panel doctor would receive Re. 1 per quarter (Rs. 4 per annum) in respect of each insured person assigned to him. In the case of employees of companies who maintain doctors, this payment, or most of it, would go to the company.

**Administration.**—The Government of Burma must make itself responsible for the administration of the scheme, though the Central Government should pay the Government contribution to the fund. There should be a board of control, consisting of three employers, and three employees' representatives, and three Government officers, one of the latter being chairman. There would be a wholetime superintendent of the scheme on about Rs. 1,000–50–1,500 per mensem, with necessary clerical assistance, and general supervision by the Labour Statistics Officer of Government.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 13,600-Rev., dated the 9th April, 1929.*

A small and informal committee, including two representatives each of employers and employees, was appointed by this Government to examine the question of sickness insurance, and also the difficulties that must attend the introduction of any such scheme. A copy of the report submitted by the committee, together with a note by Mr. Ghani, M.L.C., appended thereto, is forwarded herewith for the information of the Government of India.

2. The Punjab is not the home of any large industry excepting the seasonal cotton and ginning factories and the localised salt, coal and oil concerns. Accordingly the question of the introduction of provision for sickness insurance is not of

much practical importance for this province, for the present at any rate, and from a provincial point of view there is no need for any legislation on the subject. Should the Government of India, however, decide to take up central legislation, this Government will not oppose, provided that it is made elastic enough to leave this province sufficient powers to adopt any such legislation to suit its local conditions.

3. The Governor in Council commends for consideration the recommendation of the committee that the scheme should be applicable to all permanently employed workers, which term should include within its scope the classes specified by the committee, while he would at the same time suggest that primarily a beginning should be made only with the workers coming under the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Factories Act, and the Indian Trade Unions Act.

4. The Governor in Council would dissociate himself from any acceptance of the suggestions in the committee's report defining the measure of State assistance which should be given to any scheme affecting any class in the classification of permanently employed workers. On the other hand, he would have no objection to accepting liability for the cost of administration.

I am also to make it clear that this Government and the Punjab Legislature would be unwilling to make any direct contribution to a sickness insurance fund. They would be ready, however, to levy any rates that may be approved from the institutions and others concerned to spend on them.

5. The Governor in Council has no other comments to make on the recommendations of the Committee.

*Report of the informal committee appointed by the Punjab Government to examine the question of sickness insurance. The committee consisted of the following members :—*

1. Dr. R. C. Rawley, Chairman.
2. W. H. Abel, Esq., Inspector of Factories, Punjab.
3. N. A. Lilley, Esq., of the New Egerton Woolen Mills, Dhariwal.
4. Dr. Curjee Wilson, M.D., D.P.H.
5. R. B. L. Dhanpat Rai, M.L.C., Lahore.
6. M. A. Ghani, Esq., M.L.C., Bar.-at-Law, Lahore.
7. Jiwan Lal Kapur, Esq., Bar.-at-Law, Lahore.

1. The committee met in the office of the Director of Industries, Punjab, on the 12th February at 2.30 p.m. and on 2nd March at 11.30 a.m. All members except Mr. Jiwan Lal Kapur, who was absent on the 12th February, attended both the meetings. After a brief preliminary discussion, the chairman placed before the Committee the various points mentioned in the Government of India letter referred to above for consideration, and suggested that these points might be regarded as an agenda for the meeting. This suggestion was accepted by the committee, and the following items were discussed in detail :—

- (1) The extent to which it is possible to provide medical facilities.
- (2) The extent to which medical facilities are likely to be acceptable to the persons insured.
- (3) The extent to which insured persons suffering from sickness are likely to remain within the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate.
- (4) The proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) is likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme.
- (5) The extent to which the classes whom it is proposed to insure are willing and able to meet the charges falling upon them.
- (6) The extent to which State assistance can be granted.
- (7) Whether the scheme can be made applicable to either regional or industrial limits or both.
- (8) Whether legislation should be provincial or central.

2. The committee were definitely of the opinion that not only from the industrial or labour point of view, but also from the point of view of public health, it was necessary to introduce some system of Sickness Insurance in the Punjab.

3. Before proceeding with the principal items on the agenda, the committee considered it advisable to define the occupations to which the proposed Sickness Insurance Scheme should apply. The committee were of the opinion that all

permanently employed workers should come within the scope of the Sickness Insurance Scheme. As regards the terms "permanently employed workers" they decided that it should include the following:—

(a) All those workers to whom the provisions of Workmen's Compensation Act are applicable.

(b) All those workers to whom the provisions of the Indian Trade Unions Act are applicable.

(c) Permanent workers in educational institutions, in particular, women teachers, drawing salaries below the income tax limit.

(d) Domestic servants.

(e) Such other workers as are working for registered employers or are themselves licensed workers.

(f) All Government servants receiving a salary below the income tax limit.

*Item 1.*—As regards item 1 on the Agenda, it was felt that it would not be difficult to provide medical facilities for the workers. The committee held that the existing facilities were not complete and for this reason it was necessary to provide extended medical aid to all workers coming under the categories defined above.

*Item 2.*—The committee felt that there could be no two opinions on the subject of acceptance of medical facilities by workers. It was, however, difficult to determine the extent to which the insured workers were likely to take full advantage of the medical facilities provided under the new scheme. Past experience indicates that wherever adequate medical facilities were provided by the employers, the workers took reasonable advantage of these facilities.

*Item 3.*—The committee were of the opinion that the present tendency of the workers was to go to their homes during illness on account of economic reasons, that is, they could not support themselves away from their homes and friends when ill. This tendency was, however, not so very marked in the case of workers coming under the categories at (c) and (f). The committee believed that with the benefits accruing from Sickness Insurance Schemes this tendency on the part of the workers would gradually disappear.

*Item 4.*—The committee were unable to estimate the proportion which the expense of administration (which includes the provision of some machinery for the settlement of disputes) was likely to bear to the total cost of the scheme, as no concrete instances were before them from which they could draw conclusions. From a consideration of the various heads under which this type of expenditure was likely to be incurred, the Committee felt that the proportion would be in the neighbourhood of 5 per cent. It was impossible for the committee to estimate, even roughly, the expenditure involved in the entertainment of administrative staff in the setting up of tribunals, and in the engagement of supervising staff to enforce the provisions of the law.

*Items 5 and 6.*—Both of these items were taken up for consideration together, as at this stage the main discussion centred round the question of contribution by the workers, the employers and the State. Mr. Abel presented a note to the committee, in which he discussed the question of contribution on the assumption that the average wage of a worker employed permanently was Rs. 40 per mensem. If this assumption were to be accepted, he suggested, that the worker should have to pay five annas per month, the employer five annas and the State two annas six pies. Messrs. Kapur and Ghani considered this proportion much too high for the worker and suggested that the employer should contribute twice as much as the worker. Other members of the committee were of the opinion that any increased contribution required from the employer would make the scheme prohibitive, as the increased cost would be borne by the consumer or would be met by cutting the wages of the employee to the detriment of the concern. After a prolonged discussion the committee came to the conclusion that the contribution towards the Sickness Insurance funds should be borne equally by the employer, the employee and the State. This proportion would no doubt place an additional burden on the State as the State would have in any event to provide medical assistance and the administrative charges of the scheme.

The committee were of the opinion that the employer and the employee would be willing and were able to meet the charges falling upon them under the proposed scheme. It was also realized that the burden of the State's contribution would be rather heavy in the beginning; but it was felt that the advantage to the State would be the increase in health and working power of its industrial workers which would counterbalance the cost of administration and contribution by the State.

*Item 7.*—The committee decided to recommend to Government that the scheme should be made applicable to the whole of the Punjab with a central administrative authority in Lahore. All payments should be made through the Post Office on a certificate being presented by the worker and countersigned by the qualified medical authority appointed under the proposed law.

*Item 8.*—The committee were definitely of the opinion that for any scheme of Sickness Insurance to be a success the legislation should be central.

*Note by Mr. M. A. Ghani, Barrister-at-law, M.L.C., Lahore.*

I agree generally with the report of the Committee but I would like it to be modified in the light of the following :—

1. I think it will be better if to the list of the workers to whom the scheme is proposed to apply, the following may also be added :—

(a) All workers or employees who are members of a Trade Union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act.

(b) All workers and employees who are employed in a factory or workshop coming under the Indian Factories Act.

(c) All workers and employees working in a mine to which the provisions of the Indian Mines Act are applicable.

(d) All workers and employees employed by the Government irrespective of their being "Government servants" or not.

(e) All workers and employees employed by a contractor in contract with the Government or some local body or some limited liability Joint Stock Company.

(f) All quasi Government servants, e.g., village servants and so forth.

(g) All Municipal and District Board employees.

(h) All workers and employees employed in a scientific, educational, or in a charitable institution registered under the Act, 1860.

(i) All workers and employees employed in an educational institution not registered under 1860 Act but recognized by the Government or some local body whether receiving any grant-in-aid or not.

I would, of course, limit the above workers and employees to those receiving a salary below the income-tax limit.

2. It will be readily seen that the above list extends the scope of the scheme of the sickness insurance so far as the different classes of workers are concerned. The list prepared by the committee is too limited and is too narrow. No reason has been given why the benefits of the scheme should be made applicable to a limited class of workers. Why should we favour certain classes of workers and deprive the others of the benefits of the scheme however deserving they may be; "what is good for the goose is also good for the gander" is an old aphorism, and in applying the scheme we should not overlook it. In preparing the list of workers, I have not lost sight of the principle so rightly cherished by the Committee, that the scheme should be applied to those workers only who are reasonably permanently employed and whose whereabouts can easily be known, and who belong to such organizations and institutions through whom the scheme can easily be worked.

3. The list as prepared by the committee is not quite clear and is open to objection in more ways than one. As regards (b) of the list I submit that the Indian Trade Unions Act as such is not applicable to the workers as such. It is applicable to the Unions of the workers only. Hence, I think it will be better if we apply the scheme to those workers who are members of a registered trade union. This will also help the labour leaders to organize the workers generally. It is of no use to particularly mention the women teachers in (c) of the list. They come under "workers in educational institutions." Similarly the use of the word "permanent" in (c) of the list seems to me to be merely redundant.

4. I think that it is not only "the more or less rigid atmosphere of an ordinary hospital," as the committee has rightly pointed out, but it is also the most unsympathetic and unkindly (demoralized to the verge of cruel) treatment that is meted out to the workers there that deters them to be treated there, and thus compels them to go to their homes. This is due to the beastly capitalistic mentality of the people generally and to the conservative indifference and repugnance to the poor workers and labourers. A little labour propaganda and greater sympathy of the Government with the cause of labour will surely change the atmosphere to the great success of the insurance scheme.

5. So far as the much vexed and most important question of the contributaries to the Insurance Fund is concerned, I agree that the State should pay one-third, but as between the employer and the employed I am strongly of the opinion that the contribution by the employer should be a little higher than that by the employee. For this, my reason is that the relevant advantages to the employer, are certainly and admittedly much greater than those to the employee. Moreover, even from the economical point of view, it is not right and just to place the rich capitalist and the poor wage-earner on the same footing. Moreover, the nature, extent and value of the sickness insurance are closely related to the progress of industrialism, and to the evolution of economic conceptions and of political and social forces. In this progress and evolution the employer is certainly more interested than the poor employee. Again, the State as guardian of public health and national prosperity should contribute liberally to the insurance fund. In times of sickness, wealthier classes can look after themselves. It is only the poor classes that suffer most. On account of their poverty, they are more exposed to the risk of sickness than their rich neighbours. The occurrence of sickness entails for the poor wage-earner and their dependents an increase of expenditure on the one hand (e.g., cost of medical treatment and drugs) and reduction and even cessation of income on the other. To their rescue, under the circumstances, the State must come and help. I would therefore suggest that the following proportion would meet the justice of the case :—(1) the State, one-third ; (2) the employer, five-twelfths ; (3) the employee, one-fourth. It is no concern of ours to consider from where the employer would get funds to pay the contribution. It is his concern. It is his look-out. He would bear the consequences if "the increased cost would be borne by the consumer or would be met by cutting wages of the employee," as remarked by the committee. No reasonable employer in his own interest as marked above would and should grudge to pay a little more than the employee.

6. I think we ought to insist on the compulsory form of insurance. It is true that the question was not referred to us but in order to make the scheme a success we should give our opinion on this point too. To my mind, voluntary insurance will be a mere farce. The workers are not organized. They are illiterate to understand the value of the scheme. Their conservatism, their fatalism, and the general apathy of the employers, will surely stand in the way of voluntary insurance. Nothing but compulsion will make the scheme a success. The Government as guardian and well-wisher of public health should, in duty bound, impose compulsion in sickness insurance. In almost every civilized country compulsory sickness insurance is in vogue. There is no reason why the same should not be in this poor country. Taking into consideration the chronic poverty of the masses and their proverbial illiteracy, the compulsion is all the more necessary here.

With the above remarks, I would respectfully urge on the Government to bring in a legislation promulgating a scheme for the compulsory sickness insurance of the labourers and workmen at a very early date.

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 1537—XL-5/29-Com., dated the 16th April, 1929.*

The local Government after careful consideration decided that the appointment of a committee was not advisable. Owing to the fact that labour is almost entirely unorganized, except at Jamshedpur, where serious trouble then existed between the workers and employers, it would have been impossible to represent labour properly on an informal committee. They considered further that in the present disturbed industrial conditions the operations of a committee would be likely to arouse false hopes and upset labour. They have, therefore, restricted themselves for the present to ascertaining the exact position in the principal industrial areas, as regards the provision of medical relief and sick pay, and to instituting an inquiry in the smaller industrial concerns scattered up and down the province to ascertain the extent of available medical facilities and the extent to which the labour of these factories is seasonal, migratory, or stable in character. Appended to this letter is a memorandum summarizing briefly the results of this examination up to date.

2. These investigations go to show that in the main industrial areas, medical relief is organized and, generally speaking, is fairly adequate. At Jamshedpur, Jamalpur and in the Giridih coalfields a complete system of medical relief with well equipped hospitals and an adequate staff of doctors is provided by the employers. In the main coalfields medical relief is organized under the statutory supervision of the Jharia Mines Board of Health ; it is as complete as the economic conditions of the industry permit and it is generally satisfactory. Some collieries have their own hospitals, a considerable number of them have dispensaries, and all of them except few specially exempted collieries employ either jointly or individually



qualified medical officers to look after their workers. Any individual deficiencies are supplemented by the public hospitals under the District Boards. In the factories lying outside the main industrial areas medical relief is less fully organized. But a general survey indicates that something over one-third of the workers receive medical relief from their employers and that public hospitals or dispensaries are available for the treatment of all except a very small percentage of the industrial population. It is clear that the smaller industrial employer cannot be expected to provide any considerable amount of medical relief directly; but the inquiry already made shows that factories are generally so situated that medical treatment can be provided for almost the whole industrial population [at existing public institutions.

The local Government have not thought it necessary at present to investigate particularly the extent to which medical relief is likely to be acceptable to the workers. The prejudice against dispensaries and medical treatment is breaking down even among the aboriginal peoples who form a large part of the mining population, and there is no reason to believe that medical facilities, if provided, will not be generally acceptable.

3. The information collected by the local Government regarding the payment of sick pay and allowances is less complete. In the coalfields it is fairly common, though not at all general. In the Jharia and Raniganj coalfields, out of 214 working mines, 58 pay both sickness and accident allowances and another 10 pay sickness allowances only. Among the Indian owned mines a number of the owners pay a daily allowance or a *bhatta*, roughly equivalent to pay during short illnesses. But this is not paid during prolonged illnesses and in many cases is afterwards deducted from the earnings when the worker rejoins. The grant of sick pay is in fact mainly confined to the larger mines which give it regularly and on organized basis, while in the smaller mines it is sporadic and undefined. In Jamshepur, accident pay is always given and the staff employed on a permanent basis is entitled to sick leave with pay; but coolie labour receives no sick benefits as it is all employed on a purely weekly basis. In the Jamalpur Railway workshops and the Giridih coalfields, which are owned by the East Indian Railway, sick pay is on a fully organized basis. In the first the employees receive sick leave, in the second the miners have a benefit fund from which allowances are paid. This is the only instance in the province in which a fully organized contributory insurance scheme on a self-supporting basis exists. It shows that the difficulty of making the worker contribute willingly is not insuperable. But in this case the conditions are unusually favourable, because the labour force is largely permanent and settled and the whole area is under the control of one employer. The persons affected, therefore, remain within the area within which the organization can effectively operate. These conditions are not found to anything like the same extent in other industrial areas.

4. The first essential in any investigation of the possibilities of industrial sickness insurance is to ascertain for every area the proportion of stable and unstable labour. The local Government have not attempted to do this for the major industries owing to the magnitude of the task. They have attempted to make a rough survey for the minor factories outside the main industrial areas. But the results obtained were entirely unreliable and have merely proved that before any useful investigation into the possibility of insurance schemes can be undertaken a detailed and expert investigation of the whole question of labour turn-over is necessary. This is a task which would take some considerable time and requires an expert agency. The local Government have material to show that the percentage of seasonal and migratory labour is generally high even in the biggest industrial areas. But they are unable, at present, to furnish any reliable data as to the extent of that unstable labour. In the mining areas in particular, a very high proportion of the workers are really agriculturists and follow a dual occupation. Large numbers also are seasonal workers and the labour force employed in the mines fluctuates within wide limits. Similarly at Jamshepur the very large coolie force is fluctuating in character. In both South and North Bihar most of the factories are oil, sugar and rice mills, or indigo factories, which are themselves seasonal in character, and the greater part of the labour force is employed only for a portion of the year. It can probably be said with safety, therefore, that throughout the province the stable labour force is distinctly in the minority. This in the opinion of the local Government adds enormously to the difficulties of propounding any insurance scheme. The only big industries in which conditions favourable to an insurance scheme exist already make some provision on their own account. There is, in the case of the coalfields, the further difficulty that the industry generally is in a state of depression from which it is not likely to recover for some years. The creation of an insurance scheme presumably involves a contribution from the employers, and a large number of the employers are, at present, not in a position to shoulder any additional burden. Many of the owners of small factories throughout

the province are probably in the same position. If, therefore, an insurance scheme were to be undertaken, the question of State assistance would inevitably arise, and the local Government must make it clear that in the present state of their finances they cannot undertake any liability whatever in this matter. Their revenues have ceased to expand and they are only able with difficulty to maintain their existing institutions and services. They have had to cut down increases in recurring expenditure to the very narrowest limits. Further, the local Government do not receive directly any revenue from the proceeds of industry. The District Boards are empowered to tax certain industries by the imposition of road cess. The duty of subsidizing insurance could not be laid upon the District Boards, while the provincial revenues derive no benefit from this cess. Lastly, the local Government do not consider that they would be justified in undertaking to subsidize insurance and medical relief for a small class of the community at the expense of the rest even if they could afford it, until such time as they are able to provide adequate medical relief for the population in general. If State aid is necessary for the creation of an insurance scheme, the local Government are of the opinion that the liability must fall upon the central Government.

5. In view of the results of this survey of the situation, the local Government consider that further investigation of the problem in Bihar and Orissa at the present stage is premature and is unlikely to be profitable. They have, therefore, not appointed a committee.

#### *Summary of Information collected.*

The result of the inquiries made to ascertain the present extent of medical relief provided by the employers in the industries of this province are summarized below.

#### *Major Industrial Areas.*

1. *Jamshedpur, Tatas and Allied Factories.*—Complete medical relief is provided for all employees free of charge both at the Company's hospital and at the worker's home. The company maintains a hospital with 144 beds, an isolation hospital with 36 beds and a segregation ward, 5 dispensaries and 2 first-aid stations. The medical staff consists of 27 doctors, 19 nurses, 31 compounders, 21 dressers and 40 sanitary inspectors.

Accident allowances are paid to all persons injured while incapacitated. Persons absent owing to sickness count their absence against leave under the company's rules. But no sick leave or allowances are paid to the coolie force. This force is engaged on a purely weekly basis, and is paid when actually working.

2. *The Imperial Tobacco Company's Factory at Monghyr.*—The company maintains an out-door dispensary. Medical treatment is given free to all employees. But there is no indoor hospital. No reports have been received regarding sick pay.

3. *Jharia and Mugma Coalfields, Mandhum.*—At present 214 collieries are working. The medical and public health organization of the collieries is under the statutory control of the Jharia Mines Board of Health appointed under the Bihar and Orissa Mining Settlement Act of 1920. The collieries own 11 hospitals (owned by European firms), 72 equipped colliery dispensaries for outdoor and accident relief. All collieries which do not possess dispensaries keep a prescribed stock of drugs and medical equipment. There are, in addition, district board dispensaries and a central hospital at Dhanbad. The collieries maintain 68 qualified doctors and 5 principal medical officers. These doctors are employed by 156 collieries; 58 collieries are exempted from employing the medical officer as they employ a labour force of less than 30 persons.

Fifty-eight collieries pay sickness benefit regularly for both sickness and accident cases at rates varying from 2 as. to Re. 1-8 annas per diem. Ten collieries pay accident benefit only at 3 as. to Rs. 3 per diem, and 7 others provide diet during illness. The Indian Mining Federation reports that it is the practice of its members to pay a *bhatta* roughly equivalent to daily wages during short illnesses. But nothing is done in cases of prolonged illness, as the labourers themselves leave the mines and return to their villages. Generally speaking organized sick benefits are paid principally by the big collieries, while the benefits in the smaller concerns are sporadic and not on any defined basis.

4. *Giridih Coalfields.*—The proprietors of the East Indian Company provide complete medical relief. There is also a self-supporting Miners' Benefit Fund which is maintained from contributions from the workers, men's subscriptions being one pice a week and the women's half a pice. From this sickness allowances and bonuses for births, marriages and deaths are paid. The fund has been in existence since 1892 and is self-supporting. The proprietors, in addition, provide both injury and old-age pensions to their miners.

5. No reports have been received regarding the *smaller coalfields* in Hazaribagh *i.e.*, Ramgarh, Bokharo and Karanpurah. These are also owned by State railways, and presumably provide medical relief.

6. *The Jamalpur Railway Workshops, E.I.R.*, maintains a large railway hospital fully equipped and staffed by one European medical officer, one assistant surgeon and three sub-assistant surgeons. There is also an outdoor dispensary. The workers receive free treatment in hospital. The employees are entitled to sick leave on pay under the company's rules.

7. *In the Mica Mining Area* only one concern, Christien & Co., maintains a hospital and provides medical relief. The other mines are practically all owned by Indians on a small scale.

#### *Industrial Concerns outside the main Industrial Areas.*

An enquiry was made by the Director of Industries with regard to (a) the extent of medical relief provided, and (b) the proportion of stable to seasonal employees in small factories scattered throughout the province.

The reports indicate that 39 per cent. of the total factory population outside the main industrial centres dealt with above receive medical relief at dispensaries provided by the employers; 57 per cent. are able to obtain medical treatment at public dispensaries within which the factory lies, while 4 per cent. are unprovided with any medical facilities. Relief provided by the employers occurs mainly in the Champaran and Darbhanga districts, and in the Manbhum and Singhbhum districts of Chota Nagpur. The percentages given above are not altogether reliable because, firstly, a part of the mining area has been taken into consideration which should have been excluded from the inquiry and, secondly, the percentages have been calculated not on the total turnover of workers, but on the maximum number of workers employed at the busy season.

The statistics on the subject of stability of workers are not given in this note because the results received have proved to be unreliable.

*Letter from the Government of the Central Provinces, No. C-22 652-XIII, dated the 17th April, 1929.*

The possibility of introducing some provision for sickness insurance was examined by a small informal committee including a few representatives of employers and employees. The report of that committee, together with the forwarding letter of Director of Industries, Central Provinces, accompanies this letter.

2. It will be observed that the members of the committee with the exception of the representatives of the employees are emphatically of opinion that any scheme of compulsory insurance is unworkable in practice. The local Government agree that the introduction of such a scheme must be attended by greater difficulties in a country where the path to compulsion has not been made easier by the existence of voluntary schemes of insurance, which are found where the system of trade unions is more developed. The extent of these difficulties cannot, however, be accurately estimated until an attempt has been made to put a scheme into operation, and the local Government is not prepared to accept the contention that they are insurmountable. It will, however, be conceded that, if an experiment is to be made, it must in the first instance be confined to industries in which labour is reasonably stable, that is to say, so far as the Central Provinces is concerned, to the textile, coal and manganese industries. Nor is there any valid reason that the scheme should not equally apply to labour employed on public or quasi-public enterprises such as the railways or under-departments of Government such as the Public Works Department. It follows that the sickness insurance must be organized on an industrial and not a regional basis.

3. I am further to point out that the time for the introduction of an innovation affecting the relations of capital and labour must be carefully chosen. At present labour is in a state of unrest—more so perhaps in other parts of India than in the Central Provinces. The introduction of a scheme of compulsory insurance would at the present moment in all probability be accompanied by organized attempts on the part of labour to shift the whole of the burdens to capital. Should these attempts be successful, the scheme would in effect lose one of its essential features that contributions should be levied alike for employers and employees. While, therefore, there is no objection to the preparation of a complete scheme, the local government feels considerable doubt as to whether the present time is propitious for its introduction.

4. The Government of India has directed attention to certain factors which must receive attention in any consideration of the problems. The provision of adequate medical facilities acceptable to the workers obviously is of paramount

importance. The Director of Industries has suggested in paragraph 8 of his letter that in urban areas the labourer should have the option of applying to reliable indigenous practitioners. Considerable practical difficulties would arise if there were two separate authorities to which the labourer desiring a certificate of sickness could apply; indeed, it might result in such certificates of sickness being obtainable with insufficient justification. The local Government would therefore suggest that for all industries, both urban and rural, the Western system of medicine should be utilized. Any prejudice that exists against that system would probably disappear in due course as a result of the benefits to labour resulting from sickness insurance. It is clear that the difficulties of administration from a medical point of view would be enhanced if the persons insured do not remain in the area within which the organization applicable to them can effectively operate. These difficulties will be minimized by the application of the scheme to industries with a stable labour force, but the local Government agrees with the Director of Industries that in order to simplify the administration, sickness benefits should be confined to persons who remain within specified areas.

5. It is not possible in the absence of statistics as to the number of workers who would be incapacitated by sickness to compute the cost of the scheme, even if the scale on which benefits are to be granted were laid down. It follows that it is equally impossible to assess the proportion which the expense of administration bears to that cost. In the initial stages of the scheme the administrative machinery for the settlement of disputes could probably be the same as that already provided under the Workmen's Compensation Act, but in order to prevent disputes either party should have the right of obtaining a second opinion in addition to that of the panel doctor before recourse is had to a tribunal for the settlement of disputes. This opinion should be that of a Government medical officer.

6. No demand has hitherto been put forward by the workers of this province for a contributory scheme of compulsory sickness insurance, and the local Government accepts the view of the Director of Industries that employees as a class will be opposed to making any contribution. It is only when benefits are realized that this opposition can be expected to decrease. Labour, however, as a whole will obtain an indirect increase in its earnings to the extent of the contribution by the employers less any overhead charges borne by the fund. Provided, therefore, that contributions are not pitched unduly high, there is no reason to suppose that the classes whom it is proposed to insure will be unable to meet those charges.

7. The question as to the extent to which State assistance can be granted is an important one. The demand for the augmentation of this assistance whether directly or indirectly is certain to be insistent, and the finances of the province are not in a position to bear the addition of what may prove to be a large and growing liability. It is, therefore, necessary that at the outset the contribution of the State should be clearly defined. If this proposition be accepted, the most practical solution is for the State to bear the cost of administration. This will include the keeping of accounts, the provision of Government medical officers to give a second medical opinion, and the provision of the machinery for the settlement of disputes. Ultimately, when the financial liability can be more exactly determined, it might be possible for the State to contribute a portion of the remuneration of panel doctors representing the cost of giving certificates of sickness, leaving the fund to bear the cost of treatment.

8. In conclusion I am to point out that labour welfare is a provincial subject, though subject to legislation in the Central Legislature. The local Government is fully alive to the necessity of co-ordination in matters affecting the conditions of labour, but considers that co-ordination can and should be secured by joint deliberations between the provinces at which the main principles can be settled. Control by the Central Legislature over a provincial subject should be exercised as rarely as possible. Moreover, constitutional changes are now under consideration, and the local Government would deprecate the initiation of legislation in the Central Legislature in connection with a provincial subject, when there is a possibility that the provincial legislature may have unfettered control before that legislation has reached its final stage.

*Copy of Letter No. C 12, dated the 22nd March, 1929, from R. N. Banerjee, Esq., I.C.S., Director of Industries, Central Provinces, to the Secretary to Government, Commerce and Industry Department, Central Provinces.*

I have the honour to forward herewith copy of a memorandum of the proceedings of the meeting of the special committee appointed to consider the proposals for sickness insurance contained in Government of India's letter No. L-1518, dated the 20th September, 1928.

2. It will be seen that all the members of the committee except the two representing the organized workers of Nagpur consider any scheme for sickness insurance impracticable at the present stage of the industrial development of these provinces.

3. Although there is no sort of formal provision for any kind of sickness insurance in the industrial concerns of the province at present, it is not accurate to say that large scale employers are entirely unmindful of their duties in this respect. A few of the large industrial concerns, e.g., the Empress Mills of Nagpur, the Pench Valley Coal Co., Ltd., Parasia (Chhindwara district), provide free medical attendance and treatment for their employees as part of the welfare organization attached to their works. The Pench Valley Coal Fields Co., Ltd., extend such free medical facilities even to the dependents of their employees and also grant a subsistence allowance or half wages to their employees so long as they are not fit for duty through illness.

4. I agree in the committee's view that no such scheme can be applied to agricultural labour, as it is far too unorganized and migratory at present in these provinces. For similar reasons I differ from the other members of the committee, and think no such scheme will be workable in respect of seasonal factories like the ginning and pressing factories in the cotton areas of the provinces.

5. I, however, think that there is a strong case for making obligatory such provision for the insurance of the workers against sickness as some of the larger industrial concerns have found it to their interest to organize on their own initiative. This provision should include both medical attendance and an allowance for the period of sickness as suggested in paragraph 3 of the Government of India's letter. Formal provision for sickness insurance should be made in all industries in which the labour employed may be said to be more or less stable. In these provinces the only such industries are the textile mills, oil mills and a few isolated perennial factories or works like the Katni Cement works. To these we might also add the railway. The workers in these concerns remain attached to them more or less permanently. For example, out of some 8,000 employees in the Empress Mills, Nagpur, nearly 5,000 have been there for more than two to three years, and nearly 4,000 for more than five years. It is easy to compile a list of such perennial works in the provinces.

6. Assuming that such a scheme will be applicable to concerns of the nature indicated above, my view is that insurance must be made compulsory. The average Indian labourer has not as yet developed the foresight and commonsense to realize the advantages of such a scheme. The Empress Mills, Nagpur, for example, have had a very liberal scheme of voluntary sickness insurance in force for the last eight or nine years; but out of 8,000 employees not more than 50 have cared to take advantage of it in any one year. This may be taken as a fair indication of what would happen to any optional scheme of this kind in these provinces.

7. I am at one with the majority of the committee in the view that the funds necessary for giving effect to any insurance scheme must be raised by contributions from the employers and the employed; and that Government should be responsible for the organization and financing of the machinery that will be necessary for administering these funds and the scheme very much on the same principle on which the Government now entrusts to its officers the function of the commissioner under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

8. I now touch on the several points raised in paragraph 5 of the Government of India's letter:—

(1) The perennial works in which the labour is comparatively permanent are mostly in urban centres, and it is possible to provide the necessary medical facilities. Special arrangements in the mining areas are quite feasible.

(2) Only a negligible minority may object to medical facilities according to the Western system. A panel of reliable indigenous practitioners (hakims and vaid)s in the urban centres will be available. For areas like the coal fields provision must be included that workers insisting on indigenous medical facilities will forfeit the benefits of any such scheme.

(3) The great majority of the stable element of labour in such works are likely to remain within the local area of the works. In any case, it would be quite fair to provide in the scheme that workers leaving that area during sickness will forfeit the benefits of the scheme.

(4) It is difficult to indicate this accurately without a closer study of the question. But roughly I am inclined to put the expense of the administration at one-fifth of the total cost of the scheme.

(5) The proportionate deduction from the wages of the classes to be insured will not entail any real hardship; but in their present frame of mind, they will strenuously oppose all such deduction. One can easily imagine what will be the first effect of

the introduction of any such scheme, say, three years hence. All the workers will immediately demand an increase of their pay to the extent of the amount of their contribution to the scheme.

(6) *Vide* paragraph 7 above.

9. I agree with the committee that a regional organization for the administration of the insurance funds would be more suitable to these provinces; and that, as in a matter like this uniformity is desirable, legislation should be central with provision for the local Government making rules.

10. For drawing up more detailed constructive proposals a much closer study of the question than I have been able to make is necessary. At present I can offer my views only on the general principles involved in the proposals indicated in the Government of India's letter. I may, however, add that the Japanese Act of 1922 appears to be a suitable model for India.

*Proceedings of the Meeting held on the 20th February, 1929, of the Committee appointed for the consideration of Government of India's proposals on Sickness Insurance.*

*Present :*

- (1) Director of Industries (*Chairman*).
- (2) Director of Agriculture.
- (3) Mr. J. Boyd, Manager, Katni Cement and Industrial Co., Ltd., Katni (Jubbulpore district).
- (4) Mr. A. H. Parry, Manager, Pench Valley Coal Fields Co., Ltd., Parasia (Chhindwara district).
- (5) Mr. Shyam Sunder Bhargava, M.L.C., Malguzar, Jubbulpore.
- (6) Rao Bahadur G. R. Kothare, President, Factory Owners' Association, Khamgaon (Buldana district).
- (7) Mr. L. H. Bartlett, M.L.C., President, C. P. and Berar Manganese Ore Co., Ltd., Nagpur.
- (8) Mr. R. W. Fulay, M.L.C., Press Employees' Association and Model Mills Textile Union, Nagpur.
- (9) Mr. R. S. Ruikar, General Secretary, Provincial Trade Union Congress Committee and Secretary, Nagpur Textile Union, Nagpur.

All except Messrs. Ruikar and Fulay think that such a scheme is not practicable at the present stage of the industrial development of the province, and if introduced, would lead to unnecessary complications, and would probably result in the workers being deprived of the minor benefits that are now already provided in some of the larger mining and textile concerns. Messrs. Parry, Bartlett, Boyd and Rao Bahadur Kothare lay special stress on this point.

Assuming that some sort of scheme of sickness insurance should be introduced all agree that it should be compulsory and contributory.

Mr. Fulay's views are that compulsory insurance should be introduced only when a certain percentage of the workers in any factory or works ask for it; and that workers drawing Rs. 30 or less per mensem should not be made to contribute anything towards the insurance funds, and only workers earning more than Rs. 30 per mensem should be made to contribute.

All agree that the State should bear the entire administrative cost, that is to say, the cost of the organization that may be necessary for administering the insurance funds and scheme, and that the State should not make any contribution towards the insurance funds proper. Mr. Ruikar dissents, and adds that in addition to bearing the total cost of the administration of the funds the State should also contribute towards the insurance proper. The worker should contribute one-fourth and the remaining three-fourths should be shared by the employers and the State, half and half.

2. *What Industries can the Scheme be applied to?*—All agree that agricultural labour is far too unorganized for the scheme. It should therefore be ruled out. The scheme should be applied to mines, textile and other mills and factories, railways and P.W.D. workers, whether departmental or in the employ of contractors.

There was much discussion on the feasibility of applying the scheme to seasonal factories. It was agreed that any scheme, if introduced, should also be extended to seasonal factories, even though the employees might benefit only during the period of six to seven months during which they would work in the factories. Even in the mines on 60 or 70 per cent. of the labour at most may be said to be stable, and the rest migratory. If the scheme is thus applied to mines there is no reason why it should not be applied to other seasonal factories like cotton ginning and pressing factories.

Mr. Fulay, however, adds that it would not be worth while applying any scheme to seasonal factories employing less than 100 persons. It is suggested that the exclusion of the seasonal factories would cause hardship to such workers as would join some other industrial concern after leaving them. The number of such employees would not, however, be appreciable, as most of these workers in the seasonal factories go back to their villages, and very few of them join any other industry.

Only Mr. Plymen was keen on the insurance of domestic servants as well. Others do not think that it is worth while extending any such scheme to them.

3. It emerges during the discussion that the migratory element of the labour in these industries mostly goes back to the villages presumably for agriculture.

4. The great majority of the workers would take advantage of the medical facilities provided.

Mr. Ruikar suggests that the Government should draw up a list of hakims and v aids in the villages of which the employees may avail themselves in the off-season. This to some extent would meet the difficulties arising from the lack of medical facilities in the interior. The lack of such facilities is admitted by all.

\* 5. All agree emphatically that the employees would not agree to the deductions from their pay. Messrs. Fulay and Ruikar say that they will agree if the benefits of the scheme are properly explained to them.

6. A territorial or regional organization for administering the insurance funds would be better than an occupational one.

7. Legislation should be central with provision for the local Government making rules.

8. In conclusion all repeat that the scheme would be impracticable. Messrs. Fulay and Ruikar dissent. Messrs. Plymen and Boyd suggest that money would be better spent on providing general medical facilities which would also benefit agricultural workers.

#### APPENDIX VI.

##### *Mr. Joshi's Maternity Benefit Bill.*

*A Bill to regulate the employment of women in factories and mines, and on those estates to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, applies some time before and some time after confinement, and to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit.*

Whereas it is expedient to regulate the employment of women in factories and mines, and on those estates to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, applies some time before and some time after confinement, and to make provision for the payment of maternity benefit during the period of absence from work due to advanced state of pregnancy and confinement; it is hereby enacted as follows:—

1.—Short title, extent and commencement. (i) This Act may be called the Maternity Benefit Act, 192 .

(ii) It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas.

(iii) It shall come into force on the first day of January, 1926.

2.—Definitions. In this Act,—

(a) " factory " means a factory as defined in the Indian Factories Act, 1911 ;

(b) " mine " means a mine as defined in the Indian Mines Act, 1923 ;

(c) " estate " means an estate as defined by the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901 ;

(d) " qualified medical practitioner " means a qualified medical practitioner as defined in the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 ;

(e) " benefit " means benefit as provided for by this Act ;

(f) " employer " includes an " occupier " of a factory as defined in the Indian Factories Act, 1911, or the " manager " of a factory, or an " owner " of a mine or his " agent " as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923, or the " manager " of a mine, or the " chief person " for the time being in charge of any " estate " ;

(g) " Inspector of Estates " means an inspector as defined by the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901 ;

(h) " Inspector of Factories " means an inspector as defined by the Indian Factories Act, 1911 ;

(i) " Chief Inspector of Mines " means a Chief Inspector as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923 ; and

(j) " Inspector of Mines " means an Inspector as defined by the Indian Mines Act, 1923.

3. Employment of women at the time of confinement and payment from Maternity Benefit Fund.—In any factory or in a mine or on an estate to which the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, or any section thereof applies, a women—

(a) shall not be knowingly employed during the six weeks following her confinement ;

(b) shall have the right to leave her work if she produces a medical certificate from a qualified medical practitioner stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks ;

(c) shall, while she is absent from her work in pursuance of clauses (a) and (b) of this section, be paid by the local Government in accordance with rules made for this purpose, out of a fund to be established for this purpose and called the Maternity Benefit Fund, benefit sufficient for the full and healthy maintenance of herself and her child, the amount of which shall be determined in accordance with rules made by the local Government.

4. Payment in case of death during period of confinement.—If a women dies at her confinement, or during the period for which she is entitled to benefit, the remaining sums due as maternity benefit shall be paid to the person who undertakes the care of the child in accordance with rules made by the local Government.

5. Dismissal of woman during confinement.—Where a woman is absent from her work in accordance with clause (a) or clause (b) of section 3, it shall not be lawful for her employer to give her notice of dismissal during such absence or at such a time that the notice would expire during such absence.

6. Penalty for contravention of Act by employers.—An employer contravening any provision of this Act or any rule made thereunder shall be punishable with fine which may extend to five hundred rupees.

7. Powers of local Governments to make rules.—Every local Government shall make rules—

(a) for the establishment of a Maternity Benefit Fund ; for fixing the amount of contribution to be paid to it by each factory or mine or estate ; for the collection of the contributions and for the management and safe custody of the fund ;

(b) for determining the manner of payment of the benefit to the person entitled to receive it ; and

(c) for fixing the amount of benefit to be paid under this Act.

8. Duties and powers of Inspectors.—The Inspector of Factories or the Chief Inspector of Mines or an Inspector of Mines or an Inspector of Estates shall have and perform the same powers and duties for the purpose of clauses (a) and (b) of section 3, and section 5 as they have and perform for the purpose of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, the Indian Mines Act, 1923, and the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, respectively.

#### *Statement of Objects and Reasons.*

The object of this Bill is twofold :—Firstly, it is intended to prohibit the employment of women in those industries, the work in which is regulated by law, six weeks after confinement, to enable them to leave work six weeks before confinement, and to prevent them from being dismissed from service during the days of their absence from work due to their advanced state of pregnancy and confinement. Secondly, during the period of her absence due to the above-mentioned reasons a women worker should be provided with financial help sufficient to maintain herself and the child in a healthy condition. The money necessary for this purpose is to be raised by the local Government by levying contributions upon the industries covered by the Bill in the form of a small cess on the products of the industries, or in some other convenient form to be decided by the local Government. The amount to be given to each women entitled to receive the benefit and the manner of payment and other matters connected with the Bill are left to be settled by the local Government by rules made by them.

The Bill seeks to carry out some of the proposals contained in the Draft Convention passed at the first International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919. India desires to secure her proper place among the civilized nations of the world she cannot plead her inability to treat her women workers in the way in which civilized nations are expected to do. Moreover, there seems to be a natural desire in the country for rapid industrialization. But if industrialism is to be an unmixed blessing to the working classes, timely provision must be made to avoid and counteract the evils incidental to the introduction of the new system. There is no doubt that if women continue their long and arduous work in factories, mines and other organized industries, even an advanced state of pregnancy, and immediately after confinement, their health and the health of their children will not fail to suffer.



Provision of maternity benefit during the days of enforced absence is necessary, as without such provision, mere prevention of work will be a measure of doubtful utility. It is but fair that the financial burden of the provision of the maternity benefit should fall upon industries that employ women with their natural sex disabilities. Moreover, as only a small proportion of women out of the total number of women employed will be eligible for the maternity benefit during the course of the year, the incidence of the burden will be very small. To prevent women workers from being dismissed some time before they become entitled to the maternity benefit, it is necessary that the maternity benefit should be paid out of the general fund and not by individual employers. As the welfare of labour is a provincial subject, it is only proper that the working out of the scheme for the maternity benefit should be left to local governments.

### APPENDIX VIII.

#### *Reporting of Accidents due to Causes notified by the Governments of Burma, Bombay and Bengal under Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act.*

##### *Burma.*

When there occurs in any factory :—

(1) The bursting of any vessel subject to internal pressure other than an aerated water bottle or a boiler licensed under the Indian Boilers Act, 1923 ; or

(2) the breaking of a rope or chain used for raising or lowering persons or goods by the aid of mechanical power or the collapse of any crane, winch or gantry used for raising or lowering persons or goods ; or

(3) the collapse or failure of any chimney or of any wall over five feet in height, or any post, pillar or beam on which depends the safety of any part of a structure near which any person is employed or may have occasion to pass, the manager of the factory shall forthwith notify the inspector of the occurrence. When the report is under either Clause (1) or Clause (2) of this rule the manager shall state when the appliance was last examined or tested by a competent engineer and the result of that examination or test ; when the report is made under Clause (3) the manager shall state what measures have been taken to prevent danger to persons working in the neighbourhood of the accident due to further collapse.

##### *Bombay.*

(a) Structural Collapse ; (b) The breaking of any rope, chain or other appliance used in raising or lowering persons or goods by the aid of mechanical or electrical power ; or (c) Fires in cotton openers in cotton pressing factories.—In exercise of the powers conferred by Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act, 1911 (XII of 1911), the Governor in Council is pleased to notify the above noted causes as causes of accidents due to which, occurring in factories on or after the 1st April, 1927, must be reported to the prescribed authority, in accordance with Rule 64A,\* by registered post within one hour of the occurrence, or the accident shall be reported by telegraph, telephone, or by special messenger within the same period.

##### *Bengal.*

*Collapse of Buildings and Accidents to Plant or Machinery.*—When in any factory there occurs any explosion, fire, collapse of buildings, or serious defects in machinery or plant, which might have caused or might cause injury to persons, such occurrence shall be reported by the manager within five hours of its occurrence to the authorities† mentioned in Clauses (a) and (b) of Rule 62 of these rules.

\* (a) The Inspector of Factories, Ahmedabad, in case of all factories situated in Sind, and in the districts of Ahmedabad, Kaira, Panch Mahals, Broach and Surat, and in the Nawapur Taluka of the West Khandesh District ; and

(b) The Chief Inspector of Factories, Old Customs House, Bombay, in all other cases.

† (a) The inspector notified for the area in which the factory is situated ; and

(b) The district magistrate, or, if he by general order so directs, to the sub-divisional officer.

## APPENDIX IX.

*Workmen's Compensation.*

*Letter to all Local Governments, No. L.1125, dated the 30th November, 1928.*

I am directed to refer to the Bill\* further to amend the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, for certain purposes which was introduced during the last session of the Legislative Assembly and circulated for the purpose of eliciting opinions thereon. This Bill\* is confined to the amendment of those sections which are admittedly defective and to the introduction of changes which are likely to raise no important controversial points and which will be generally recognized as improvements. But now that some experience of the working of the Act is available, it is desirable to re-examine the principles underlying the present Act and its more important features. The Act was admittedly an experimental measure and many of its features owe their origin more to a desire to minimize the difficulties attendant on the introduction of an entirely new measure of this kind than to any belief in their permanent value.

2. *The Scope of the Act.*—In any revision of the Act the two most important questions which require consideration are the definition of the workmen to whom the Act applies and the scales of compensation payable. The present Act aimed at the inclusion only of persons employed in branches of industry which were both organized and hazardous, and in extending the Act to fresh classes the Government of India has endeavoured to follow this principle. The great majority of the workmen who satisfy these conditions already come under the operation of the Act and if these conditions are to be maintained, no large extension of the scope of the Act is possible. It is difficult, however, to justify the exclusion of other classes of workmen on grounds of logic alone. The mere fact that an occupation cannot be described as hazardous is hardly sufficient justification for denying compensation to those who suffer from the rare accidents which occur and the fact that an industry is not organized in no way minimizes the hardship which accidents involve on workmen or their dependants.

3. No great difficulty would be created by the inclusion within the Act of workmen engaged in branches of industry which are not particularly hazardous and which are organized, e.g., to workmen employed on plantations. But the extension of the Act to workers in unorganized industries raises more serious problems, for the employer in an unorganized industry is not as a rule in a position to pay the compensation which would be due in the event of a serious accident. Nor would he be likely in most cases to take advantage of such facilities for insurance as are available. It would seem, therefore, that unless some scheme of compulsory insurance can be introduced, it would be unwise to contemplate any large extension of the scope of the Act. The Government of India are provisionally of the view that the endeavour to introduce any scheme of compulsory insurance, at any rate in unorganized industries, would be attended by serious administrative difficulties. In particular, the expense of administering such a scheme outside the more important urban areas would probably be prohibitive. But they would be glad if the local Government would consider, in the light of the above observations, the desirability of bringing further classes of workers within the scope of the Act. In particular, they would welcome any specific suggestions for additions to Schedule II of the Act.

4. *The Scales of Compensation.*—The main principles of the existing scales of compensation are:—

(1) The payment of a lump sum equivalent to 2½ years' wages of the deceased workman in cases of death of adult workmen.

(2) The payment of lump sums equivalent to 3½ years' wages (or in the case of minors, 7 years' wages) in the case of complete permanent disablement with proportionately smaller sums for partial permanent disablement.

(3) The payment of allowances at half the wage-rate for workmen temporarily disabled, with provisions for commutation. The most striking feature of the Indian Act in this respect is the preference shown for lump sums as against recurring payments and there is no doubt that in a country where industrial labour is drawn to a large extent from distant areas, the payment of lump sums involves much less administrative difficulty than the payment of pensions. On the other hand, money received in the form of lump sums, particularly by ignorant workmen and their dependants, is apt to be expended in an improvident manner; and the payment of pensions, if it could be smoothly effected, would result as a rule in the receipt of substantially greater benefit for an equivalent amount of expenditure. The Government of India would be glad to know to what extent (if any) it is desirable, in the opinion of the local Government, that recurring payments should be substituted for lump sum payments in granting compensation.

\* This Bill has since been passed into law as Act V of 1929.

5. As regards the level of the scales, I am to invite attention to the recommendation on the minimum scale of compensation laid down by the Seventh International Labour Conference. It will be observed that the main principle underlying this recommendation is that the scales of compensation should be so framed as to provide the equivalent of two-thirds of the amount which the workman would have earned had he not been killed or incapacitated. The adoption of these principles in the Indian Act would involve an enhancement of one-third in the rate of payment for temporary incapacity and would probably involve substantial enhancements of the amounts payable on account of death or permanent incapacity; and the Government of India desire to receive opinions regarding the desirability of altering the scales. They are provisionally inclined to the view that in respect of the more poorly paid workmen in particular an enhancement would be justified and that, whether the scales for workmen generally are modified or not, the minimum scales of compensation which result from the application of Schedule IV of the Act might suitably be raised.

6. *The Waiting Period.*—A further question which arises in connection with the scales of compensation concerns the date from which compensation is payable. Under the Act as it stands at present, no compensation is payable in respect of the first 10 days of disablement and it has been suggested that this waiting period is too long and results in hardship. While the period is admittedly longer than that prescribed by the great majority of Acts in other countries, the Government of India feels some doubt as to the wisdom of making a general reduction. It should be borne in mind that every reduction involves a very large increase in the number of cases that can be brought under the Act. Experience in other countries in respect of accident frequency indicates that a reduction of the present period by only three days would involve an increase of about 25 per cent. in the number of possible cases. And even if the period was reduced to as low as four days, the amount of compensation for temporary disablement due to a workman who was disabled for a period of less than 10 days would seldom exceed Rs. 2 or Rs. 3, and it would not ordinarily be worth his while to contest such a claim where an employer refused to pay.

7. But the waiting period, in addition to excluding a large number of possible new claims for very short periods, operates to diminish the amount of compensation payable to workmen disabled for longer periods. And it is possible to minimize this effect without opening the door to a large number of trivial claims by providing that, where the disablement has lasted more than 10 days, the workmen should be entitled to receive compensation from an earlier date, e.g., from the fourth day of disablement. This method, which is known as "dating back" has been adopted in a number of Acts in other countries and was at one time in force in England. The disadvantage attendant on it is that it provides in a number of cases a strong temptation to malingering. For the workman who returns to work, for example, on the 10th day is entitled to no compensation, whereas if his disablement lasts for one more day, he receives compensation for a week. In spite of this disadvantage, the possibility of introducing "dating back" provisions deserves consideration.

8. *The Definition of "Dependants."*—The provisions of the Act relating to dependants were designed mainly in order to avoid administrative difficulties and it was recognized at the time that they might be somewhat arbitrary in their operation. The present law is briefly as follows. The amount of compensation to be distributed is independent of the number of their dependants and of the degree of their dependence on the deceased workman. Provided that there is a single relative falling within the group specified in Section 2 (1) (d) of the Act, the whole of the compensation has to be distributed, and so far as the employer is concerned the question of whether any of the relatives were actually dependent or not is immaterial. The commissioner has complete discretion regarding the distribution of the amount and in exercising this discretion, he is naturally guided by the extent to which the various claimants were dependent on the deceased. But as the Act at present stands, he may be compelled on occasion to grant the whole of the compensation to relatives who are in no way dependent, and he may find himself unable to give compensation to other relatives who are dependent but who do not come within the definition of "dependant" given in the Act. The Government of India have received suggestions that the list of dependants should be enlarged, but they are provisionally of opinion that this would be an unwise step so long as the present principles are maintained. For while there are other relatives who are in some cases actually dependent on the deceased, e.g., widowed sisters and widowed daughters, every addition to the list of a relative who is not in the great majority of cases an actual dependant, increases the risk of compensation going to those who have no just claim to it. And it would seem that if any amendment of these provisions is required, the amendment should be of a more radical character. Thus, for example, it would be possible to enlarge considerably the list of relatives entitled to claim and to insist at the same time on some proof of dependance. It would also be possible to provide that the amount of

compensation payable should vary with the number of the dependants and with the extent to which they were actually dependent on the deceased. Provisions of this nature would be more logical than those contained in the Act; but they would obviously be more difficult to administer than the existing law and the Government of India would be glad to know to what extent, in the opinion of the local Government, it is advisable to move in the directions suggested.

9. *Liability of Contractors.*—Sub-section (2) of Section 12 of the Act provides that where a principal is liable to pay compensation under this section he is entitled to be indemnified by the contractor. The whole section, which follows the British Act, contains no special provisions relating to sub-contracts, which are not uncommon in Indian industry, and some amendments appear to be desirable. A recent decision of the Calcutta High Court has made it apparent that no indemnification can be obtained under the Act from a sub-contractor in respect of compensation awarded against the principal for injuries sustained by a sub-contractor's workman. In such cases the principal can recover from the contractor, but neither of them can secure indemnification from the sub-contractor in the absence of an express contract providing for such indemnification. But it is open to the workmen to secure compensation from the sub-contractor by whom he is directly employed. Thus the section as it stands has the undesirable effect of enabling a workman to decide in a particular case on which of the parties the ultimate liability should lie, and an amendment is accordingly required.

10. The most obvious amendment would be one permitting the liability to be passed on in every case to the person directly employing the workman, and such an amendment would be in accord with the general principle of the existing section. But it is at least questionable if this principle is entirely suited to Indian conditions. In many cases the contractors who are responsible for the employment of labour have little control over working conditions, and the main responsibility for such matters as the safety of the workmen rests not with the contractor but with the principal. In a number of instances, and especially in the working of mines, the law definitely holds a particular party responsible for the safety of workmen and it is questionable if he should be at liberty to pass on the liability for compensation merely because he has not engaged the workmen directly. A possible alternative, therefore, would be so to amend the section as to provide that in any case where the contractor or sub-contractor is ordered to pay compensation, he shall be entitled to be indemnified by the principal. Such a provision would be subject to the exception contained in the present Section 12 (4) of the Act which makes the section inapplicable in cases where the accident occurred elsewhere than on the premises of the principal. There would, of course, be nothing to prevent a principal from entering into a specific contract with a contractor or sub-contractor providing for his indemnification, independently of the Act, against claims for compensation.

11. *Returns.*—While the majority of employers now send the prescribed returns punctually, there is a substantial minority who fail to comply with the provisions of Section 16 of the Act. And a suggestion has been made that a penal clause should be introduced in the Act making it possible to impose a small fine on employers who fail to submit returns within the time prescribed. At present, employers who intentionally omit to furnish returns can be prosecuted under Section 176 of the Indian Penal Code, but it has been urged that the difficulty of proving the element of intention renders this section insufficient for the purpose. The Government of India consider that the fact that a reminder or several reminders had been issued without result would in most cases suffice to establish intentional default, and they are doubtful if a special penal clause is necessary; but they would be glad to have opinions on the question.

12. Section 16 requires the submission by employers of correct returns specifying the number of injuries in respect of which compensation has been paid by the employer during the previous year together with such particulars as to compensation as the Governor-General in Council may direct. As the section stands, employers cannot be legally compelled to submit returns in respect of injuries for which no compensation has been paid and it has been suggested that the scope of the section might be enlarged so as to secure these returns and enable Government to judge of the extent to which injured persons succeed in getting compensation. This might be advantageous, but it would not be an easy matter to define the accidents in respect of which returns were required. It should be remembered in this connection that claims for compensation can arise in respect of injuries sustained elsewhere than on the employers' premises. And to call for returns in respect of injuries "arising out of and in the course of employment" would be to compel the employer to choose between restricting the returns to the cases in which he has paid compensation (and this is what is required at present) and admitting that he was liable to pay compensation in a number of other cases.

13. *Provisions relating to Procedure in Fatal Accidents.*—Finally, the Government of India desire to suggest some improvements in the procedure relating to fatal accidents, with particular reference to Section 22 (1) of the Act. As the law stands at present, under Sub-section (1) of Section 22 a dependant who finds that no compensation has been deposited on behalf of a deceased workman must first approach the employer. This appears to be illogical as, in the case of fatal accidents, it is not possible for the parties to reach an agreement that will be final. The duty of deciding what compensation, if any, should be given to each dependant rests solely with the Commissioner, and an agreement between any dependant and an employer is effective only in so far as it is an agreement on the employer's side to deposit compensation. The dependant can make no corresponding agreement to accept the compensation. As all cases of fatal accidents must come before the Commissioner and failure to deposit compensation is equivalent to a denial of the claim, the Government of India are inclined to the view that Section 22 should be amended in such a manner as to enable a dependant who claims compensation to approach the Commissioner for the settlement of his claim without first applying to the employer. This change would not affect the right of the employer to a notice of the accident.

14. Section 22 of the Act effectively presents the Commissioner from initiating proceedings on his own motion. It has been suggested that in a country like India, where the class of people from which workmen are drawn is almost entirely illiterate, the Commissioner should be given powers to initiate proceedings to secure the payment of compensation in cases where, owing to ignorance, no claim has been made. The proposal, as stated in this form, is open to serious objections, the main one being that it would tend to remove the Commissioner from the position of a referee to that of a partisan and to weaken the confidence of employers in his impartiality. The Government of India, however, consider that the migratory character and the general illiteracy of the workers in India and the absence of well-organized trade unions furnish grounds for taking special measures for securing to the dependants of a deceased workman the compensation which is due to them under the Act. For example, a provision might be made under which an employer would be bound to give notice to the Commissioner within a prescribed period of all accidents to his workmen which have terminated fatally. Failure to give such notice would render the employer liable to a fine. The notice would include certain specified details and would also include a statement whether the employer proposed to deposit compensation with the Commissioner or not; and if not, his reason for not doing so. Where the employer did not propose to deposit compensation, the Commissioner might be authorized to convey to the dependants of the deceased employee an intimation that it was open to the latter to take such further action in the matter as they might desire to take under the Act. Alternatively, other officers, e.g., inspectors of factories and mines might be authorized to prefer complaints (and to secure that the proper notice was served on the employer) in cases where they believed that a workman had been killed in circumstances giving rise to a claim for compensation, and where no compensation had been deposited. The Government of India would be glad if these suggestions could be considered; they will be ready to consider any other suggestions designed to meet the difficulty.

15. In a number of cases Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation have been unable to award compensation payable under the Act, owing to the fact that the dependants of a deceased workman could not be traced, and a suggestion has been made that employers should be obliged to register the names and addresses of the nearest relatives of each of their workmen as soon as the workman is taken into employment. The Government of India are inclined to view such a proposal favourably, but they consider that the procedure suggested could only be introduced effectively for certain limited classes of workmen, e.g., those employed in factories, mines and railways. In the case of a factory, for example, the employer has to keep a register of all the persons employed, and the names and addresses of the nearest relatives could be entered at the time when the entry of a workman's name is first made. These registers could be examined periodically by factory inspectors. On the other hand, the enforcement of a rule in the building trades, for example, would be scarcely possible. Another possible objection to this proposal is that in some areas workmen might be unwilling to give their wives' names and the wife, when living, is the most important dependant.

16. Cases arise in which the amount of compensation deposited on account of a fatal accident is inadequate and the Commissioner is at present precluded from taking steps on his own initiative to secure that the full amount of compensation is paid. He must await an application from a dependant before taking any action in this respect. As the deposit of compensation is tantamount to an admission of liability, it would seem to be desirable that the Commissioner should be empowered to call upon the employer depositing compensation in any particular case to show cause why he should not deposit the additional amount sufficient to bring the compensation up to the prescribed sum.

17. Section 8 (1) of the Act does not prescribe any particular period during which the payment must be made by the Commissioner, but it is doubtful whether he can, without statutory authority, withhold a payment for the periods which are sometimes necessary for the decision of an appeal by a High Court. It has, therefore, been suggested that Section 8 (1) of the Act should be amended so as to empower the Commissioner to withhold payment in cases where an appeal has been filed against his decision. The High Court might similarly be empowered to order in any particular case that the distribution of compensation should be suspended pending their decision.

18. In conclusion, I am to set out briefly the main questions on which the Government of India desire to receive opinions. These are as follows :—

- (1) To what fresh classes of employees, if any, should the Act be extended ?
- (2) Should any provisions be introduced for securing workmen against possible loss by reason of the inability of their employer to pay any compensation that may be due ?
- (3) To what extent, if any, should recurring payments be substituted for the lump sums at present payable under the Act ?
- (4) Should the scales of compensation be enhanced either for the more poorly paid workmen or generally ?
- (5) Should the waiting period be reduced either generally or in the case of those workmen who are disabled for more than ten days, and if so to what extent ?
- (6) Should the list of relatives entitled to claim compensation be enlarged ?
- (7) Should proof of dependence be required in order to enable a relative to claim compensation ?
- (8) Should the compensation payable vary with the number of dependants and with the extent of their dependance on the deceased workmen ?
- (9) Should Section 12 of the Act be amended—
  - (a) So as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the person directly employing the workmen in every case, or
  - (b) so as to place the ultimate liability for compensation on the principal, or
  - (c) in any other manner ?
- (10) Should any penalty be provided in the Act for failure to comply with the provisions of Section 16 ?
- (11) Should employers be required to submit returns of accidents in respect of which compensation has not been paid, and if so, to what accidents should this provision apply ?
- (12) Should a dependant claiming compensation be relieved of the necessity of approaching the employer for the settlement of his claim ?
- (13) What steps, if any, should be taken to ensure that dependants who may have valid claims for compensation do not lose compensation through ignorance of their rights ?
- (14) Should employers be required to maintain a register of relatives of their workmen ?
- (15) Should Commissioners be empowered to call on employers depositing inadequate compensation for fatal accidents to make a further deposit ?
- (16) Should provision be made for the suspension of distribution by the Commissioner pending the disposal of an appeal against his decision ?

Other amendments of the Act may suggest themselves to local Governments or those consulted by them, and the Government of India will also be glad to receive any suggestions relating to points which are not discussed in this letter. I am to request that, after consultation with representative organizations of employers and employees and others who may be interested in the operation of the Act, a reply may be sent to this letter not later than 1st July, 1929.

## APPENDIX XII.

### *Deductions from Wages or Payments in Respect of Fines.*

*Letter to all Local Governments and Administrations, No. L.1418, dated 25th June, 1926.*

I am directed to ask for the/your assistance of the Government of India in enabling the Government of India to obtain information on the extent of the practice in India by which employers in industrial concerns are empowered to inflict fines upon their workmen. Suggestions have been made in the Central

Legislature, in the press and elsewhere that the system of inflicting fines upon workmen is common in Indian industrial establishments, and that it constitutes an evil of such proportions that steps should be taken either to abolish the system altogether or to reduce it to such dimensions as to prevent abuse.

2. That the system is liable to abuse is obvious. If fines are not subject to regulation the employer who imposes a fine acts as prosecutor and judge, and the employee has no effective remedy if he is fined unjustly or in excess. This is true even in countries where workmen are literate and where they have the support of trade unions in resisting unfair imposts. It is not unnatural to expect that in India the ignorance of the great mass of workmen and the absence of strong labour organizations would make the need for protection greater than elsewhere. The experience of western countries has in many cases led to more or less elaborate legislation on this subject. The main provisions of the English law are embodied in the Truck Act of 1896. In several other countries the power to impose fines and make deductions from wages is regulated by law. Sometimes a limit in the shape of a maximum percentage of wages is imposed; generally deductions can only be made in accordance with a code of regulations duly posted in the factory or other establishment; and frequently the law contains the salutary provision that sums paid as fines must be credited to funds devoted in some manner or other to the benefit of the workers.

3. It will be apparent that while the legitimacy of the system of imposing fines is recognized in most countries, restrictions are frequently imposed with the object of preventing abuse. The English law makes a distinction between three forms of deductions from wages—deductions in respect of fines, i.e., for breaches of discipline; deductions in respect of bad or negligent work, or injury to the materials or other property of the employer; and deductions in respect of material provided by the employer. The Government of India are not in possession of full information on the extent to which the practice of making deductions of these various kinds exist in India; though they are inclined to the view that it is in respect of the first two forms of deductions from wages, mentioned above, that the practice is most prevalent and most liable to abuse. The distinction between these two forms of deductions is not always easy to define, and indeed one of the recommendations of the Truck Committee appointed in England in 1906 was the repeal of the provisions of the English law relating to deductions in respect of damaged goods (Section 2 of the Act of 1896), the effect of which recommendation would be that the employer could only deal with cases of careless or negligent work in the same way and under the same conditions as he would be allowed to deal with breaches of discipline. The deductions would cease to be a method by which the employer recoups the loss he has sustained through the worker's act or default, and would become rather of the nature of a fine.

4. There is, of course, a body of opinion which urges that fines ought to be abolished altogether, the grounds advanced generally that experience shows that they are not a real deterrent, that they have a bad moral effect, and that, being often unfairly imposed, they create a sense of injustice and lead to irritation. The exponents of this view aver that discipline can best be maintained by adequate supervision and moral control, with the alternative of dismissal in the last resort. This was not, however, the view taken by the majority of the English Truck Committee of 1906-08. They pointed out the obvious dangers of the total abolition of the system of fining in the substitution of other and less desirable means of maintaining discipline. A considerable body of evidence was produced before the Committee to the effect that many workers prefer fines to the alternative of suspension or dismissal. Their final conclusions were not in favour of the total abolition of the system of imposing fines, but they proposed certain changes in the law designed to place such restrictions and conditions on the system as would prevent it from being either a source of profit to the employer, or a cause of improper or harsh treatment to the workers. They suggested, *inter alia*, that the maximum fine or accumulation of fines in any one week permissible by law should not exceed 5 per cent. of the wages of the worker; that deductions by instalments should be prohibited, i.e., that not more than one deduction should be allowed to be made in respect of one and the same fine; and that fines should be abolished altogether in the case of young persons of 16 years of age and under.

5. In referring very briefly and summarily to some of the provisions of the law in other countries, the Government of India must not be understood as intending to suggest that circumstances in India are the same, or that legislation on similar lines is necessary or desirable. They have not at present sufficient information at their disposal regarding the degree to which the system of imposing fines is prevalent in India, the forms which it takes, or the extent, if any, to which it is in practice abused, to enable them to form any definite conclusions. The object of this letter is to ask local Governments to furnish them with such information as they are able to collect

on the subject, after consultation with the interests concerned, and to favour them with their views on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise, to counter any abuses which may be found to prevail.

6. If, as the result of these enquiries, any legislative measures on the subject should appear to be desirable, the inherent difficulty of rendering such legislation effective must be recognized. This, indeed, is a difficulty which has been felt in England. The original Truck Act of 1831 largely failed of its effect because no one was officially recognized as having a special duty to enforce it. This drawback was, to some extent, remedied by Section 13 of the Truck Act of 1887, which placed upon inspectors of factories and mines the duty of enforcing the provisions of the Truck Acts and gave them for this purpose the same powers and authorities as they possess for enforcing the provisions of the Acts relating to factories and mines. The Report of the Truck Committee already referred to, shows, however, that even in England where the workmen are literate and in every way in a better position to resist illegal exactions than in India, it has been difficult to prevent or to detect violation of the law. It appears to the Government of India that if any legislation is ultimately found to be desirable in this country, it would probably be impracticable, in the first instance at any rate, to extend its scope beyond industrial establishments, such as factories and mines, which are already regularly inspected by a special staff.

7. In asking for information on this subject, the Government of India would welcome any suggestions which the Government of you may have to make on the form which any measures, which it may be found desirable to adopt to remedy abuses, should take. They would be very grateful if after consultation with the interests concerned, the local Government would favour them with their views not later than the 1st March, 1927.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, No. 72/5826, dated the 5th January, 1927.*

The system of imposing fines upon workmen employed in industrial concerns or coffee plantations does not exist in Coorg. The chief commissioner does not, therefore, consider it necessary to take any action, legislative or otherwise, in the matter so far as this province is concerned.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, N.W.F. Province, No. 6-C. & I. (Revenue), dated the 5th January, 1927.*

No industrial concerns of any magnitude or importance exist in this province, and the enquiries made have not revealed the existence of any system of imposing fines on the workmen employed in such establishments as are to be found. I am unable, therefore, to offer any useful suggestions on the subject.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 300-Industries, dated the 13th January, 1927.*

In my opinion it would not be possible at the present stage of development of this country to introduce legislation on this subject (even as regards factories and mines already inspected by a special staff) which would not cause considerable irritation without any corresponding benefit, for an ill-intentioned employer would still find many loopholes whereby to evade it. In the long run every employer gets the employees he deserves, and the average employer is not blind to that fact or to his own interests. In the past few years India has had a plethora of industrial legislation, and the country should be given time to digest it fully before too many further steps forward are taken. *Festina lente* is a hackneyed motto, but there are times when it has much to commend it.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. 337-F.M., dated the 19th January, 1927.*

There are few large industries in this province besides the tea estates. On tea gardens the system of fining for bad work or damage to materials practically does not exist. The piece-work system is generally in force there, and as the labourer is paid for the actual work done, the question of fining for bad work does not arise in his case at all. Members of the supervising staff however, are occasionally fined for neglect of work or irregularities. The power of fining for damage to tools and plant is not utilized at all in tea gardens. Fines are imposed for breaches of discipline, such as drunkenness, but the power is not abused. Any such abuse would at once lead to an exodus of the labourers and this in itself is a sufficient safeguard.



The fines most commonly imposed on tea gardens are those imposed in settlement of disputes among the labourers themselves, where the fines are paid to the aggrieved party, and fines for petty offences, e.g., cattle trespass, stealing firewood, etc. These fines are imposed in lieu of sending the persons concerned to court and are accepted as a preferable alternative. They do not fall within the class of fines dealt with by the Government of India and may be left out of consideration.

2. In industries other than the tea industry, the system of fining for bad work and damage to materials as well as for breaches of discipline does exist, but the Governor in Council has no reason to believe that it is abused. In the Assam Railways and Trading Company, which is the largest of such industries in the province, the total fines imposed in 1925-26 amounted only to 18 per cent. of the wages bill.

3. The Governor in Council holds that the power of fining must be retained as an alternative to other and less desirable means of maintaining discipline or to the more drastic punishment of dismissal for bad work. There is no abuse of the power of fining in Assam, and there is no danger of such abuse in a province where labour is difficult to obtain and perhaps even harder to retain and any abuse of the power would bring its own punishment in the loss of labour. For these reasons legislation to regulate fining is not required in this province.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Ajmer-Merwara, No. 198/1805 of 1927, dated the 3rd February, 1927.*

So far as Ajmer-Merwara is concerned, no legislation is called for in the matter at present.

*Letter from the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan, No. 489-R., dated the 10th February, 1927.*

The industries in this province consist of coal and chromite mines only, while the factories are mainly Government workshops of the railway, ordnance and military departments, and a couple of private steam flour mills and an ice factory.

2. There are no special rules in existence on the subject of powers of employers of the industrial concerns to inflict fines on their workmen. From enquiries made, however, it appears that fines of trivial amounts are inflicted in the cases of breach of discipline, of negligent and bad work, and are readily accepted by the employees concerned. In the case of railway workshops, the amount so realized is credited to a special fine fund, which is used solely and entirely for the benefit of the staff and in no way forms a source of income to the railway. In the case of arsenal workshops, the fines are scrutinized by an officer senior to the one recommending the same before the publication of the same in orders.

3. The system of inflicting small fines is considered to be the only suitable way of dealing with small errors and slackness, and its abolition is deprecated all round in the interest of maintenance of proper control and discipline over the employees.

4. In order, however, to restrict abuses, the following suggestions appear to the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner to be fair and suitable for all concerned :—

(i) that a list of all fines inflicted in an industry or a workshop should be kept in a special book in which the signature or thumb impression of the employees fined be taken and witnessed by one of his fellow workers in token of the employees acquiescence to the deduction of the amount from his earnings ;

(ii) that the total of such deductions should not exceed 5 per cent. of the monthly earnings of the employee so fined ; and

(iii) that in the case of mines and factories it should be made compulsory for the employer to submit at the close of each year to the inspectors of mines and factories, respectively, for scrutiny, a list of all fines inflicted during the year with full particulars of the circumstances connected with each fine.

*Letter from the Government of the Central Provinces, No 608/1394-XIII, dated the 18th February, 1927.*

The system of fining prevailing in the province is neither a source of profit to the employer nor a cause of harsh or improper treatment to the workers. It has, on the other hand, been effective in enforcing discipline and preventing careless or negligent work. In recent industrial disputes in the province, the subject of fines

has not been brought up as a grievance and no complaints from employees regarding excessive fines have been made to the factory inspection staff. The employers of labour are unanimous in opposing legislation on the subject, and having regard to the conditions obtaining in the province, the local Government inclines to the view that it is unnecessary to introduce legislation on the lines of the English Truck Act. It is suggested, however, that it might be prescribed by a rule under or an amendment of the Indian Factories Act and the Indian Mines Act that the owners of factories and mines shall maintain a register in which the amount of fine or deduction from wages and the nature of the act or omission in respect of which such fine is imposed or deduction made should be entered. Such a register, which should be open to inspection by the factory or mines inspector, would furnish a means for the verification of any complaints and would enable the local Government to watch how far the system is abused in practice.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. 381-L, dated the 21st February, 1927.*

I am directed to say that the Commissioner of Labour, the Board of Revenue, the Director of Industries and representatives of employers of labour and employees were consulted.

2. From the enquiries made, the Government observe that fining is generally used both for breaches of discipline and (though apparently not so often) for bad or negligent work or injury to materials and tools. It does not appear that, in the larger concerns, employers hire out materials or tools to workmen and deductions are not therefore made in respect of them. Fines for bad work and injury to materials tend to be regarded as fines for disciplinary purposes and the two groups may therefore be treated together.

3. The enquiries made do not furnish any evidence that the practice of fining is abused in this Presidency. The maximum of 5 per cent. of the wages of any worker suggested by the English Truck Committee of 1906-1908 as being the limit up to which fines may be levied on him in a week is apparently never exceeded in this Presidency, and the average percentage of fines levied appears to be almost invariably less, sometimes much less, than one-half per cent. The fines collected are generally credited to a fund mainly devoted to the benefit of the workmen. In the opinion of this Government the conclusion is irresistible, on the above data, that no need for legislation exists.

4. Further, there are three grave dangers attending legislation of this kind in this country. Firstly, by fixing a maximum by statute, fining is legalized up to that maximum and it will tend thereby seriously to increase the evil against which it is proposed to legislate. Secondly, legislation may drive employers to resort more largely to other methods of enforcing discipline, such as reduction in wages and the withholding of gratuities or bonuses, which would be gravely to the detriment of the workmen. Thirdly, the proposed legislation would not give control where control, if it could be enforced, is necessary. For instance, in the hand loom industry, the middlemen, in whose hands the industry is to a very considerable extent, advance yarn, looms, etc., and use their power of making deductions for alleged bad work or waste of material to an extent which no industrial concern would contemplate. It is, in fact, one of the methods by which they keep the weavers who work for them in a perpetual state of indebtedness. This abuse on the part of employers who do not come within the scope of the Factories Act would not be checked by the proposed legislation, and the restriction of such legislation to industrial establishments in which the abuse hardly exists will not secure the object in view.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 561-R, dated the 7th March, 1927.*

From enquiries made it appears that although the practice of inflicting fines on workmen employed in industrial establishments is common throughout the province, it is not resorted to any appreciable extent by any concerns of repute or standing, and that it does not constitute an evil of such proportion as to necessitate legislation to abolish the system altogether or to restrict it within narrow limits.

2. Fines are a well recognized method of inflicting a minor punishment and the system has not led to any great abuse. In fact, the demand for labour is so great that a firm known to deal harshly with its employees in this respect would soon find itself in difficulties in securing adequate supplies of labour. It is also doubtful if industries could be run in India without a system of fines; the labour so far commands the situation (in most industries) that there is little danger of a wholesale misuse of the system. Accordingly in the opinion of the Punjab Government the necessity for interfering with this well recognized method of inflicting a minor penalty is not

established, at least in so far as this province is concerned, and they would not view with favour any legislation intended to stop or regulate the infliction of fines. The enforcement of such legislation would also be very difficult, even if it were confined to factories and workshops liable to inspection. In others it would remain a dead letter.

3. In case, however, the Government of India still decide to introduce legislation in this matter, it would be necessary to define the limit of fine, and in the opinion of the Punjab Government this should be fixed at one-eighth of a workman's wages. Any reduction in this limit is likely to lead employers to dismiss their workmen for want of power to impose adequate punishment and this would be a clearly undesirable alternative.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 1673-Com., dated the 7th March, 1927.*

The Government of Bengal consulted the various interests concerned, and they have now obtained the necessary information, which is summarized below, and which shows that the abuses are so few that it is doubted whether legislation of any kind is necessary at the present time.

2. The extent to which fining is prevalent in Bengal may be judged from the following summary of information supplied by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce :—

" *The Indian Mining Association* (representing the coal-mining industry).—It may be fairly stated that the imposition of fines is not prevalent in the coalfields to any great extent. For if it were the mine workers who are largely agriculturists would not come into the coalfields to work year by year as they now do. There may be deductions from wages occasionally on account of bad work, gross carelessness or negligence, damage to property or pillar stealing. But neither in the case of the workmen engaged by the collieries themselves, nor in the case of the labour brought in by the contractors, has fining become a regular or extensive system in the coalfields.

" *The Indian Engineering Association* (representing the engineering industry).—Fines are imposed in engineering works to a nominal extent only. The maximum limit is not more than 2 per cent. in any of the works and in some of the larger works the amount is less than 1 per cent. of the wages. The system is not abused, and the Association does not consider that any steps are necessary in this regard. In large establishments, such as most of the engineering works are, there is a sufficiently strong class feeling among the workmen to prevent any abuse of the system. The fines are on too insignificant a scale to recoup the employer for the value of any material that may be spoiled by a workman. The system is simply a means of enforcing discipline, and for that reason the Association is opposed to its abolition. If fines were prohibited, employers would be compelled to dismiss offenders, and dismissal is a much more severe punishment than a fine.

" *The Indian Tea Association* (representing the tea industry).—The system of fining is practised to a very small extent in the tea industry and does not constitute an evil. It is considered to be of value as a means of maintaining discipline, and it is obviously not abused, as if it were labour would tend to leave the estates. When inflicted fines are usually either a punishment for bad work or for offences such as petty pilferages, etc."

3. Enquiries made in the tea-garden area of this province have elicited further information regarding the system of fining in that industry. This information shows that abuse is limited by the consideration that the shortage of labour compels the planters to treat their employees with every consideration. The letter from Mr. W. L. Travers, M.L.C., Vice-Chairman of the Doars Planters' Association, to the address of the Commissioner of the Rajshahi Division, amply bears this out, and also demonstrates the fact that, so far as the tea industry in this province is concerned, the time has not yet arrived when legislation of a Truck character would serve any useful purpose.

4. The information supplied from commercial sources is in general agreement with that which Government has received from the Factory Inspection Department, and also from Mr. K. C. Ray Chaudhuri, one of the labour representatives on the Bengal Legislative Council, who was specially consulted on the subject. The fining system may be said to be general in all industrial establishments, and fines are generally imposed for :—

- (a) breaches of discipline ;
- (b) bad or negligent work or injury to materials ; and
- (c) injury to machinery or tools supplied by the employer. It is reported that (a) and (b) are usually the causes of fines in textile mills and tea gardens and (a) and (c) in engineering concerns. About 80 per cent. of the total labour force in this province is employed in textile and engineering concerns, and special enquiries conducted in these industries by inspectors of factories prove that the fining system has

not led to any appreciable abuse. In jute mills it has been found that the majority of fines are inflicted on piece-workers, and, in particular, on weavers on account of bad and negligent work and injury to material. The following are a few random samples taken from jute mills :—

	Wages per week.	Fines.	Cause.	Percentage of wages.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a.		
A. Mill weavers .. ..	3 14 3	0 2	(b) For bad work .. ..	3
	6 8 0	0 4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.8
	6 11 6	0 4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.7
	6 0 0	0 2	(a) Committing nuisance	2
B. Mill weavers .. ..	8 4 0	0 4	(b) For bad work .. ..	3
	7 13 9	0 4	(b) Do. .. ..	3.2
	8 8 0	0 8	(b) Do. .. ..	6
A. Mill preparing department.	2 8 0	0 2	(b) Bad work .. ..	5
Finish carding .. ..	2 12 0	0 2	(b) Do. .. ..	4.5
Selectors .. ..	8 8 0	0 8		6
Sirdar .. ..	5 8 9	0 8	(b) Bad supervision .. ..	9
B. Mills spinner .. ..	3 8 0	0 2	(a) For leaving tokens ..	5
Do. .. ..	3 8 9	0 2	(c) For being late .. ..	5

In no case do the fines in the above instances exceed 5 per cent. of the employees' wages, where monthly wages are taken into account, and in no case investigated does it appear that an employee has been fined more than once in a month. In the case of one mill the aggregate of fines per week amounted to Rs. 50, the majority of which were imposed on weavers, and the balance on the remaining classes of time-workers for breaches of discipline, timekeeping, etc. The total wages bill for the week in this concern was Rs. 14,000. In another mill with a monthly wages bill of Rs. 4,200, the fines aggregated Rs. 6-2 annas per week. In still another mill the aggregate of fines per week was Rs. 300, of which Rs. 200 were imposed on weavers for bad work and the remainder on time-workers for breaches of discipline and infractions of the Factories Act. In this case the total wages bill was Rs. 15,000.

Cotton mills are reported to impose fines similar to jute mills in approximately the same proportion to wages. It is stated that warnings are given before the fines are imposed, and that when an employee is found to be doing better work after having been fined the fines are returned to him in the form of a bonus.

In engineering concerns the available information goes to show that in no case do the fines exceed 5 per cent. of the employees' wages, and that the aggregate of fines is negligible compared with the total wages bill. Fines in such works are generally inflicted for breaches of discipline, bad timekeeping, and injury to tools supplied by the employers.

Information is difficult to obtain in respect of smaller factories, but the fact that no complaints have been received shows that fining does not lead to abuses. It has been noted that in some concerns, such as rice mills, no fines are said to exist, because in such industries the question of skill scarcely arises, with the result that there is no bad work. Punctuality and discipline are also of less importance than in big textile concerns.

5. Under the English Truck Acts all contracts in regard to fines, bad work, damage, use of machinery, light, etc., are required to contain in expressed words the limitation imposed by statute that the deduction or payment is to be "fair and reasonable, having regard to all the circumstances of the case." Contracts also in regard to bad work or damage must also contain the limitation that the deduction or payment shall not exceed the actual or estimated loss to the employer. The information which has already been supplied is sufficient to show that the stipulation "fair and reasonable having regard to all the circumstances of the case" is in practice accepted so far as the large industries in this Presidency are concerned. With regard to the limitation of the fine to the actual or estimated loss to the employer there is, and can be, no attempt in this country at recovering loss due to bad workmanship. When a weaver is fined, say 4 annas, for injury to material, in all probability the cost of the injury to the employer is from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20.

Moreover, in the case of jute mills, consistently bad work turned out by a mill may mean the relegation of the mill to a lower grade by the buyers with consequent general lower prices. One recent case has been quoted in which bad work of this kind has meant a loss of Rs. 3,000 per month to the mill for a full year. Similarly, in engineering works the proportion which the fine bears to the loss in tools or material incurred by the employer is infinitesimal.

6. Generally speaking, it may be said that the fining system is more distasteful to employers than it is to employees. It is obviously in the interest of the employer to have good work done by his employees, to have good discipline in his factory, and also to have good timekeeping. Were fining carried on to an irksome extent it would undoubtedly be reflected in the causes of strikes. An analysis of the strikes recorded in this province from 1920 to 1926 shows only a few cases in which fines have been an ostensible cause of workers going on strikes. This deserves more than a passing note because in the jute-mill industry the quality of the product depends very largely on the quality of the yarn. In a small number of cases, strikes have been occasioned by the imposition of fines due to bad work which was set down by the employees as the result of bad yarn, and which, in some cases, ultimately led to an enquiry into the quality of the yarn used by the weavers. Normally, it is the duty of the supervising staff of the mill, in the interest of the mill itself, to see that the yarn supplied is sufficiently good for the fabric to be woven, so that the likelihood of fines being imposed in big proportions for bad work owing to bad yarn is very small. It has been reported, too, that employers have attempted to eradicate possible abuses which the fining system may give rise to by making a rule that only European supervisors may impose the fines. In cases it has been noted that where a *sirdar* is fined for bad supervision he is liable to pass the tax on to his subordinates. It is always difficult to detect such impositions, but in some mills it is noted the management have encouraged the employees to report direct to them any grievances which they may have arising from this cause. Some managers, it is also reported, have tried suspension, especially in the case of old employees, for breaches of discipline or bad work, but it is doubtful whether suspension is preferred as a penalty to fining.

7. With regard to the introduction of legislation on this subject, I am to say that, after considering the information at his disposal and the views which have been expressed, both by the commercial and labour interests concerned, the Governor in Council is of opinion that it is not necessary at the present time to undertake any legislation of a Truck character at all. The views of the commercial interests are summed up in the following paragraph submitted by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce :—

"It is the considered opinion of the Committee of the Chamber that no legislation of any kind is necessary in connection with the system of fining. They would, indeed, be most strongly opposed to an Act having for its object the total abolition of the system. Nor do they believe that any good purpose would be served by attempting to regulate the practice by legislation. But if the Government of India decide, nevertheless, to legislate, they suggest that the scope of the Act should not extend beyond factories and mines; and that Inspectors of Factories and Inspectors of Mines should enforce its provisions. They are unable to outline what the provisions of the Act should be. But they think that, as was suggested by the English Truck Committee, it might provide that the maximum fine, or accumulation of fines, permissible, should not exceed a certain percentage of the wages of the worker. This proposal is supported by the Indian Jute Mills Association, and it appears to the Committee of the Chamber to be reasonable. They also agree with the Association's recommendation that a notice of fines imposed should be posted in a prominent place in the mill or factory, so as to be readily accessible to the workers. It is also their opinion that fines ought not to be a source of profit to employers, and that they ought not to aggregate such a sum as to be in any way a recovery of the cost of the damage caused by a careless, or inattentive, worker."

From this it will be seen that although the Chamber oppose the introduction of legislation, they are not altogether averse from a general provision to the effect that fines should be limited to a certain percentage of the wages of the worker. Mr. K. C. Ray Chaudhuri is more emphatic than the Bengal Chamber of Commerce. He says:—

"Abolition of fines will not, however, mend matters, and, on the contrary will lead to suspension or dismissal of hands and provide handles to unscrupulous *sirdars* to recruit substitutes and make money. It should be borne in mind that with the exception of certain months, the supply of jute labour exceeds demand. Several hungry applicants hang outside the mill gate for jobs, and the *sirdars* are in the habit of selling jobs to the highest bidder.

"Any Act on the lines of the British Truck Act is out of the question at the present time, as workers are mostly illiterate and are hardly affected by printed notices or written contracts."

8. The experience of the Factory Inspection Department leads to the same conclusion. Indeed, the parallel provisions of the English Truck Acts are in practice observed in this province at the present time. The fines are fair and reasonable, having regard to all the circumstances of the case, and the workmen are personally aware of the system before they enter employment. Fines are rarely imposed on children, *i.e.*, up to 15 years of age, and fines do not exceed 5 per cent. of the employees wages for the month. In some cases also fines are credited to a fund administered solely for the benefit of the workers. On the whole, therefore, there seems to be no case for undertaking legislation at the present moment, even of the general character which would only prescribe a percentage of wages beyond which fines should not go.

The framing of a law to this general effect would, so far as Bengal is concerned, only legalize what is at present the practice. It would, however, materially add to the work of the factories and mines inspection staff, and His Excellency in Council does not look with favour on the addition to the duties of these departments of functions which would not materially benefit the labouring classes. At the present stage of development, the attention of these departments is required for the enforcement of the more vital principles enshrined in the factories and mines legislation. The existing system, moreover, contains in itself the necessary checks against abuse and, in the limited scope in which it is carried on, is suitable to the type of labour, and its organization, employed in this Presidency."

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 572-Com./XL-2, dated the 12th March, 1927.*

The Jharia coalfield constitutes the most important industrial area in Bihar and Orissa. The Chief Inspector of Mines reports that, so far as his information goes (and the same opinion is corroborated by the inspectors subordinate to him), the imposition of fines is not prevalent in the coalfields. When fines are imposed, they are ordinarily a punishment for breaches of discipline. In cases in which it is evident that workmen have broken statutory rules and there is insufficient evidence to support a prosecution in the courts, the Mines Department tacitly acquiesces in the imposition of fines by the employer, and the Chief Inspector states that in such cases it is customary for the employer to credit the fine to some charitable institution, and to send the receipt to the Inspector. The Chief Inspector of Mines observes that owing to the difficulty of retaining labour, mines managers are reluctant to impose fines which might result in the workmen concerned, and other workmen belonging to the same group or coming from the same village, leaving their employment and going elsewhere. Before replying, the Additional Deputy Commissioner of Dhanbad (in the centre of the Jharia coalfield) referred the subject to the Indian Mining Association, the Indian Mining Federation and the Colliery Managers' Association. All these three associations deny that there is any regular or extensive system of fines in the coalfields, applying either to the workmen engaged by the colliery companies or to the labour brought in by the contractors, though occasional deductions from wages are made for bad work or injury to property. The Additional Deputy Commissioner, Mr. Hoernle, who possesses considerable personal experience of conditions in the coalfields, considers that the statements made by these associations fairly represent the facts. Labour employed in the mines is in a strong position, and would be able to contest any excessive or unjustified fining.

2. Outside the coalfields, the chief industrial establishments are the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur, the Peninsula Tobacco factory at Monghyr and the workshops of the East Indian Railway at Jamalpur. The Tata Iron and Steel Company report that, in their works, fines are inflicted only for culpable negligence in the loss of or damage to property, or for the loss of the nickel or bronze tokens which are issued for purposes of identification. Further, they observe that in a manifesto issued some little time ago by the Jamshedpur Labour Committee (of which copies were sent to all members of the Legislative Assembly), no reference of any kind was made to fines or stoppages of pay, though every possible grievance was brought out and ventilated. The general manager of the company adds that if the management were deprived of this simple means of maintaining discipline, they would have no alternative but to resort more freely to the dismissal of unsatisfactory workmen. The Deputy Commissioner of Singhbhum corroborates the statement made by the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and expresses his opinion that the imposition of fines is not abused by employers either in mines or factories in that district.

The Peninsular Tobacco Company at Monghyr has no regular system of fines, though fines are occasionally imposed.

In the workshops of the East Indian Railway at Jamalpur, there is a more or less recognized scale of fines for certain minor offences; for instance, smoking or sleeping in the works, washing at the hydrants, failure to produce train passes, going out without tickets, committing nuisance, etc., is punished by a fine of one day's pay, rising to Rs. 2 according to the gravity of the offence, while loitering in the workshops may be punished with a fine of two days' pay rising to discharge or dismissal. Government understand that the fines that are realized are credited to special funds maintained for the benefit of the workmen, and spent either on entertainment or for helping deserving workmen and their families.

The reports received from other districts all indicate that the imposition of fines is not carried to excess, and is not abused.

3. Local official opinion is almost unanimously opposed to any special legislation being undertaken. In agreement with the Commissioners of each of the five divisions of the province, the local Government are of opinion that, the statutory prohibition of fines is not desirable, and would have unfortunate results for the workmen themselves, while so far as conditions in this province are concerned, no special legislative measures of any kind are required to remedy or prevent abuses in the imposition of fines.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 302-V-26, dated the 2nd March, 1927.*

There are at present no provisions of law in Burma either empowering employers to fine their workmen or prohibiting them from doing so. The matter is therefore one purely of civil contract between the employer and the workmen. Enquiries made by the local Government show that infliction of fines upon workmen in this province does not amount to an abuse which calls for legislation. It appears to the local Government that whatever may be the case in Bombay and in other provinces where textile industries are of importance, the problem of the unjust or oppressive employer is not one which calls for attention in this province in its present state of development. This is probably due to the peculiar circumstances of industry in Burma, and in particular to the fact that labour, most of which has to come from other provinces, is in great demand, and will not come to Burma unless it receives fair treatment. The treatment of certain immigrant coolies by maistries through whom they are employed, is a matter to which the attention of the local Government has, from time to time, been directed, but this cannot be dealt with in legislation affecting the relations between the employer and the workmen in industrial concerns, and is therefore outside the scope of this enquiry.

2. With a view to ascertaining to what extent the practice of fining workmen is prevalent in Burma, particulars have been obtained of fines inflicted in certain industrial establishments. The results of the enquiry have been tabulated in the statement\* attached to this letter. The figures are in most cases the monthly averages for the calendar year 1925, but in a few cases they are for one month only. In the case of rice mills, fines are said to be rarely, if ever, inflicted; and it is said that a warning, followed by dismissal, is the usual means of dealing with unsatisfactory work in such establishments. The statement\* shows that in most cases the percentage of employees fined is very small; and in cases where a considerable proportion of employees are fined, the average fine imposed is unlikely to constitute a serious hardship to the employees. In some cases the fines which are inflicted are credited to a hospital fund or other fund used for the benefit of the workmen. It has not been possible to obtain figures for native mills; but it is reported that fining in such mills is not excessive.

3. The Chief Inspector of Factories, who was consulted on the subject, has reported as follows:—"So far as my enquiries go, fines are inflicted for disciplinary reasons in most of the properly organized factories. It may be said that in a factory where there is proper supervision there are fines, and in the happy go lucky up country places where everyone does what seems good in his own eyes, there are no fines. In place of fines we get irregular time keeping, dirty machines, dangerous methods of work and bad maintenance of guards.

"It is a little difficult to say at times whether a deduction from a man's nominal wage is a fine or not. The usual method of payment in this country is by the month, but this implies the tacit understanding that the man turns up on each working day. If he takes a day off and 1/28th part of his monthly wage is deducted, is this deduction a fine or not? It would be easy to argue either way. A similar problem arises with piecework. Suppose it is agreed to pay a man Rs. 12 a dozen for making say bolts, and that he makes 14 of which two are defective. Is he fined if he only gets Rs. 12 for his work? It is quite certain that the employer when he engaged the man had no intention of paying him for making bad bolts. He offered him the Rs. 12 for making 12 good bolts.

\* Not printed.

" I mention the above cases to show the difficulty of determining when is a fine not a fine, and the abundant literature on the Truck Acts indicates the similar difficulty of determining when a deduction is not a deduction.

" The Officer in Charge of Labour Statistics is putting up a statistical note which he has compiled from returns received from factory managers, but in view of the preceding paragraphs it is possible that some of his fines or deductions may not really be fines or deductions. Still, even so, I think his statements, which I have been permitted to see, indicate that fines and deductions are not an abuse in this country.

" In some cases at least (Burma Oil Company and Burma Railways) fines are credited to the hospital or to the Workmen's Institute, but generally I think firms, copying the example of Government, do not expend fines on any eleemosynary objects.

" My enquiries show that it is fairly common, particularly in printing presses, to dock a man two days' pay for one day's absence. This is not, I think, unreasonable, as it means that a costly machine lies idle while the man is away.

" Small fines for lateness, loss of tools, etc., are fairly common, but I have not come across any cases in which excessive deductions are made. In the small up country mills the feeling between the manager and the workmen is often such as to render any question of fines quite out of place. I know cases when the manager during the off season pays his old workmen if they are unable to obtain other work, and no attempt is made to recover these payments when the mill starts work again.

" I have no information on the subject of deductions made by maistries from their coolies, but there is some reason to believe that these are sometimes excessive. I do not see how the system can be stopped or the administrative machinery by which it could be regulated, without causing serious disturbance to the present system of employing coolies through a maistry.

" While I consider that there is at present no necessity for any legislation on the subject of fines and deductions, I do not think it would be impossible to draft an Act which should prevent fines or deductions ever becoming an abuse in the case of men paid directly by a factory or mine. It would be necessary to define what is meant by a workman's wages, to prohibit any deduction from those wages unless made in accordance with a notice of fines (which might perhaps have to be approved by an inspector) to require that a register showing particulars of all fines inflicted should be maintained and that the total fines inflicted on each individual should be shown in the wages sheet.

" The undoubted difficulty is to define what is meant by wages, and I should much prefer to criticize other peoples' definitions than to make a definition myself."

The local Government is in general agreement with the views expressed by the Chief Inspector.

4. As already stated, the local Government does not consider that there is any necessity at present for legislation on the subject in this province. That being so, it is hardly possible for the local Government to consult the interests concerned as to their attitude with regard to any legislation on the subject which may be proposed. His Excellency in Council considers that the only course is to frame legislation to suit conditions in those provinces where legislation is required. If this were done, the local Government could examine the proposals, in order to determine whether they might be adopted without inconvenience in this province. The local Government agrees with the Chief Inspector of Factories that it should be possible to draft an Act which would prevent fines or deductions becoming an abuse, at any rate, so far as factories and mines are concerned; and it is possible that such an Act might be put in force in this province without inconvenience. This is, however, a matter upon which the local Government would prefer not to express a definite opinion until legislation has been framed and is under consideration.

*Office Memorandum from Railway Department (Railway Board), No. 4414-E., dated the 6th April, 1927.*

The undersigned is directed to forward herewith a summary\* of the views expressed by agents of railways, and to state that the Railway Board support the almost unanimous opinion of the agents that the system of fining cannot be altogether dispensed with on the railways, which have to deal with a very large number of illiterate employees. It is also pointed out that there are checks against any abuse of the system as persons fined can appeal to higher authorities. Legislation to prevent abuses is not therefore necessary so far as railways are concerned. Fines realized are not credited to the railway revenues, but are taken to a fine fund, which is utilized entirely for the benefit of the employees.

\* Not printed.



*Letter from the Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, No. H.Q.-10/60, dated the 8/9th April, 1927.*

The following fines are imposed on the employees of Government of India Presses :—(1) Fine for absence without leave ; (2) fine for making pye ; (3) fine for late attendance ; (4) fine for neglect of duty ; (5) fine for bad work ; (6) fine for disobedience or breach of discipline.

2. Fines under (1), (3) and (6) are credited to the fine funds constituted in the presses, while pye fines and special fines for bad or careless work, entailing direct loss or extra expenditure to the employer are rightly credited to Government.

3. The system of fining in Government Presses has not assumed such a proportion as would constitute it an evil, neither does it inflict unnecessary hardship on the employees. The figures in paragraph 5 below show the total amount realized over the whole year in fines is less than 2,000 on 6½ lakhs paid in wages (supervising staff excluded).

4. The fine fund was introduced by the Government of India in 1920, and the question of fines came under review of the Piece-workers Committee in 1922. Their recommendation reads :—

“ Provided that the system of fines at present in force is worked in the existing lenient manner, we cannot advise that the Press authorities should be deprived of this method of maintaining discipline. We must add that the money received by fines is not credited to Government. The proceeds from fines are being funded with the object of creating a compassionate fund for the benefit of Press employees and their families.”

5. That the system of fines is administered more leniently, as far as the Calcutta Press is concerned, than it was when the above was written, the following figures will show :—

	1922.		1926.	
	Credited to Government.	Credited to Fine Fund.	Credited to Government.	Credited to Fine Fund.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
	1,316	2,580	881	1,093
Total ..	3,896		1,974	

There are over 1,000 men employed in the Calcutta Press so that the total amount of the fines inflicted in 1926 works out on the average to less than Rs. 2 per head for the whole year, of which a sum in excess of Re. 1 per head was returned to the men by way of the fine fund for the purpose of immediate relief in cases of distress amongst the employees and their families.

6. The effect of abolishing fines in the Government of India Presses would be to encourage, especially under the piece system, careless and inefficient work with consequent substantial loss to Government. I am, therefore, not in favour of total abolition.

7. In the Calcutta and Simla Presses during the periods when they were under my charge, every recommendation for a fine came under the review of the manager, and as he only sanctioned the fine and fixed the amount, no man was actually fined until it was found that several warnings were ineffective, with the consequent reduction in the amount realized by fines.

8. In the Government of India Presses the men have an additional safeguard against hardship in the infliction of fines or unnecessary fining by the management, inasmuch as they have the right of appeal to the Controller and to the Government of India. Any grievance or injustice inflicted can also be brought to notice and discussed in the works committee. It may be asserted, therefore, that the Government Press employee is sufficiently protected from abuse of the system of fining by the conditions of his employment and by the rules, etc., already in force.

*Letter from the Controller of the Currency, No. Cy.-508, dated the 16th March, 1927.*

I have the honour to state that so far as the departments under my control are concerned, fines are in most cases levied on well-defined and automatic principles and are not therefore, liable to abuse. In Currency Offices, fines are imposed in accordance with Articles 40, 131 and 145 of the Currency Code for bad and negligent work. The men affected are literate and most of them are members of associations recognized by Government and can ventilate their grievances through those bodies. As regards Mints, fines are inflicted mainly for late attendance, and to a small extent for bad work, breach of rules, etc., under rules laid down in Mint Codes or standing orders which are known to the men.

2. In practice very few fines are imposed, and no complaints have been received so far in individual cases. The men have the right of appeal to Deputy Controllers of the Currency or Mint Masters, as the case may be, or even to the Controller of the Currency. For routine and mechanical work like that of currency offices and mints, fines have a salutary effect and act as a deterrent to careless work, breach of discipline, etc. In the mints especially, which have a short working day, it is necessary to ensure punctuality which can best be done by imposing a penalty in the shape of a fine for being late.

3. The employees themselves prefer this form of punishment to the more drastic alternative of a postponement of increment.

4. For these reasons I am not in favour of abolishing fines, and I do not consider that any special measures are necessary to remedy abuses of the system so far as the departments under my control are concerned.

*Office Memorandum from the Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, C. No. 77-Gl./27, dated the 17th March, 1927.*

The Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, is directed to forward a copy of each of the letters noted below, which furnish the information required, regarding the levy of fines on workmen, etc., in (certain) departments under the administrative control of the Board. The Board considers that the present system of imposing fines should continue, and that so far as Government employees are concerned no legislation to regulate it is necessary.

(1) Letter from the Master, Security Printing, India, No. 52/27-4703, dated 16th February, 1927.

(2) Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Bombay, No. 105-28/26, dated the 18th February, 1927.

(3) Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras, No. D.-357-Salt/27, dated 7th March, 1927.

(4) Letter from the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue Department, No. 54-Gl./27, dated the 15th March, 1927.

*Letter from the Master, Security Printing, India, to the Secretary, Central Board of Revenue, No. 52/27-4703, dated the 16th February, 1927.*

I have the honour to inform you that no general system of imposing fines on labour exists in Security Printing. In one section, that of postcard counting, where the counters are paid by piece-work per tray (5 reams) of cards, a system is in force whereby a mistake detected in the counting of a tray cancels the payment due for it. This, however, can scarcely be termed a fine, as it merely means that the worker is only paid for accurate counting.

2. In rare cases, fines are imposed under my orders for careless mistakes made in the checking, etc., of other products where the introduction of piece-work is not possible. In one (or two) cases also, employees have been fined in order to make good the value of products found to be deficient.

3. I am strongly of opinion that the practice should continue, the only alternative punishments in such cases being reduction in pay or dismissal. I also consider that no regulation by law is necessary or desirable.

*Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Bombay, No. 105-28/26, dated the 18th February, 1927.*

I have the honour to state that the system of imposing fines on labour does not prevail in the Bombay Salt Department. At the Government salt works at Khara-goda and Dharasna and Chharvada, the agarias receive wages at a certain fixed price per maund of salt produced by them and delivered or sold. No deduction is made therefrom.

*Letter from the Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras, D. No. 357-Salt of 1927, dated the 7th March, 1927.*

The system of imposing fines exists in this department only to a limited extent. Fines are inflicted on permanent petty officers and peons, whose pay ranges from Rs. 12 to Rs. 25 per mensem, up to a maximum of Rs. 3, according to the rules laid down in paragraph 792, Salt Manual, Volume II, for breaches of discipline, when black marks are ineffective. Temporary peons and platform coolies of factories are also fined small amounts for similar offences, as the black mark rules do not apply to them being daily labourers. Workmen of the Madras Depot Workshop (mechanics

and coolies) in number about 20, are also occasionally fined both for slack work and breaches of discipline. The total amount of fines realized from 1st April, 1926, up to date in the Madras Depot Workshop is only Rs. 5. The local officers report that the 5 per cent. limit of pay suggested by the English Truck Committee of 1906-08 has rarely been exceeded.

There is little fear of abuse of the system of fining for the following reasons:— Firstly, the maximum amount of fines has been fixed, and those who are so punished have the right of appeal to a higher authority. Secondly, the power to inflict fines is only vested in gazetted officers who can be trusted to use the power with wise discretion. Finally, orders have recently been issued to substitute extra fatigue duty instead of fines for petty offences as far as possible. In these circumstances I do not consider that there is any necessity to abolish the system.

*Letter from the Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, No. 54-Gl.27, dated the 15th March, 1927.*

I have the honour to report that in the Salt Range Division of this Department a system of imposing fines on labour prevails, regulated in the case of persons other than Government servants or daily labourers by Rules 18 and 21 of the Mining Rules, which run as follows:—

“The manager (assistant commissioner) of a mine or quarry may punish any person (other than a daily labourer) employed in such mine or quarry above or below ground and not being a Government servant against whom any breach of these rules or of any standing orders or any carelessness or misconduct in connection with his work may be established with—(a) a fine not exceeding Rs. 5 for every such offence, (b) (other alternative follow).

Under Rule 19 an appeal lies to the general manager. Rule 21 runs:—

“The general manager of salt mines may punish any miner or other person not being a Government servant employed in or in connection with any mine or quarry in the division for misconduct, breach of any of these rules or disobedience of lawful authority by a fine which may amount to Rs. 50 or by removal or dismissal from employment.”

Under Rule 22 an appeal lies to the Commissioner.

2. I attach a copy of a note\* by the General Manager, Khewra, on the working of the system. Fines at Khewra and Warcha average Rs. 75 a month or about 0.34 per cent. on the wage bill, are credited to a divisional “fine and pension fund” and utilized with the advice of the miners’ committee on relieving distress among widows and orphans, men incapacitated from work by accident or old age, etc. Under the Rules for the Management of the Salt Range Division Fine and Pension Fund levied (without specific rules in regard to this levy) from a long list of employees on construction and upkeep, carriage of salt, mine inspection and sanitation and in the depot, are also credited to the fund, in the benefits of which they share.

3. There are no specific orders regarding fines on classes of labour other than those mentioned in the mining rules and the notes received from the various divisions are incomplete in their information, while no time remains in which to have the gaps supplied.

4. The Departmental Manual contains rules empowering the various grades of officers to fine for misconduct the inferior permanent establishment subordinate to them—general managers and assistant commissioners up to a limit of Rs. 5 for any one offence, superintendents up to Rs. 2, and inspectors up to Re. 1, and I understand from Mr. Reid that in Khewra, the assistant commissioner, mine, and the engineer, fine by analogy the labour under them up to a limit of Rs. 5, and the superintendent depot, up to a limit of Rs. 2. In Rajputana, most works are done by contract and the occasions for fining labour are few. In the Sambhar Workshop, fines are imposed for neglect of duty, loss of or damage (other than accidental) to tools, etc., apparently on the same scale as in Khewra.

5. No contracts are made with labourers and no maximum fine or accumulation of fines is prescribed.

6. So far as this department is concerned, I would on no account abolish fines. All that seems required is by executive order to define exactly in the case of labour other than that covered by the mining rules, the officers who may fine with the limit of their powers, the employees whom they may fine, the faults for which fine may be awarded and the maximum fine permissible in a given period. Except in Khewra, where conditions permit of this, it appears impossible to arrange for the utilization of fines for the benefit of the workers.

*Letter from the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, No. 79-G.127, dated the 22nd April, 1927.*

The deductions in respect of fines for breaches of discipline are regulated by well defined rules which fulfil the provisions of the Truck Acts. According to these rules the following are exempt from fines:—(a) all postal officials who do purely clerical work; (b) those postal operatives who have passed the second efficiency bar in the clerical time-scale; (c) telegraph officials of the ministerial establishment; (d) those drawing Rs. 100 and upwards.

2. In other cases, the rules authorize the imposition of fines only in cases of perverse or repeated neglect. Each case is required to be carefully considered, and any attempt at abuse of the power is discouraged. Every order of punishment (including fine) has invariably to be in writing after the explanation of the official has been obtained on a written memorandum of charges. A statement of punishment (including fines) is submitted monthly to the Head of the Circle, who is thus in a position to check any tendency on the part of his officers to abuse the power of inflicting fines. The staff have the right of appeal to higher authority, and are consequently well protected against harsh or unjust treatment. Lastly, fines are limited on the postal side to a week's pay in a month, or roughly speaking, 25 per cent. of the monthly earnings of a worker, and on the telegraph side to 10 per cent. Incidentally, I propose to look into this difference of practice in the postal and the telegraph branches.

3. The efficacy of the safeguards provided against abuse is apparent from the figures for the last year. The total number of postal operatives serving in Calcutta during the past year numbered some 2,700, exclusive of the staff employed in the Calcutta Sorting Division. Their annual earnings in wages amounted to above Rs. 20,63,000. The amount of fines imposed and realized from these earnings was only Rs. 323-10 annas. The recovery works out at less than 2 annas a head per annum. In the case of the Calcutta Sorting Division the relative figures are—wages Rs. 4,76,000, fines Rs. 12-8 annas, and the incidence 1/3rd anna per head per annum.

4. I feel rather sceptical about the view that discipline can best be maintained by "adequate supervision" and "moral control" with the "alternative of dismissal as the last resort." Adequate supervision is rather a vague expression, moral control cannot always be exercised, while dismissal is far too drastic. Some form of coercion is necessary to make the employee work diligently. It is the day to day pressure that counts. Where officials are in the enjoyment of a time-scale of pay, stoppage of increment for varying periods according to the circumstances of the case is often a good substitute for fining. This course has the additional advantage of restricting the pay of the defaulter to his worth. But for low paid employees generally, I consider that *with proper safeguards*, the system of fining for disciplinary purposes is a very suitable form of punishment. The workers themselves, I believe, prefer small occasional fines to stoppage of increment, degradation or dismissal.

5. The second form of deduction from wages as classified by the English law presents a far more serious and perplexing problem. An employer who sustains loss by the bad or negligent work of his employee naturally seeks to take, and feels justified in taking, such a measure against the delinquent as will not only act as a strong deterrent, but also yield to him some recompense for the loss. It is difficult to persuade an employer to treat such loss as an ordinary breach of discipline.

6. So far as this department is concerned, the loss or damage caused to Government due to bad or negligent work, arises chiefly out of the loss or theft of insured articles, short realization on account of value payable charges and customs duties, mispayment of telegraphic money orders, refund of the cost of telegrams, etc. In all these cases when dealing with the individual to blame for the loss, his capacity to pay is taken into account. Every official who joins this department, and who is expected to handle cash, is required to furnish a security bond in which it is clearly laid down that he is required to make good up to a certain amount any losses that may occur as a result of his neglect, default, omission, dishonesty or disobedience. The employees are thus fully aware of the system on which such deductions are based in this department, and the provisions of the Truck Acts in this respect are observed.

7. Nevertheless, heavy recoveries to the full extent of the loss sustained are not infrequently ordered, which are not always either fair or reasonable. For example, an act or omission involving the same degree of negligence or disobedience of the same rule may result in the loss of an insured letter for Rs. 100 or for Rs. 1,000; yet in actual practice the officials concerned in the two cases have to make good Rs. 100 and Rs. 1,000 respectively. On the other hand, if this principle is departed from and recoveries are made proportionate to the degree of negligence involved, which is in itself a very baffling equation, there is always the danger that losses may be very heavy, and the department would have no remedy except to dismiss the official. The officials themselves more often prefer to make good the loss, heavy though it may be, than be removed from the service.

8. It has been suggested that recovery in such a case should be limited to the maximum of the security given by the official at fault. I propose to pursue this suggestion specially in respect of insured articles, where the loss is covered by the insurance fees.

9. The third form of deduction from wages does not enter into the question so far as my Department is concerned, as all equipment for work is provided free.

*Letter from the Government of United Provinces, No. 815, dated the 9th May, 1927.*

This Government has consulted the two Chambers of Commerce, the Mazdur Sabha of Cawnpore, the Director and the Board of Industries, the Chief Inspector of Factories and representative employers of industrial labour of various kinds in different localities. The opinions received are divided. Some of the more important views are summarized below.

2. The Upper India Chamber strongly protest against the volume of factory legislation, and what they describe as an increasing tendency on the part of the Government of India to improve the conditions and class-power of labour at the expense of the employer. They state that the system of inflicting fines upon workmen is common in factories, as it is in every other sphere of life where it is necessary to punish an employee with something more than an admonition or censure, and something less than suspension or dismissal. They deny that an employer levying a fine acts both as prosecutor and judge. In most factories the fine is said to be leviable only by somebody in authority upon due complaint and proof, and the prosecuting individual is not the judge. They admit that workmen in this country are ignorant and without the protection of labour unions. But these factors, they affirm, tell against the employer more than against the workman. Owing to ignorance, the workman takes no pride in his work, and does as little as he can. His ignorance and inadaptability cause loss to the employer in tools, machinery and material, and make it necessary for his employer to adopt methods in dealing with him which will seldom be necessary in most other countries. All the manufacturing members of the Chamber agree that the abolition of the system of levying fines, when deserved, is impossible.

3. The Chamber state that many factories already regulate the imposition of fines, and that the maximum number of persons fined is not greater than three per cent. of those employed. They classify fines as follows:—(a) *Disciplinary*—inflicted for disobedience of orders, lateness or absence, uncleanness or breach of sanitary rules, and quarrelling or fighting; (b) *Compensatory*—viz., deductions for damage done to tools, machinery and material. These deductions amount, perhaps, it is said, to four annas per hundred rupees of the wages earned, except in some textile mills, where the practice has been introduced recently of making the weaver buy the cloth he spoils. Such cases are claimed not to exceed 1 per cent. of the men employed nor to represent more than 10 per cent. of the offender's earnings.

Disciplinary fines and sometimes even compensatory deductions are said to be usually credited to a fund for the benefit of the workmen, e.g., for recreation or medical attendance.

4. The Chamber protest against the suggestion that the restriction of fines, if enforced, may have to be confined to factories and mines where the presence of Government inspectors will make enforcement possible. They say that if legislation is decided on, the Government should set the example by controlling fines in their own departments and on the railways and in municipal offices. They also argue that in India, where the supply of factory labour falls short of the demand, an employer cannot afford to substitute dismissal for fining.

5. The United Provinces Chamber consider that the system of fining is worked in this province "with great discrimination and moderation." An employer resorts to fines as a deterrent and not as a source of profit to himself. The Chamber also consider that the workman's ignorance, inefficiency and defective sense of responsibility furnish an additional reason for maintaining the system of fines. They, too, are opposed to legislation.

6. The Mazdur Sabha of Cawnpore, on the other hand, strongly favours legislation. It is unable to make any definite suggestions, except that fines in respect of damaged work must be stopped, and damage to work should be treated as a breach of discipline. It would also limit the fines which can be imposed in a definite period. I am to point out, however, that this Sabha is as yet hardly representative of the labouring class of this province generally.

7. The Industrial and Trade Association of Benares advocate that the power of fining workmen for negligent work should not be withdrawn, but advise that fines should go towards the workmen's welfare.

8. The Chairman of the Cawnpore Improvement Trust (Rai Bahadur Babu Anand Sarup, a well-known public man) believes that the practice of fining is generally abused by employers (barring a few honourable exceptions like the Muir Mills) and results in much hardship to the workmen. He considers that though it is neither possible nor desirable to abolish fines, as some check on indolence, indiscipline and bad work is necessary, there is a clear necessity to regulate them.

9. The inquiries made by this Government show that the practice of fining workmen is general in this province. It takes the following forms:—(a) *Disciplinary fines*—for disobedience of orders, being late or absent, breach of sanitary rules, disorderly conduct, etc.; (b) *Compensatory deductions*—for damage to goods, machinery or tools; (c) *Compulsory purchase* by a weaver of cloth spoiled by him. It is reported by the Chief Inspector of Factories that the percentage of workmen affected varies from one to twenty, and the price paid from 5 to 10 per cent. of the wages earned. He adds that he has received no complaints on this score, and the workmen prefer taking the cloth to being fined or dismissed.

10. There is no indication, however, that the practice is abused, except perhaps by some of the smaller manufacturers whose employees are not villagers (e.g., the wire workers of Benares and the metal workers of Moradabad). No complaints have come to the notice of the Government that workmen employed by the larger mills—to whom admittedly legislation would have to be confined, at least in the first instance—are unjustly treated. If there had been any serious abuse it would have certainly come to the notice of the Government in connection with the strikes that have from time to time occurred. Moreover, in a province like the United Province, where most of the factory hands are drawn from the agricultural classes, the problem of the larger employer has always been to get and to keep his labour, and this operates as an effective check on any tendency to excessive or unjust fines. Further, most of the larger firms, at any rate, do not make any profit out of the fines, but employ them for the benefit of the operatives themselves in various ways.

11. The Governor in Council sees little or no evidence that industrial operatives in the larger factories of the United Provinces are fined harshly. He knows of no good reason for recommending that the employer should be legally debarred from fining undisciplined or defaulting or destructive workers (who often earn Rs. 30 a month) more than Rs. 1-8 annas per month. He has received no complaints from the workmen, and thinks that the time is not ripe and no real necessity exists in this province for any legislative action. Moreover, the Indian Trade Unions Act, which will come into force on 1st June, 1927, will stiffen the attitude of the employees, and make it still more difficult to treat them unfairly. If the Government of India nevertheless decide to legislate, they will, it is hoped, give provincial Governments the power to determine what provisions of the new law should be applied to their provinces.

*Office Memorandum from the Army Department, No. 33812/2 (A.D.), dated the 8th June, 1927.*

The undersigned is directed to forward the undermentioned copies of correspondence \* which show the present rules and practice as regards the imposition of fines on workmen, etc., employed in the various ancillary services of the Army in India. On an examination of these papers the Army Department have come to the conclusion that, so far as they are concerned, there are no abuses which need to be checked, and that no executive or legislative action is therefore necessary from their point of view.

. . . . .

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, General Department, No. 5773/D., dated the 29th September, 1927.*

I am directed to forward (1) a copy of a \* Report on an Enquiry into Fines conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay; (2) \* copies of the replies received from officers and interested Associations who were consulted on the question and (3) a detailed \* summary of those replies classified according to the points treated together with the views of the Bombay Labour Office.

2. A summary of the results of the Enquiry was forwarded with relevant papers to 25 officers and interested associations in the Bombay Presidency for opinions on the various questions raised in your letter under reply, and on the points arising out of the enquiry. An examination of the replies received shows that all Employers' Associations are of opinion that no legislative action for the control of fines

is necessary. The majority of the Employers' Associations have confined themselves to the expression of the opinion that the results of the Labour Office Enquiry do not show that the conditions are such as would justify legislative action. Representatives of labour, on the other hand, are of opinion that the results of the Enquiry show that legislative action is necessary. The Bombay European Textile Association, which is composed of European mill managers and European textile departmental masters, does not give a definite opinion on the question of the necessity of legislation though it seems to imply that legislation is necessary. The agent of the G.I.P. Railway has forwarded his views direct to the Railway Board. The agent of the B., B. and C.I. Railway does not consider legislative action necessary in the case of railways. The Commissioner, Bombay Municipality, and Chief Officer, Bombay Improvement Trust, favour legislation. The Karachi Chamber of Commerce qualifies its disapproval of legislative action by recommending that, under the rules of the Factories Act, it should be made compulsory for all factories to keep a record of fines with the reasons for their infliction, and an account of the disposal of the money so collected, which should be available for inspection by factory inspectors.

3. The Officer-in-Charge of the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay is not in favour of the abolition of fines, but considers that legislative action for the control of fines is desirable. The Governor in Council is in general agreement with the views of the Labour Office, and considers that legislation may be necessary on the following points:—(1) Extent to which fines may be inflicted; (2) Disposal of fines; (3) Power to fine; (4) Maintenance of Registers of fines; (5) Fines for bad and negligent work; (6) Fines for breaches of discipline; (7) Withholding of wages; (8) Forfeiture of wages; (9) Compulsory purchase of damaged material; (10) The "Double Khada" rule; (11) Deductions for supply of medicines and medical attendance; (12) Deductions for the use of reading rooms and libraries; (13) Deductions for education; (14) Deductions for compulsory contributions to charity; (15) The Havala system; (16) Conditions under which fines may be inflicted; (17) Supply of particulars to workers who are fined; (18) Suspension and (19) Dismissal.

*Views of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence (Labour Office),  
Government of Bombay.*

*Principle of Fines.*—The evidence submitted to the Truck Committee shows that it is not possible to abolish fining in all classes of industries, and that it is possible only in concerns where the workers possess a high level of education and where the labour turnover is not high. In Indian industry the workers are illiterate and migratory in character and it does not, therefore, seem possible to abolish fines. Besides, it is important that a certain amount of latitude should be left to the employer as regards the method of maintaining discipline and efficiency. If fines are abolished, suspensions and dismissals would be the only punishments left and they may be quite unsuitable in cases of offences of a minor character. It is recommended, therefore, that the law should not prohibit fines but only aim at their regulation and control.

*Fines for Breaches of Discipline.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that in those establishments which supplied correctly classified information the incidence of fining for breaches of discipline worked out at 4 annas and 7 pies per offence for men, and at 2 annas and 11 pies per offence for women, in 45 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency; and at 12 annas and 5 pies per offence for men in 25 factories other than textile mills. These figures for purely disciplinary fines, especially in the case of factories other than textile mills, appear rather high when compared with the incidence of fines given in the evidence submitted before the Truck Committee. The evidence collected by the investigators of the Labour Office by personal investigations shows that there have been several cases where unreasonable deductions in respect of fines for offences classed as "breaches of discipline" have been made. In one case a worker was fined Rs. 5 for taking his brother into a weaving shed without permission, and in another case a fine of Rs. 3 was inflicted for failure to deliver a message from one officer to another regarding the former's inability to go to the latter's house in the evening. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office further showed that, with the exception of a very few cases, no lists giving the specific offences for which fines may be inflicted are to be found in the concerns which fine. In the few cases where rules have been made for fining, the rules generally provide that fines may be inflicted for "breaches of discipline," "disobedience," "insubordination," etc. These terms are much too wide and leave an unlimited amount of discretion in the hands of the officers authorized to fine. It appears necessary that employers should notify to their workmen the particular offences for which fines will be inflicted.

*Fines for Bad and Negligent Work.*—The incidence of fining for bad and negligent work in those concerns in the Bombay Presidency which supplied properly classified figures, works out at 3 annas 10 pies per offence for men, and 2 annas 8 pies per offence for women, in 45 textile mills; and at Rs. 1-10-6 pies per offence for men in 25 factories other than textile mills. The average for textile mills given above does not include the loss to the worker for the compulsory purchase of damaged cloth.

The enquiry conducted by the Labour Office did not make any attempt to ascertain the principles on which fines for bad and negligent work are inflicted. Personal investigations subsequently made into this practice have, however, revealed the existence of considerable abuses. It has been found that fines in the weaving department are inflicted without ascertaining whether the fault or damage complained of is due to the carelessness or negligence of the worker concerned or to defective machinery or faulty material. Many instances were given where workers had been penalized for material spoil as a result of bad yarn or defective looms, and where no attempts had been made to ascertain the extent of the carelessness or negligence of the workers concerned. In the Ahmedabad mills, the duty of examining material is entrusted to cut-lookers, and in many cases, to the detectors, whose earnings depend on the amounts which they are able to collect in fines. It is obvious that apart from the question of the actual amounts of fines inflicted in individual cases, the system of inflicting fines for bad or negligent work by "detectors" without thorough investigation with regard to the placing of the responsibility for the damage complained of, must give rise not only to abuse in practice, but also to considerable injustice to the workers concerned.

In considering the question of the manner in which fines for bad or negligent work should be controlled, it is as necessary to protect the employer from careless and slipshod work as it is to safeguard the worker from unfair and unjust penalties. With regard to the quality of work which an employer has a right to demand from his workman, the employer will always have the power to warn and dismiss those workers who are habitually negligent. He can also enforce efficiency by suspension. It may be necessary for the employer in order to get good work from his employees to resort to small punishments, in the shape of fines, and it is, therefore, recommended that this right of the employer should not be interfered with provided it is exercised in a just and reasonable manner.

*Fines for Damage to or Loss of Property.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that in the 45 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency which supplied correctly classified figures for the different kinds of fines inflicted, the incidence of fines for loss of and injury or damage to materials, tools, machinery or plant belonging to the employer amounted to 6 annas and 1 pie in the case of men, and 3 annas and 4 pies in the case of women. In the case of the 25 factories other than textile mills which gave correctly classified information, the average incidence of fines on this account works out at Rs. 1-1-3 pies for men. Here again, no data are available with regard to the extent to which such fines are inflicted in individual cases, but during the personal investigations made by the Labour Office a few instances of unjustifiable fines were revealed. However, it appears that in cases where damage or loss results through negligence some punishment in the nature of a fine is necessary.

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

If the results of the Labour Office enquiry in connection with this subject are analyzed there does not appear to be any necessity for dealing with this question in any legislation which may be provided for the control of fines and deductions.

*Deductions in respect of Rents for Housing provided by Employers.*—There is no evidence to suggest that workers are unjustly treated as regards deductions for rent for housing provided by the employer. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office with regard to welfare work in the Bombay Presidency showed that in most cases rent is charged at rates below the economic rent. As it is desirable to encourage employers to provide good housing accommodation for their employees, it is recommended that no action should be taken as regard deductions for rent.

*Deductions for Supply of Medicines and Medical Attendance.*—The majority of the employers who provide medicines and medical attendance for their employees do not charge their workers on this account. A few textile mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad did, however, report that deductions are made from wages for the supply of medicines and medical attendance. It is considered that the employers



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

*Deductions for Supply of Food Grains.*—In most cases where deductions are made from wages on account of the supply of food grains, such deductions are for sales from the cheap grain shops attached to the establishments concerned. In the case of a few mills at Sholapur, a deduction is made from the wages in lieu of grain which is given to the worker. The market price of this grain is greater than the amount of the deduction, so the system is really to the advantage of the worker. There is no evidence to show that the system of deductions for cheap grain has anywhere led to abuse. What little evidence there is on the subject shows that the system is of great benefit to the workers, so it appears unnecessary to interfere with the practice by legislative action.

*Deductions for Supply of Water.*—Deductions for the supply of water are made only in those cases where certain castes require special facilities. Where the employer provides these he incurs the expenditure and recovers the same from the wages of his employees. If some workers are not prepared to take advantage of the normal facilities provided for all the workers, they should pay for special facilities themselves. No legislative action, therefore, appears necessary in this connection.

*Deductions for Contributions to Provident Funds.*—The Labour Office enquiry shows that deductions for provident funds are generally confined to Government organizations, public utility concerns and the larger non-factory establishments, such as the Port Trust, and are found only in very few private factories and establishments. The contributions are voluntary in the majority of concerns having provident fund schemes. Compulsory deductions are made only in a few cases. It appears, therefore, that deductions on this account do not constitute an evil which the law should try to eradicate.

*Deductions for the use of Reading Rooms and Libraries.*—It is recommended that deductions for the use of reading rooms and libraries provided by the employer should not be permitted, but the workers should be free to contribute to any fund started by themselves or the employer for the maintenance of reading rooms and libraries.

*Deductions for Education.*—It is recommended that deductions for educational facilities provided by the employer should be permitted only if such deductions form part of the contract of service.

*Deductions for Compulsory Contributions to Charity.*—Seven textile mills in the Bombay Presidency reported deductions amounting to Rs. 4,138-2-9 pies from the wages of their employees during the first ten months of the year 1926 on account of compulsory contributions for charitable purposes. Two other factories also reported similar deductions amounting to Rs. 210-15 annas during the year 1925. Although this system does not prevail to any appreciable extent in the Bombay Presidency, the fact that it exists is sufficient to merit consideration. It will be admitted that an employer has no right to compel his employees to contribute to charities of his own choosing and to make deductions from their wages for this purpose. It is recommended that compulsory deductions of this nature should not be permitted.

*Deductions for Entertainments provided by Employer.*—This subject was not included in the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office, but a few mills and factories reported deductions from wages on account of entertainments provided by the employer. Personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that in several mills, jobbers stage-manage dramatic and other performances and compel the workers to attend and force them to pay. The grievance of the workers is against these compulsory levies by the jobbers rather than against the employers. The rules of several of the mills prohibit monetary transactions among the employees and the remedy in such cases lies, therefore, in the hands of the workers, who can report such cases to the management. Cases of deduction for entertainments by employers themselves are so rare that it does not appear necessary for the law to intervene in this matter.

*Suspension.*—Suspension is practised side by side with the system of fining or as the only system of punishment where the nature of the offence committed does not justify dismissal. The results of the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office show that this form of punishment is general in Municipalities and in Government establishments. A few of the larger workshops stated that they do not inflict fines at all and only punish offenders by suspending them from work for some days. This form of punishment is also found to exist in railways, other public utility companies, and some of the larger non-factory organizations in addition to a few concerns in each of the other groups covered by the enquiry.

It may be said in favour of this form of punishment that the employer does not benefit by suspending an employee from work, except perhaps in cases where workers are suspended ostensibly for committing some offence but really because the employer

has not sufficient work for them. There is no unanimity as regards the merits or demerits of suspension. Some labour interests actually prefer it to fines. Others are of opinion that fining is preferable to suspension, because suspension not only deprives the workers of a substantial part of their earnings, but also affects them physically and morally owing to enforced idleness. In some employments, the power of suspension is considered to be essential in cases where breaches of discipline have resulted in accidents or actions endangering the lives of other employees or members of the public during the period of an enquiry into the offence. In the evidence tendered before the Truck Committee, this was stated to be particularly necessary in the case of railways, mines and hydro-electric concerns. Employers in Great Britain who have abandoned fining in their establishments are of opinion that suspension is preferable to fining for habitual offenders. Other employers state that it is not always feasible to suspend the more skilled workers because by so doing they are deprived of their services.

It seems necessary that employers should be allowed to retain the power of suspension in cases where the infliction of small fines has not had a deterrent effect, and where the offence at the same time does not merit dismissal. It is recommended that the employer's right to suspend employees should be recognized in any legislation that may be devised. It should also be provided that all the concerns covered by the Act should maintain registers of suspensions giving full particulars regarding the cause and the period of suspension and the loss in wages for the period covered. This register should be opened to inspection by the inspecting authorities under the Act. Provision for the maintenance of such registers would effectively control this form of punishment. It might also be desirable to prescribe that in all cases where workers are suspended, the workers should be given notification slips containing full particulars of the punishment.

*Dismissal.*—It is recommended that there should be no interference on the part of the State with the right of the employer to dismiss his workmen. At the same time in order to obviate harsh or arbitrary dismissals there should be some provision to safeguard the interests of labour. This could be achieved if it is provided that a register of dismissals should be maintained in each concern, and that every dismissed employee should be given a notification slip with the reasons for his dismissal.

*Compulsory Purchase of Damaged Material.*—The practice of compelling a worker to take over an article or material spoilt or damaged during manufacture and of deducting its cost from his wages exists in several textile mills in the Bombay Presidency. Out of the 144 textile mills which furnished information for the Labour Office enquiry, 84 mills or 58·3 per cent. reported that this practice was followed. Eleven mills stated that they had abolished it with effect from November, 1926. There are only a few factories and concerns outside the textile industry which follow the practice.

Out of the 84 textile mills which insist on the compulsory purchase of damaged material, only 46 mills gave figures both for the amounts deducted on this account and the number of cases. A few other mills gave only the amounts of deductions without giving the number of instances. The statistics for the 46 mills which supplied full information show that the total deductions during the first 10 months of the year 1926 in respect of damaged or spoilt material handed over to the workers concerned amounted to Rs. 1,60,326-5-4 pies, recovered in 50,981 instances. The average incidence per deduction works out at Rs. 3-2-4 pies.

This practice has often given rise to considerable industrial unrest. Since the 1st January, 1925, there have been altogether 11 industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency in connection with deductions on account of bad and negligent work and the compulsory purchase of spoilt and damaged material. Out of these 11 disputes, 8 were directly concerned with the giving of damaged cloth in lieu of wages. Workers' associations and other labour interests have been unanimous in condemning this system and the feeling among the majority of the workers who were personally interrogated regarding this matter was emphatically in favour of abolishing this practice. There is, however, a small body of workers who favour its continuance. Some of them stated that they liked this practice because it afforded them opportunities to spoil cloth purposely which they desired to obtain at manufacturer's wholesale prices.

Several workers who have been punished in this way considered that they had been unjustly penalized for damage caused by reasons which were beyond their control. The Indian weaver is usually not in a position to state whether he was actually responsible for the damage for which he is punished. Conversations with a few of the more intelligent weavers showed that in most cases the employer makes no effort to ascertain whether the defect is due entirely to the negligence of the worker.

It is urged that the employees who are given the spoilt material have no difficulty in selling it, and that in cases where they are not able to sell it they use the cloth themselves. This may be partly true, but the evidence of the workers themselves

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goes to show that in many cases they experience the greatest difficulty in disposing of the material that has been thrust upon them, and this is especially the case as regards the kinds of cloth for which there is no local demand. The weaver, owing to his limited resources, is anxious to realize the value of the damaged cloth as soon as possible and is, therefore, forced to sell it for whatever price he can get. In most cases the price obtained is considerably below the actual "cut" effected from the weaver's wages. In many cases the worker is forced to retain cloth for which he cannot get a satisfactory price although he does not require it for his own use.

It is clear that the practice of handing over spoilt material to the worker leads to many abuses. While it may cause hardship to the worker in individual cases it does not necessarily always act as a deterrent, as the worker may sometimes be able to dispose of the damaged material at a price equal to, or more than the amount deducted from his wages, and thereby escape punishment altogether. This practice thus appears to be objectionable from the employers' as well as from the employees' point of view, and it is, therefore, recommended that it should be prohibited, but the imposition of a reasonable fine for bad or negligent work which causes damage to the material should be allowed.

*The "Double Khada" Rule.*—The rules of almost all the mills in Bombay City provide for a cut of two days' wages for each day's absence without leave, but the rule is not enforced. A similar rule also exists in the textile mills in Ahmedabad, Sholapur, and other centres and in various factories and concerns in different parts of the Bombay Presidency, but it is strictly observed only in some of the Sholapur cotton mills. This rule is popularly known as "The Double Khada Rule." This practice of cutting two days' wages for one day's absence without leave, though not very prevalent, is objectionable. In a country like India, where the conditions of the workers are not conducive to a healthy and regular life, it is considered that cases of absence without leave should not be dealt with so harshly. The employer should, of course, have the right to inflict a fine in order to enforce discipline and ensure punctuality, but the system of cutting two days' wages for one day's absence without leave should not be permitted.

*Withholding of Wages.*—The Labour Office enquiry did not include this question, but personal enquiries show that several mills and factories often withhold wages for different periods as a punishment for offences. In most cases wages are withheld for absence without leave for three days or more. In view of the fact that the payment of wages in the case of monthly workers is generally made a fortnight after they fall due, the economic position of a worker must be considerably worsened if the payment of the wages which are due to him is still further delayed by a week or more. The danger of this practice is that it often throws the worker into the clutches of the moneylender. The imposition of a fine would be a better and more direct method of punishment: it, therefore, appears desirable that the withholding of wages should be prohibited.

*Forfeiture of Wages.*—The Labour Office enquiry did not cover the question of forfeiture of wages and no data are, therefore, available with regard to the extent to which this practice prevails in different types of establishments in the Bombay Presidency. Prolonged absence without leave is generally considered to be an offence to be punished by dismissal with forfeiture of wages. The rules of the textile mills in Bombay City contain full lists of the offences which are punishable by summary dismissal and forfeiture of all wages due. These offences are as follows :—

- (1) Leaving service without giving notice as required by the rules.
- (2) Absence without leave.
- (3) Neglect of work or performing work in a negligent or careless manner.
- (4) Wrongfully stopping any machine while the engine is running or otherwise causing delay to work or injury to property.
- (5) Insubordination or disobedience to superiors, individually or in combination with others.
- (6) Refusal or failure to assist in an emergency.
- (7) Striking from work or soliciting or enticing others to leave service or exercising any pressure or intimidation to prevent others from working.
- (8) Spitting on the floors or the walls of the mill buildings after a warning has been given or a fine inflicted for the first offence.
- (9) Entering or leaving or attempting to enter or leave the mill or mill premises by any other way than by the properly appointed entrance or exit.
- (10) Lending money to or having money dealings with other employees in the same mill.
- (11) Receiving bribes or illegal gratifications from any person or persons whether employed in a mill or not.

- (12) Drawing or attempting to draw the wages of any other employee by misrepresentation or in aiding or abetting such offences.  
 (13) Acting in an immoral manner or in a manner subversive of discipline.  
 (14) Willful or negligent damage to or loss of material or property of the employer.  
 (15) Theft and fraud.

Many other mills and factories which have rules have similar provisions with regard to dismissals with or without forfeiture of wages. It is not known to what extent wages are forfeited for breaches of the rules enumerated above. The employers state that wages are forfeited only in extreme cases, whereas the workers maintain that this penalty is inflicted even for trivial offences. It is not only for the commission of offences that wages are forfeited in the mill industry. It is fairly common to forfeit wages not claimed within six months and in some mills within three months of their becoming due. The forfeiture of wages in either case is objectionable. The penalty of dismissal and a fine should be adequate for any offence. It is, therefore, recommended that the law should prohibit this practice.

*Advances and Interest on Advances.*—The results of the Labour Office enquiry show that out of the 72 textile mills in the Bombay Presidency which reported that advances are granted, 28 mills or nearly 39 per cent. charge varying rates of interest, the rate of interest in some of the Ahmedabad mills being as high as 150 per cent. per annum. In some cases, where the mills themselves do not grant advances, the owners make arrangements with privileged *pedhiwallas* (grain dealers) or *banias* (moneylenders) to lend money to their workmen at agreed rates of interest. Advances are not generally granted in Government factories. In the case of other factories, only 3 concerns out of the 143 which give advances reported that interest is charged.

The main objection to the practice of granting advances is the high rate of interest charged by some employers. There is no compulsion on the part of the workers to borrow money from their employer, and if they do so it implies that they cannot get it at cheaper rates elsewhere. The employer cannot be expected to advance the money free of charge. It does not appear that legislation can do anything to check the rates of interest charged on advances.

*The "Havala" System.*—The word "Havala" is used in two different senses. It is used by employers to denote the discharge pass or pay order ticket, whereas labour leaders apply the term to the endorsement or letter of authority given to a third person to collect wages due.

The "Havala" system obtains in the textile mills in the Bombay Presidency. It arises out of the practice followed in the mills of making all payments of wages on a fixed day. This practice leads to complications, especially in the case of workers who have been dismissed or have left employment after giving due notice. A worker who leaves his employment before the regular pay day does not receive his wages on the day he leaves, but he is given a discharge pass or pay order ticket and he is required to call for his wages on the regular pay day of the month. The question of "Havala" does not arise in the case where the worker is able to call for his wages himself on the regular pay day but when the worker wishes to leave the town where he is employed and requires his wages he is obliged to have recourse to "Havala" in order to get ready money. He accordingly endorses his discharge pass or pay order ticket in favour of a third person, who cashes the ticket at a rate of discount which is generally 1 anna in the rupee. Usually, jobbers and grain dealers cash these tickets but sometimes employers do so themselves. The system of "Havala" then is connected with the system of payment of wages on certain fixed days, generally 10 or 15 days after they are due. As long as this system of payment prevails, it seems undesirable to abolish "Havala" altogether. It is a convenience for the needy worker, although he may lose a part of his wages by way of discount. The abuses arising out of the system might, however, be removed by legislation. The rate of discount charged and the agency employed for cashing the pay order tickets need regulation. The employers alone should be permitted to cash these tickets and they should be permitted to deduct from the gross amount due only what is necessary to defray the extra cost involved in making earlier payments.

*Bonus for Regular Attendance.*—Bonuses for regular attendance are given in the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency. The results of the Labour Office enquiry showed that out of the 144 textile mills which supplied information, no less than 110 or 76.4 per cent. grant good attendance bonuses. Except in the case of the cotton mills in Sholapur, this bonus takes the form of a cash payment. In most of the Sholapur mills, workers who have not lost more than four days' work during a month are given 20 seers of grain at a concession rate.

There is a danger in the granting of good attendance bonuses because it enables an employer to set off a part of the regular wages of an employec as a bonus to be given to him only if his attendance is quite regular. If the employee fails to put in the number of days required he not only loses his wages for the days of absence but

also his good attendance bonus. On the other hand, if the good attendance bonus is not included in the normal wage but is an additional gratuity given by the employer as an inducement for good attendance, there is nothing to be said against the practice. So far as the Labour Office is aware there have been no complaints against the system. Legislative action in this matter does not, therefore, appear necessary.

*Bonus for Better Work.*—As in the case of bonuses for good attendance, the system of granting bonuses for better work or better production also obtains in the textile industry in the Bombay Presidency. Several other concerns besides reported that such bonuses are given. The returns for the textile industry show that 25 out of the 76 reporting mills in Bombay, 40 out of the 49 reporting mills in Ahmedabad and 11 out of the 19 reporting mills in Sholapur and other centres grant "efficiency" bonuses. Considering the textile industry as a whole the figures are 76 out of 144 reporting mills or 52·78 per cent. No bonuses of this kind are granted by municipalities, commercial offices and steamship companies.

It is sometimes urged that bonuses for better production are given where the normal wages are low; that they make the worker work harder than is good for him; and that very often the workers on the whole benefit less than the employers by this system of bonuses. It is not known to what extent the wages in Indian industry may be regarded as normal, nor what is the result of such bonuses on the physique of the workers, and it is not possible to estimate the sum total of the benefit derived by the employer or the workers. In the absence of such information it is difficult to say whether such bonuses are in the interest of the workers. However, the Labour Office is not aware of any complaints by the workers in this matter so it is considered that no legislative action is necessary.

*Prevention of Monetary Transactions amongst the Workers.*—In the majority of concerns where rules governing the conditions of employment are framed heavy punishments are provided for monetary transactions amongst the workers. It appears unnecessary to make any provision in the law in respect of this question.

*Conditions under which Fines may be inflicted.*—In the Bombay Presidency, almost all the textile mills in Bombay City have printed rules regarding the conditions of employment and the lists of offences for which workers may be dismissed, with or without forfeiture of wages. Some of these rules give the offences which may be alternatively punished by inflictions of fines. The actual rules regarding fines are general in character and simply state that fines will be inflicted for "breaches of discipline," "insubordination," "disobedience," "late attendance," and a few specific offences. In most cases the maximum punishment of dismissal with forfeiture of wages is prescribed. Only three mills in Ahmedabad and about half-a-dozen mills in the rest of the Bombay Presidency reported that rules had been framed with regard to conditions of employment. These rules are framed, more or less, on the model of the rules of the Bombay mills. The rules of a few factories—Government and non-Government—and those relating to public utility services, give more amplified lists of the offences for which fines may be inflicted. The rules of the municipalities are general in character. Factories and workshops other than those mentioned above have no rules regarding the imposition of fines. In almost all the cases where rules are provided, copies of the rules are hung up in the time-keeper's office and, in some cases, in the various departments as well. Two or three mills stated that, prior to the engagement of a new hand, the rules of the mill are read out to the prospective employee and, if he accepts service, his signature or thumb impression is taken in a special register as a record that he has accepted employment with the knowledge of the conditions under which his wages are liable to deduction in respect of fines. Some other concerns stated that the rules are read out to the men. In a few cases the daily employment of attendance cards which are given to all workmen have the rules with regard to fines printed on the reverse. But in the large majority of cases no attempt is made to acquaint the workers with the conditions under which they are liable to be fined, and the offences for which fines may be inflicted are presumed to be known by usage or custom. It appears necessary that legislation should be framed providing that every employer should make definite rules regarding the terms of employment and the conditions under which fines may be inflicted.

*Supply of Particulars to Workers who are Fined.*—Most of the returns submitted for the Labour Office enquiry stated that full particulars regarding the offence for which a fine is inflicted are supplied to the worker at the time of the occurrence of the offence. This is generally true in the case of fines for breaches of discipline, but personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that particulars regarding fines for bad and negligent work and also for deductions in respect of compulsory purchase of damaged goods come to the knowledge of the workers concerned only when they draw their pay. This is due to the fact that the cutlookers and detectors examine the cloth produced some days after it has been manufactured, and the penalties in respect of damaged material are then noted against the worker concerned.

By this procedure the worker has to submit to a fine without having an opportunity of vindicating himself. Except in a very few cases the notification of the particulars regarding the offence for which a fine is inflicted is given to the worker orally. To prevent the possibility of unfair inflictions of fines it appears desirable that the law should provide that the amount of the fine inflicted together with the reasons therefor should be made known to the worker at the time of inflicting the fine.

*Power to Fine.*—With the exception of the few textile mills in Bombay City which reported that the power to fine rests with the jobbers in addition to heads of departments, and those mills in Ahmedabad which stated that this power is delegated to special employees called "detectors," who receive a certain percentage of the total fines inflicted, almost all the mills, factories and concerns which sent in returns for the Labour Office Enquiry stated that the power to fine is exercised by the proprietors or by the heads of departments in the larger establishments. Subsequent personal enquiries made by the Labour Office show that fining by jobbers is more common than appears from the results of the statistical enquiry, and that it gives rise to considerable abuse. It is recommended that no employee whose remuneration depends in any shape or form on the amounts of fines which he inflicts, should be allowed either to recommend a fine or to inflict a fine on a worker himself, and that the power to fine should be vested in managers and responsible heads of departments.

*Extent to which Fines may be inflicted.*—No limits exist with regard to the extent to which fines may be inflicted in factories and workshops in the Bombay Presidency with the exception of a few of the larger railway workshops, and some Government and semi-Government factories and concerns. In this connection, several employers stated that as fines were not inflicted in an unreasonable manner, no necessity had arisen for fixed definite limits. The personal investigations of the Labour Office, however, show that cases where heavy fines are inflicted are not uncommon.

It appears necessary that if any legislation is framed for the control of fines, such legislation should provide a maximum limit to the extent to which fines may be inflicted. The Majority Report of the British Truck Committee recommended a limit of 5 per cent. In this connection the Minority Report, however, stated that "the tendency of a maximum to become a standard, illustrated by several witnesses and recognized in the Report, must not be considered by itself, but in connection with the clear intention of unscrupulous firms to make a profit out of their workers by methods that upright firms would reject." The fear that the maximum would tend to become the standard is based on the assumption that the employer makes fines a source of profit; but if it is laid down that all recoveries of fines are to be credited to a welfare fund, this danger is not likely to arise.

From the point of view of the employer a maximum limit might be considered undesirable where the prescribed limit has already been reached, and he is thus prevented from inflicting additional fines for further offences committed during the same wage period.

If it is decided to fix a maximum limit it will be necessary to provide that the limit should be for the length of time covered by each wage period. No fines in excess of the prescribed limit for any particular wage period should be allowed to be carried forward or deducted from the wages for the next or a subsequent wage period, and the payments of fines by instalments should also be prohibited. Exceptions to the rule may, however, be permitted, and in certain cases local Governments may be empowered to extend the maximum limit or to suspend its operation.

*Disposal of Fines.*—A few textile mills in the Bombay Presidency reported that all amounts collected through the infliction of fines are utilized specifically for welfare work, but the majority of the mills reported that fines are credited to "revenue." It must be stated, however, that the great majority of the mills undertake some welfare work, especially in connection with the maintenance of free dispensaries and the provision of free medical attendance. Most of the departments connected with the larger railway administrations and a few Government and other factories have special fines funds to which all fines are credited. These funds are utilized for the workers' welfare. Some clubs and offices utilize fines for the payment of annual bonuses, whereas some concerns use them for donations to charitable objects. Apart from the instances quoted, fines are generally appropriated by the employers to "revenue."

In England, although the Truck Acts contain no specific provision regarding the question of the disposal of fines, all deductions in respect of fines are generally utilized for welfare work, as shown by the evidence given by various employers before the Truck Committee. In Germany, Austria, Russia, Switzerland, Poland, Norway, Portugal, Czechoslovakia, Lichtenstein, Latvia and Greece the legislation which exists with regard to the control of fines definitely provides that all fines should be utilized in some manner or other for the benefit of the workers. In the Netherlands, the law prohibits the employer from utilizing or appropriating fines for his own

direct or indirect benefit. It appears that in almost all other industrial countries the influence of trade unions and public opinion have compelled employers to credit all fines to special fines funds, to be used for the welfare of the workers concerned. It is recommended that the law should lay down that this practice should be followed in India.

*Necessity of Legislation.*—The question whether legislation should be undertaken in India for the control of fines depends on the following considerations :—(1) The extent of the prevalence of the system ; (2) the extent to which workers are subjected to fines in establishments where fining prevails ; (3) the administration of the system ; (4) the influence of workers' organizations on the system.

With regard to the question of the extent of the prevalence of the system, the Labour Office Enquiry shows that it is general throughout the Bombay Presidency. In considering the question of the extent to which workers are subjected to fines in establishments where fining prevails, it must be stated that there are several points with regard to fining which were not covered by the enquiry conducted by the Labour Office. For instance, no enquiry was made in connection with (1) the frequency of fining in the case of individual employees ; (2) the actual amounts of fines inflicted in individual cases ; and (3) the forfeiture of wages. The proportions between fines and wages given in the Report show the ratio between total amounts of fines and the total wages bill of all employees. It is probable that there exist, in individual establishments, large numbers of workers who are seldom, if ever, fined. It would have been more useful if information could have been obtained to show the proportion which total fines bear to the total wages bill of those workers who are actually fined. It would have been practically impossible, however, to procure this information in view of the difficulty of calculating the wages and deductions figures for each worker employed during a period covering ten to twelve months. It was also not possible to ascertain the amounts of fines inflicted in each case, as the enquiry was not conducted on the basis of the individual. The figures given in the Report in connection with the average incidence of fining in different sets or classes of establishment, show that in the textile industry the average incidence of fining in 45 mills in the Presidency which supplied properly classified information, amounted to 3 annas 11 pies per offence in the case of men, 2 annas 8 pies per offence in the case of women, and 1 anna 11 pies per offence in the case of children. In factories other than textile mills the average incidence for men amounted to Re. 1-2-4 pies. These figures do not include the losses sustained by the worker for penalties such as compulsory purchase of damaged material, suspension and forfeiture of wages. Nevertheless, they are higher than the figures for fines in England as appears from the evidence submitted to the Truck Committee.

As regards the administration of the system, there are several matters which call for legislative control. For instance, the power to fine is sometimes placed in the hands of special employees whose remuneration depends on the amount which they are able to collect in fines. The enquiry conducted by the Labour Office shows that such employees, called detectors, are employed to a large extent in the textile mills in Ahmedabad. One mill in Ahmedabad employing 1,843 workers, recovered an amount of Rs. 10,234 in fines during the first ten months of the year 1926 for 83,253 offences. Another mill employing 3,209 operatives, inflicted fines amounting to Rs. 9,981 in 25,949 instances during the same period. The number of instances in which fines were inflicted in these concerns appears to be high when compared with the figures for similar establishments where detectors are not employed. There can be no doubt that such a system must give rise to considerable abuse where the earnings of the officers specially employed to fine depend on the amounts of fines collected. Outside the textile industry in Bombay city, very few establishments have rules governing conditions of employment and the power of fining. The rules where they exist, appear to be rather harsh and place unlimited power in the hands of the manager or the departmental heads to whom the manager delegates his authority.

In all industrial countries, trade unions play an important part in regulating the relations between the employers and the employed in connection with the inflictions of fines and punishments. In France, Sweden, Bulgaria, Canada and countries which have no legislation for the control of fines, trade union action has resulted in either abolishing the imposition of fines altogether or restricting the system to a reasonable extent. Even in countries where legislation exists for the control of fines, trade unions exert a salutary influence.

In India, however, trade unionism is still in its infancy, and the workers' organizations are too weak to exert their influence to any appreciable extent in the regulation of fines. Any abuses which exist therefore in the system of fining cannot be remedied or removed by trade union action, so the State may have to intervene. It appears that as far as the Bombay Presidency is concerned, the conditions as regards fining in industry are such as would warrant legislative action. Cases of excessive fines are not uncommon, some of the fines are unjust, the workers are not always aware of the

offences for which they may be punished, the manner of inflicting fines is often arbitrary, and the agency employed for the imposition of fines is not always suitable. In countries where labour is properly organized, many of these evils could be removed without legislative action, but in view of the lack of such organization and the ignorance of the workers in this country, it appears that a simple Act of the legislature is necessary to eradicate the evils connected with the present system of fining in industry.

*Scope of the Measure.*—The results of the Labour Office Enquiry show that the system of inflicting fines is prevalent in all textile mills and in most Government and local fund establishments, and in the majority of the better organized and larger non-Government factories and workshops. In municipalities and in public utility concerns the system is fairly general, but it does not appear to prevail to any appreciable extent in seasonal establishments such as gins and presses. In offices the system is confined to the fining of peons and menials, though in a few cases clerks are also occasionally fined. Amongst miscellaneous establishments the system is prevalent in the larger hotels, clubs and restaurants, but it is absent in most of the commercial organizations such as shops, stores, etc. It also obtains in almost all steamship companies, and the system is governed and regulated by the Indian Merchants Shipping Act, 1923. It is thus seen that the system of fining is practised in almost all the various types and classes of establishments and concerns covered by the Labour Office Enquiry, but only in the large industrial establishments does the system appear to have become an evil of such proportions as would necessitate legislation. It would be premature at the present stage to apply to all concerns the provisions of any legislation that may be passed, and it does not appear necessary. Even if a simple Act is passed the present inspecting staffs of the Factories and Mines Departments will have to be considerably strengthened for its proper administration. Detailed legislation might cost more than would be justified by the results. Besides, it may not be possible to administer the law effectively if it enters into too many details. Moreover, the employers' interests have to be taken into account, as too much interference with industry is undesirable. It is recommended, therefore, that the proposed legislation should be confined to factories and mines coming under the Factories and Mines Acts.

*Maintenance of Registers of Fines.*—In the factories and workshops in the Bombay Presidency fines are usually recorded in the main wages roll. For the proper enforcement of the proposed legislation it seems necessary that employers should be required to maintain complete and detailed registers of all the fines inflicted.

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

### APPENDIX XIII.

#### *Prompt Payment of Wages.*

*Letter to all Local Governments and Administrations, No. L-1391, dated the 28th July, 1926.*

I am directed to address you regarding the advisability of legislating for the purpose of preventing undue delay in the payment of wages to industrial workers.

2. In this Department's letter No. L-1192 of 20th September, 1924, local Governments were requested to furnish particulars regarding the periods by which wages are paid in organized industries, and the delays which are associated with their payment. The information so collected, which has since been published in tabular form,\* reveals a state of affairs which cannot be regarded as other than unsatisfactory. For it is clear that, generally speaking, the time which elapses between the end of the period by which wages have been earned and the date on which they are paid is longer than is usual in industries in other countries; and the delay is, in a number of cases, so great as to add appreciably to the economic difficulties of workmen. Systematic delays in payment are particularly associated with payment on a monthly basis, and the month is the period most commonly employed for the calculation of

\* *Bulletins of Indian Industries and Labour, No. 34. Periods of Wage Payment.*



wages. It is no uncommon thing—in fact it appears to be the rule in certain industries—for monthly wages to be systematically withheld until a fortnight after the close of the month to which they relate. And cases have come to the notice of Government in which wages had been withheld for considerably longer periods.

3. It is unnecessary to emphasize the fact that a practice of this kind results in considerable hardship to the workers concerned. With monthly payments, a delay of a fortnight in disbursement means that the employee has to work for over six weeks before he gets his first month's wages. Even if he is not financially embarrassed when he starts work, he has, as a rule, no monetary reserve, and he may be, in consequence, compelled to contract, at the commencement of his service, a fresh debt of a month and a half's wages, generally taken on a high rate of interest. A number of employers endeavour to minimize the hardship involved by the grant of advances, but this practice is by no means general, and even where the advance represents wages that have actually been earned, interest is occasionally charged on it. Cases have come to the notice of the Government of India where workers were compelled to strike in order to secure wages which had been held back for unreasonable periods; in one such case, where over three weeks had elapsed from the close of the month, the strikers were dismissed: in another case, the workers went on strike over five weeks after the end of the month for which they wanted their wages.

4. It has been suggested that, as the evil is particularly associated with monthly payments, employers should be compelled to adopt shorter periods of payment. This was, in fact, one of the arguments put forward in support of Mr. Chaman Lail's Weekly Payments Bill, which was referred to local Governments for consideration. But the Bill met with general opposition. The Government of India, after reviewing the opinions received on it, were compelled to oppose its consideration in the Legislative Assembly, and the motion for consideration of the Bill was finally withdrawn by its sponsor.

5. The Government of India do not think that any Bill of this kind is likely to receive the support of public opinion, or to prove effective in its operation. While they should not be regarded as accepting the view that the general system of monthly payments is a satisfactory one, they believe that an attempt to impose by legislation a radically different system would have little chance of success, and might do considerable harm. They recognize—and they believe that local Governments will agree with this view—that if the abuses to which they have referred above can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation. But they are inclined to think that legislation, if it is regarded as desirable, will have to be attempted on somewhat different lines if it is to have a reasonable prospect of successful working. The details of a fresh scheme are set out provisionally in the paragraphs that follow, and I am to ask for the views of the local Government both on the advisability of adopting some scheme of this kind, and on the detailed provisions contemplated.

6. The Government of India propose to set statutory limits to the time within which wages must be paid. To begin with, at any rate, they consider that it would be unwise to attempt to do more than prevent the more obvious abuses, and in the case of wages paid on a monthly system (or any longer basis), it might be sufficient to prescribe that they must ordinarily be paid within a week of the close of the month. It may be desirable to allow some relaxation in the case of bonuses earned by a long period, e.g., a year of work, but it will be difficult, and possibly dangerous, to discriminate between bonuses and wages. It could, if desired, be left to the employer, subject to the approval of the local Government, to fix the date on which the month should commence, which need not necessarily be the first day of the calendar month. As regards payments on shorter periods than a month, the evidence available indicates that there is less need for legislation, but I am to ask for the views of the local Government on the suggestion that corresponding limitations might be imposed, e.g., in the case of fortnightly wages, four days delay might be allowed, in the case of weekly wages, two days, and in the case of daily wages, a day. Wages might be limited to cash payments; but it seems undesirable to do anything that might encourage payment in kind, and a distinction is possibly unnecessary. It would probably be advisable to give local Governments, in all cases, the power to grant exemptions where special (and defined) circumstances, e.g., the distance of the worker from the headquarters, rendered this necessary. The difficulties arising out of the fact that in some cases for instance when wages are paid piece-rates, intricate evaluations may be required to calculate wages might be met by prescribing that, in such cases, the payment, within the statutory period, of 75 per cent. (or some higher percentage) of the wages earned should constitute compliance with the law.

7. The main difficulty in regard to legislation of this kind arises in connection with its enforcement. It would be possible, and seems to be desirable, to provide for the prompt recovery of wages by some form of summary procedure, e.g., in a manner similar to that prescribed in the Employers' and Workmen's Disputes Act, IX of 1860.

It would also be necessary to provide for some fine, part of which might be payable to the workmen injured, for the offence. The maximum fine on a first conviction might be small, with larger penalties for subsequent offences. But provisions of this kind will not be sufficient to secure the end in view, for the workman would seldom be in a position to use the power so conferred on him. The employer who is prosecuted could pay the wages and dismiss the workman, and it would be impossible to prevent by law dismissals of this kind. Other reasons could always be put forward as the ostensible grounds of any dismissal, and the result would be constant disputes. And even when the workman did not apprehend reprisals, it would seldom be worth his while to institute proceedings with the object of obtaining a single month's wages a short period before the date when he would receive them without invoking external assistance. The grant to any number of workmen in the same establishment of the power to join in one proceeding might meet some of the difficulties in part, but it would not be sufficient. Quite apart from the difficulties inherent in the joint conduct of proceedings by numerous complainants, the fear of victimization and the large amount of inconvenience necessary to secure a very small advantage to each workman would be sufficient to prevent action in most cases. The Government of India consider that, if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the initiative of the workmen themselves, the Act will fail to achieve its object. If this conclusion is accepted, it seems essential that the power to prosecute should be granted to some external authority, such as an inspecting staff. The difficulties in the way of the workmen would be removed by such a provision, and the conduct of prosecutions instituted by inspecting officials would be free from serious administrative difficulty.

8. This has a close bearing on the important question of the scope of the measure. In the case of factories and mines, there are already in existence inspecting officers who have experience of the institution of prosecutions, and who could safely be entrusted with the enforcement of the Act. If the measure was to be extended to establishments which are not subject either to the Factories Act or the Mines Act, it might be impossible to render it effective without the employment of a special staff, and even with such a staff, its enforcement would be attended by serious difficulty. Further, the evidence before the Government of India indicates that the evil is particularly associated with the larger industrial establishments, where the work involved in the calculation of wages is heaviest, and where the presence of intermediaries between the workmen and the management and other circumstances tend to aggravate delays. In the smaller establishments lying outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts, there are no serious abuses such as would justify not merely the introduction of legislation, but the establishment of new and special machinery for its enforcement. On all grounds, therefore, the Government of India are inclined to the view that the measure should be confined, in its operation, to those establishments which are subject to the operation of the Factories Act or the Mines Act: but this is a point on which they would be glad to have the opinion of the local Government.

9. I am to request that, after consulting the interests concerned, a reply may be sent to this letter not later than 1st January, 1927.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, N.-W. F. Province, No. 986-XVI-F.-104-C. & I., dated the 10th September, 1926.*

This province is entirely agricultural, and has no industries, and therefore no criticisms or suggestions of value can be given.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, No. 4107/103-19-Enclos., dated the 2nd December, 1926.*

Wages are paid weekly in Coorg. In their own interests planters are particularly careful to be punctual. So far as Coorg is concerned, the Chief Commissioner has, therefore, no remarks to offer on the scheme set out in paragraphs 6-8 of your letter.

*Letter from the Government of Madras, No. Misc.-2013-L., dated the 22nd December, 1926.*

Mr. Ley's letter No. L.-1391, of the 28th July, 1926, was referred by this Government to the Board of Revenue (who consulted collectors), the Director of Industries, and the Commissioner of Labour, who, in his turn, consulted ten associations of employers, including Chambers of Commerce besides prominent individual employers such as the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, and six associations of employees.

2. The enquiries thus made have failed to elicit any evidence that the delay which occurs between the date on which wages fall due and that on which they are paid does, in fact, cause any real hardship or economic injury. There is not the

slightest indication that employers delay payment wantonly or arbitrarily; and the interval which normally occurs, and which is naturally longer in the larger businesses, is recognized to be due to the labour involved in the preparation of detailed pay bills with establishments whose attendance is frequently irregular, and who are far less disciplined and less amenable to regulation than workmen in western countries.

It appears, moreover, to be the case that where payment of wages is spread over a period of some days, care is taken to see that the intervals in the case of individuals are of uniform length.

3. The special hardship, to which Mr. Ley's letter calls attention, of a newly-engaged employee having to wait for as much as six weeks before receiving any wages is, the Madras Government understand, much mitigated by the practice of making advances. It may further be pointed out that a six weeks' interval represents an extreme case. New employees are not infrequently engaged after the beginning of a month, and their period of waiting is thus proportionately shortened.

4. If then, as appears to be the case in Madras, workmen are after their first receipt of wages paid at uniform and regular intervals of a month, a fortnight or a week (as the case may be), and if the inconvenience caused by the initial period of waiting is mitigated by the practice mentioned above, His Excellency the Governor in Council is unable to detect any abuse or economic hardship requiring remedial legislation, and he is sure that the Government of India will agree that legislation imposing obligations on employers towards the employed tends to mar the harmony of their relations and should be avoided unless really required.

5. For the information of the Government of India, I am to enclose copies\* of certain typical replies which illustrate and confirm the view of the question which the Governor in Council has been led to take. It will be seen that those replies which assert the existence of a grievance propose as a remedy, not the acceleration of payment, but the shortening of the qualifying wage period, a proposal akin to that contained in Mr. Chaman Lall's recent Bill, the principle of which has been repudiated by the Government of India.

6. I am to add certain observations on the nature of the proposed legislation, on the supposition that such legislation is to be introduced. In the first place, the proposal to include bonuses in the scope of legislation for the prompt payment of wages has been generally objected to on the grounds that bonuses are given entirely as an act of grace and should be free from any element of compulsion, and that in practice these payments are not made monthly or generally at more frequent intervals than once a year. Bonuses are thus, in principle and in practice, quite distinct from wages and it would be a mistake to treat them alike. The Governor in Council agrees with this opinion.

7. The problem of enforcing the proposed legislation, which, as the Government of India observes, presents considerable difficulty, would not, in the opinion of this Government, be solved by the suggested restriction of such legislation to institutions to which either the Factories or the Mines Act is applicable. Except for the advantage derived from the existence of an inspecting organization under these Acts, which if suitably strengthened at the expense of the taxpayer, would no doubt provide machinery for carrying the law into effect, there appears to be no logical reason or justification for depriving of the presumed benefits of the law those numerous wage earners who do not come within the scope of either of the above-named enactments. The restriction would also produce the anomaly that, in the case of railway administrations, the men working in workshops and sheds would enjoy the benefit of the law, while the rest (including the line staff and traffic employees who are exposed to the longest delays) would have no redress whatever.

8. It appears to His Excellency the Governor in Council that there would be little difficulty in evading any provision for accelerating payment of wages; compulsory acceleration, unless so liberally applied as to fail of its object, would throw a burden upon industry which might have unfavourable reactions on employed as well as employers; and the benefit to be derived by workers from the proposal under consideration would in the opinion of this Government be so slight as by no means to warrant the expense, the inconveniences and the risk of failure involved.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Delhi, No. 7903-Industries, dated the 24th December, 1926.*

I have consulted the Deputy Commissioner and the Inspector of Factories on the subject. They are in general agreement with the policy outlined in paragraphs 6, 7 and 8 of the Government of India letter. The Inspector of Factories is of opinion

\* Not printed.

that power to exempt employers, when they can prove to the administering authority that advances during the period of work were made to workers up to 75 per cent. of their pay, free of all interest, should be given to local Governments. The Inspector of Factories also considers that power to prosecute offenders against the Act should be in the hands of the executive authority.

I am myself in agreement with the policy outlined in paragraphs 6, 7 and 8 of the Government of India letter under reply.

*Letter from the Chief Commissioner, Ajmer-Merwara, No. 2096-C.1823 of 1926, dated the 28th December, 1926.*

The scheme as detailed in paragraphs 6 to 8 of the letter, under reference, would serve a useful purpose and may be adopted.

*Letter from the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan, No. 4992, dated the 30th December, 1926.*

The extent of industries in Baluchistan is very limited, those of any importance being Government and quasi-Government concerns consisting of the local arsenal and the North-Western Railway. Exceptions are to be found, however, in the Baluchistan Chrome Mining Company and the Quetta Branch of the Murree Brewery, both of which concerns employ much skilled and unskilled labour and are under European management.

2. Enquiries show that there is no undue delay in the payment of wages to workmen employed by the Arsenal and Baluchistan Chrome Mining Company. In both cases the men receive their wages within a week. The brewery management has vouchsafed no reply to enquiries made on the subject and merely remarks that it wishes to express no views on the proposed legislation.

3. It would appear that unnecessary delay does take place in the payment of the railway staff, due to a lengthy system of centralized check and audit. It is understood, however, that the agent of the North-Western Railway is representing his views in the matter to the Government of India direct, on a separate reference.

4. The concensus of local opinion indicates that legislation on the general lines proposed by the Government of India is desirable and should be adopted. In this view the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General concurs.

5. Regarding the points raised in paragraph 6 of the letter under reply, I am to say that the limits proposed therein within which wages are to be paid would appear to be suitable.

There is, however, in the opinion of the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General, a further case for which legislation would appear to be indicated, viz., that in which a workman is dismissed or takes his discharge before the end of the month, fortnight, or week as the case may be, and who, without special legislation to the contrary, might have to wait a comparatively considerable period before he can receive his wages. This would constitute a decided hardship because a workman who is employed has usually no difficulty in obtaining supplies on credit from a shopkeeper. But once he is out of employment his credit is immediately closed. To obviate this hardship where it exists at present, the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General would suggest that a clause in the proposed legislation might be inserted to the effect that in all cases of the nature indicated above, the workman in question shall receive his dues within a period of two days subsequent to his becoming unemployed, irrespective of the system of wages on which he may have been engaged.

6. The Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General agrees in the view expressed by the Government of India to the effect that if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the motion of the workmen themselves, the Act will fail to achieve its object; and while it would be costly to employ special staff for the purpose of prosecution, he considers that the power to prosecute should be granted to the inspecting staff, and that the proposed measure should be confined in its operation for the present to such of the establishments only as are subject to the provisions of the Factories Act or Mines Act.

*Letter from the Government of Assam, No. 30-F.M., dated the 4th January, 1927.*

The general opinion is that there is no need of such legislation in Assam at present, but there is no serious opposition to the proposals of the Government of India. With this view the Governor in Council agrees. There are few large industries in Assam besides the tea estates, where the scarcity of labour compels the management

to do all that is possible to keep the labour force contented. There is, therefore, no abuse in the payment of wages, which renders necessary in this province, legislation on the lines suggested by the Government of India. On the other hand, the Governor in Council recognizes that conditions may differ in other parts of India and that legislation of this nature if required at all should apply to the whole of India. The proposals put forward in paragraph 6 of your letter with the safeguards there suggested are fair and reasonable and legislation on those lines could be given effect to in this province without any serious difficulty. The Governor in Council also agrees with the proposals in paragraphs 7 and 8 of your letter that the measure should be restricted to establishments subject to the Factories Act or Mines Act, and that the enforcement of the Act should be entrusted to the inspecting staff.

*Letter from the Government of Central Provinces, No. 73/1593-XIII, dated the 7th January, 1927.*

In order to elicit local opinion, Government consulted the managers of important industrial concerns in the province. There is a consensus of opinion that so far as this province is concerned, the proposed legislation is unnecessary and may hamper the growth of industrial concerns. From the statement forwarded with this department's letter No. 2967/2256-XIII, dated the 12th December, 1924, it will be seen that in the case of monthly payments, delays for periods exceeding 15 days are not usual, while in the case of payments on shorter periods than a month, the scale suggested in the letter under reply is rarely exceeded. In the circumstances, therefore, and in view of the fact that no complaints on the part of workmen of delay in payment have come under its notice, the local Government is inclined to concur in the view of the managers of industrial concerns that the need for introducing legislation on the proposed lines is not urgent. Should it, however, be decided on general grounds to undertake legislation on the subject, I am to suggest that a period of 10 days may be allowed for payment on a monthly basis and the question of payment on shorter periods be left out of the scope of the measure. The local Government agrees that some provision for the summary recovery of wages is a necessary complement of the main provision of the Bill, even though the provision were seldom actually put in force.

2. For the reasons given in paragraphs 7 and 8 of the letter under reference, the local Government agrees with the Government of India that the scope of any such measure should be restricted to establishments coming within the purview of the Factories Act and the Mines Act, where inspecting officers could be required to bring to notice cases of infraction of the rules and empowered to initiate prosecutions.

*Letter from the Government of Burma, No. 337-V-26, dated the 17th January, 1927.*

The local Government has obtained the opinions of commissioners of divisions and deputy commissioners, as well as those of commercial bodies and others interested in the matter. The general consensus of opinion in the province is decidedly hostile to the proposals. In a few cases, opinions in favour of the proposed legislation have been expressed, but the local Government is not impressed by those opinions, which rest on the assumption that the state of affairs in the province calls for legislation, and that the proposed legislation would do sufficient good to justify the interference with custom which it involves. These assumptions are either unsupported by arguments or are supported by arguments whose validity the local Government is unable to accept.

2. The object of the proposals is to ameliorate the condition of industrial workers by ensuring that they get their wages within a fixed number of days of the end of the month or other period for which the wages are paid. Industrial workers in Burma are in almost all cases paid by the month, so that the expression "wages" in this letter may be taken to mean monthly wages, unless the contrary is indicated. The opinion generally held in this province, which the local Government finds itself bound to accept, is that there is no need for legislation, and that the interference caused to existing business arrangements would be out of all proportion to any benefits resulting from legislation on the lines proposed. The tabulated results of the enquiries made by the Government of India into delays in the payment of wages show that in Burma the waiting period at the end of the month does not ordinarily exceed 15 days, and no complaints have been received or hardships occasioned by the existing custom. The effect of the proposed legislation would be that in the industries affected the waiting period would be reduced to a maximum of seven days. It is obvious that after the initial period the advantage of the change would be felt only by workmen taking up new employment. At present such workmen have to finance themselves for six weeks before getting their first month's pay, and this

period would be reduced by the proposed Act to five weeks. The majority of workers live on a credit basis, and any provident ones who have savings which would enable them to take up fresh employment without incurring debts are as likely to be able to support themselves for six weeks as for five. The credit basis on which the majority of the workers live is a monthly one, and if a worker in a permanent job gets his wages at regular monthly intervals the permanent postponement or advancement of his monthly pay day by a few days can make but little difference. On taking up new employment the credit period is a little longer than a month, and this merely means that the worker who has no savings at all has to live more carefully than usual for a time. In Burma, where wages are high and workers make heavy remittances to India, this can be done without great difficulty. The immediate effect of the proposals in the majority of cases would merely be that workers would for one month find themselves in possession of their wages a week earlier than in the previous month and would squander the extra week's wages or send them to India, and then carry on as before on the monthly credit basis. It has been noted by some of those consulted that in some cases in Burma new employees are assisted by advances and that interest is not charged on such advances.

3. The possibility of any advantage accruing to the workers from the proposals must also be discounted, because of the possibility that some employers, who have what they consider adequate reasons for making late payments, would still contrive to make such payments, and that others who cannot make the change imposed without extra cost would contrive to make the workers pay a part, at any rate, of the extra cost. In the opinion of the local Government it is unsafe to assume that legislative interference with the economic relations of classes can be contrived so that one class shall benefit entirely at the expense of the other.

4. It has also been pointed out by critics of the proposal that the limitation of the proposed action to establishments, subject to the Factories Act or the Mines Act—and in the opinion of the Governor in Council such limitation would be necessary in practice—would mean that classes of workers who are more in need of protection than those affected would not be benefited, and that in some cases half of the workers under the same employer would fall within the scope of the Act while the other half would not, with possible consequences of dissatisfaction and unrest. A very large proportion of the workers employed in connection with the principal industries in Burma are engaged on what is known as the "maistry system," and in the mines, workers are frequently employed through contractors. The methods of payment in such cases vary from place to place and between individuals in the same place. It is frequently alleged that coolies working under maistries and contractors are unfairly treated, but it would be impossible to bring such coolies within the scope of the proposed Act.

5. The objections to the proposal raised by commercial bodies and others consulted are mainly on the ground of the difficulty of accelerating the payment of wages or the impossibility of doing so without the employment of extra clerical staff. It is also suggested that in some cases the custom of withholding wages for a time has arisen from the necessity for maintaining a hold upon the workers so that they may not disorganize the business by leaving without notice. This is probably true to a great extent in the case of small concerns which are not represented on the chambers of commerce, and the local Government is inclined to think that it is true also to a greater extent than is admitted in the case of many other employers. The Government of India remarks that "generally speaking the time which elapses between the end of the period by which wages have been earned and the date on which they are paid is longer than is usual in industries in other countries." It may be argued that this is due to the greater reliability of workmen in other countries, or to the fact that at certain times of the year at any rate, workmen who leave their employment in India can find other employment at once. Conditions in Burma, where wages are high and seasonal demands for labour very heavy, might be expected in a special degree to render safeguards for employers necessary. The present proposal will prevent the employer from protecting his interests in the above manner, but it provides no substitute for the safeguard which has been established by custom and which it will abolish. It has been suggested that the proposed Act, in order to be complete, should provide also for the punishment of workers leaving their employment without giving one month's notice. Such a course perhaps cannot be contemplated seriously at the present time, but it appears to be a logical corollary to the proposals of the Government of India.

6. Apart from the practical objections raised, the proposals are open to the inherent objection that they would bring the employer within the criminal law in connection with what is merely a civil contract between him and his workmen. The Governor in Council would hesitate to recommend such legislation even if substantial advantages to any class of the community would certainly follow, and in the present

instance the possible advantages appear quite insufficient to justify the consideration of such legislation. By the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act a similar interference with civil contracts in favour of the employer has been done away with, and it would be a retrograde step now to interfere with the employer's right to contract with his workers. The Workmen's Compensation Act and the Trade Unions Act have recently been passed in favour of the workmen; and the latter Act, with time and the spread of education, will no doubt lead to the removal of any genuine disabilities suffered by the workmen. The local Government, after considering the matter in all its aspects, is of the decided opinion that legislation should not be proceeded with on the lines proposed.

7. If the Government of India decides to proceed with legislation, the general lines indicated in your letter appear to the local Government to be suitable. The Governor in Council would, however, urge that legislation should not apply to the whole of India, but that provision should be made for the application of the Act in those provinces only where the need of such legislation is experienced. The Act might relate to workmen generally, but its provisions should be applicable only to such classes of workmen as the local Government may direct, and full power of granting exemptions from the provisions of the Act should be accorded to the local Government.

*Letter from the Government of the Punjab, No. 186-R., dated the 20th January, 1927.*

The Government of India were informed in the letter of this Government No. 905-54-17112, dated the 20th December, 1924, that wages in the principal organized industries of the Punjab are paid by the month and disbursed as a rule from 10 to 15 days in arrears. They were informed at the same time, with regard to Diwan Chaman Lal's Bill, that there is no general dissatisfaction amongst workers with this system. After further enquiry, the Governor in Council finds no reason to modify the view he expressed in 1924. He sees no objection to the introduction of legislation if such action is considered necessary, having regard to All-India conditions. But if an Act prescribing dates for the payment of wages is passed, I am to suggest that it be made applicable to this province only by a resolution in the local legislative council.

2. The Governor in Council agrees that any legislation which may be introduced should be on the lines proposed by the Government of India. He agrees that the Act should apply only to workers in registered factories and mines; that a summary procedure should be provided for the trial of cases; that inspectors working under the Factories and Mines Act should be empowered to institute prosecutions; and that local Governments should be given the widest authority to grant exemptions. As regards the period of grace, he considers that seven clear days might be allowed to the employer who pays by the month. The prescription of correspondingly shorter periods in the case of fortnightly and weekly payments appears to be unnecessary. Employers are not likely to revert from the monthly system to a system of more frequent payments merely to evade the Act, in view of the waste of time in the calculation and payment of wages, and the almost inevitable loss of work after pay day which would result.

*Letter from the Government of Bihar and Orissa, No. 270/X.L.-29—Com., dated the 28th January, 1927.*

In order to elicit opinions on the scheme tentatively suggested by the Government of India, the local Government have consulted their local officers, together with representative employers of labour.

2. The most important industrial areas in Bihar and Orissa are the coalfields of Chota Nagpur, and outside the coalfields such large industrial establishments as the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur, the East Indian Railway workshops at Jamalpur and the factory of the Peninsular Tobacco Company at Monghyr. The number of persons employed under any single employer in iron ore, mica and other mines outside the coalfields is seldom considerable; local industries are still comparatively undeveloped; and for the time being Bihar and Orissa retains its character as a predominantly agricultural province. The Indian Mining Association and the Indian Mining Federation together represent almost the entire body of employers in the coalfields. Both are opposed to the suggested legislation on the ground that it is undesirable and uncalled for, and both rely on the statement at page 24 of Bulletin No. 34 that there is no delay in the payment of wages by colliery proprietors. In the Jharia coalfield, wages are paid weekly and in the Raniganj coalfield, daily. The Chief Inspector of Mines has commented that there cannot be said to be any real necessity for legislation so far as mines in this province are concerned, since the waiting period is short.

3. Turning to the greater industrial establishments mentioned above, I am to enclose a copy \* of the reply given by Messrs. Tata Sons on behalf of the Tata Iron and Steel Company. The number of employees in the steel works is approximately 29,000, of whom between 12,000 and 14,000 are paid weekly, while the rest are paid monthly. The Government of India will observe that while the company express their approval of the underlying principle of the scheme suggested for their consideration, namely, that wages should be paid as early as possible, they represent that if legislation were passed on the lines suggested, they would have to ask for special exemption for their firm on the ground that it would not be practicable for a company employing so large a staff as theirs to comply with the law. The number of persons employed in the Jamalpur workshops of the East Indian Railway is approximately 15,000. Wages are paid monthly on the 15th of the succeeding month. As reported by the local Government in paragraph 5 of Mr. Dain's letter No. 81-XL-26-Com., dated the 10th January, 1925, when expressing their opinion on Mr. Chaman Lal's Weekly Payments Bill in the strike on the East Indian Railway in 1922, no complaint was made by the strikers with regard to the period of their wage payment, though every possible grievance was brought out and ventilated. The Peninsula Tobacco Company employ 6,000 workmen. The wages are paid monthly, not later than the 10th day of the month following that in which the wages are earned. The company have stated that the system of monthly payments (which the Government of India appear to condemn) was selected only after exhaustive enquiries into local custom, and as the system which would be best appreciated by their employees and more likely to keep them out of debt than shorter periods.

4. The conclusion which the local Government have drawn is that in organized industry in this province no dissatisfaction has been expressed by workmen with the present system; abuses have not come to light; and that in the circumstances no case for special statutory measures has been established. In paragraph 8 of your letter the Government of India state that abuses are particularly associated with the larger industrial establishments where the work involved in the calculation of wages is heaviest, and where the presence of intermediaries between the workmen and the management and other circumstances tend to aggravate delays. In the smaller establishments lying outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts there are no serious abuses such as would justify the introduction of legislation. His Excellency in Council finds himself unable to assent to this view. The opinion expressed by Messrs. Tata Sons emphasizes the difficulty of rapidly clearing the wages accounts where the number of employees is considerable, but in all large establishments there are regular dates definitely fixed for wage payments. Smaller employers are apt to be very much more casual in their methods, and the local Government, in disagreement with the views expressed by the Government of India, have no doubt that, taking individual cases, the worst instances of delay in the settlement of wage accounts will be found in small establishments suffering from lack of funds rather than in the larger concerns in which capital has been sunk, and where a ready supply of money to meet the regularly recurring bill for wages is recognized as essential to the life of the firm. In paragraph 3 of your letter the Government of India have cited instances in which workers were compelled to strike in order to secure wages which had been held back for unreasonable periods. The local Government can rely only on their own experience to state that no such instances have come to their notice in this province. In 1920 and again in 1922 there was a general strike of the employees of the Tata Iron and Steel Company. As in the case of the strike on the East Indian Railway, so also at Jamshedpur, no dissatisfaction was expressed by the strikers with regard to the periods of wage payments. The Government of India themselves recognize that it would not be practicable to apply their scheme to smaller establishments outside the scope of the Factories and Mines Acts, and with this expression of opinion the local Government agree. If, on the other hand, the suggested legislation is designed to meet conditions in the larger industrial concerns, the opinion of the local Government is that so far as conditions in this province are concerned, the legislation is not required, and the scheme prepared in outline by the Government of India should be dropped.

5. In conclusion, I am to add the following comments on the details of the Government of India's scheme. It is suggested that any legislation which might be undertaken should be confined in the first instance to wages paid on the monthly system. The Government of India will, of course, recognize that in that event employers who at present pay their workmen a monthly wage would be disposed to adopt shorter periods for the purpose of freeing themselves from the application of the law. The local Government doubt whether this could be claimed to be an advantage. As they stated in Mr. Dain's letter No. 81-Com., dated the 10 January, 1925, the established practice of payment in India is on a monthly basis, and life



is organized accordingly. If among the class affected wages are to be paid weekly (or fortnightly), domestic matters generally will have to be adjusted to the change. There is a considerable body of opinion that the payment of wages in industrial establishments at shorter periods than a month induces thriftlessness and encourages debt, and His Excellency in Council considers that that opinion cannot be ignored. The Government of India consider that there is less need for legislation with regard to weekly and fortnightly period. The view which the local Government desire to emphasize is that if legislation is to be undertaken discrimination should not be made solely against wages paid on a monthly basis.

6. The Government of India recognize that if the enforcement of the law is to depend on the initiative of the workmen, the Act will fail to achieve its object, and for that reason they suggest that the power to prosecute should be granted to some external authority such as an inspecting staff, and they would apparently utilize the staff employed under the Mines and Factories Act for that purpose. The Government of India, however, do not make it clear whether the inspecting staff are to have power to proceed on their own motion or only on complaint made to them by the workman concerned. If, on their own motion, then a great part of the time which they should devote to their regular duties will be lost in preliminary enquiries to ascertain why wages which were due to payment by the 10th of the month were not paid till some days later. The delay may be due to a variety of reasons other than any deliberate intention on the part of the employer to withhold payment. These reasons would require investigation before the inspector could decide whether or not to prosecute. If the inspector is to act only on complaint made by the workman, he would still need to verify the truth of the complaint, and the circumstances in which delay, if any, had occurred, while the workman would be as much exposed to victimization as if he had himself prosecuted his employer. The fact that the prosecution would be conducted not by himself but by a Government Inspector, would not materially affect the position as between himself and the management. Lastly, if duties of the kind suggested by the Government of India are to be thrown on the inspectors employed under the Mines and Factories Act, the present staff would certainly require to be supplemented.

7. To sum up, the Government of Bihar and Orissa consider that conditions in this province are not such as to require legislation to ensure the more prompt payment of wages, and secondly that it is open to question whether legislation on the lines suggested by the Government of India would be successful in improving relations between employers and employed in the matter of wage payments. If, however, the Government of India decide to proceed with their scheme, the local Government would represent that any Act which might be passed should apply to those areas only to which it might be extended by notification. The legislation could thus be confined to any advanced industrial centres where its need may be established, and this province could be excluded until circumstances are found to require these special statutory measures for which existing local conditions supply no present justification.

*Letter from the Government of Bengal, No. 986-Com., dated the 9th February, 1927.*

The letter was circulated for opinion to the various commercial bodies usually consulted by the Government of Bengal on such questions; and the Commissioners of Divisions, who consulted the district officers, also examined the proposals in the light of local opinion and practice prevailing within their jurisdictions. The Chief Inspector of Factories and the Chief Inspector of Mines were also asked for their views and the feeling of the working classes was ascertained through Mr. K. C. Roy Chowdhury, M.L.C., who is actively connected with several local trade unions.

2. The facts regarding late payment have already been ascertained, and it will be seen that, though there is little or no dispute on points of facts, a number of reasons have been adduced to prove why legislation is not necessary. Some of these reasons are of a general, and some of a particular, nature. One type of the general arguments is that contained in the reply of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, to the effect that because restrictive measures have been found to be necessary in Europe, it does not necessarily follow that they should be introduced in India. The Chamber says that, because of the operation of the law of supply and demand, the Indian is in a stronger position than the English worker, and has not the need for the same degree of protection by the State. Another type is given in the reply of the Commissioner of the Burdwan Division, viz., that the time of payment is a question which should be settled by labour itself with its employers through its unions. On the latter question, as a general principle, the Governor in Council agrees that the problem should be settled by mutual agreement between master and workmen. The time

of payment, like the payment itself, may be looked upon as part of the contract of service, and, as a matter of policy, it is not advisable to interfere by legal measures with such contracts except in cases of necessity. With respect to the subject under discussion, the facts have been definitely established that payment in many cases is unduly delayed and that hardship results, and interference is justified to remedy a grievance which combined action by Indian workers will take many years to effect. Were the trade union movement in this country of any considerable strength, it is probable that this issue would not have to be raised by the Government of India at all. As is well known, trade unionism in India at present is in a quite embryonic stage, and such indications as exist point to its taking many years to develop sufficient strength to enforce on employers obligations regarding wages which trade unions in the West have done years ago. The Bengal Chamber of Commerce are in error if they think that the restrictive conditions of the West similar to those now suggested by the Government of India have been imposed by legislative action. The restrictive measures of the West in respect to wages are mainly the result of trade union action, and when, and if, trade unions in India develop power similar to that of Western trade unions, it is likely that they will demand the full measure of what the moderate suggestions of the Government of India now propose to give part; like Western unions, they will press for payment at the moment the contract is finished. The Indian worker in this respect is not, as the Bengal Chamber of Commerce say, in a stronger position than the English workmen, and in less need of protection by the State. There are admittedly aspects of the Indian workers' conditions which compare favourably with those of Western workers, but their power to enforce quick payment is not one of them, and it is for this reason that the Governor in Council supports the proposals of the Government of India to give him protection from proved abuse by the action of Government.

3. Several replies, while objecting to the proposals of the Government of India, declare that so far as their particular industry is concerned, there are no abuses. In such cases there can be no fear of the new measure, as the proposals of the Government of India are meant to remedy evils, and where there are no evils there will be no remedy. The commercial interests practically all point out that hitherto there have been no complaints regarding the period of payment. This contention is largely borne out by an analysis of the strike returns compiled by the Government of Bengal. The percentage of strikes, which have been caused by delay in payment, is very small, and most of them have occurred in concerns in which there has been bad management or which have been on the point of going into liquidation. It is true also that delayed payment does not materially affect employees if the payment is regular. There is the initial waiting period which may involve the contracting of debt, but once it is over, regular payment, even though late, is very much the same as regular payment at the end of the period over which the pay was earned. Even so, there is no reason either of logic or of justice why the worker should wait for appreciably long periods after the payment is earned before it is made. Even though the differences between the West and India are marked, there is no specific difference which would seem to allow for late payment. It is now a recognized principle in the West that industrial workers are paid immediately the payment is earned under the contract of engagement. They have no reserve to fall back upon, and their lives are regulated according to their earnings, which are usually paid on a weekly basis. The Indian worker similarly has little or no reserves to fall back on, and there is no valid reason why he should not be treated as industrial workers in Western countries. A common contention in this connection used to be that owners should keep a certain amount of wages in hand to have a hold over workers leaving without due notice or causing loss by carelessness, neglect, or wilful damage to property. This argument has not been advanced against the proposals of the Government of India by the commercial interests who have replied to the reference—a fact which in itself shows that the argument is out of accord with modern notions of the relationship of workers in organized industries to their employers.

4. An analysis of the particular arguments which have been brought against the proposals of the Government of India shows that not a single good reason has been adduced to prove why payment in India should not be made more quickly. The particular reasons all arise from expediency. The manager of the Darjeeling Himalayan Railway, for example, makes a reference to the difficulties arising from the pre-audit system of payments on railways. This is a real difficulty, but that it is not insurmountable is recognized by the agent himself, when he says that if prompt payment is made compulsory the post audit system will have to be introduced. A more formidable contention is put forward by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce when they say that the methods of quicker payment are impracticable. It would require a much larger clerical establishment than any industrial concern can be reasonably expected to provide, they say, to pay several thousands of men on one day or two days by the methods which have to be followed in this country. They

refer particularly to the Indian Jute Mills Association, who are reported to have stated definitely that "payments of weekly wages could not be arranged for earlier than four days after the close of the week." These arguments are not quite consistent with the Chamber's general remarks on the differences between Western and Indian labour. These differences are said to make quicker methods of payment impracticable; whereas they should actually make quicker payment easier. Although there is no difference in principle between piece rates in India and piece rates in the West, there are marked differences in the more recondite applications of the piece system, for in the West it has developed elaborations in bonus, premium bonus, and differential variations which require the highest skill in calculation. In India, however, only simple bonus schemes are in operation, requiring no highly specialized staff for calculation. In the West, even the most intricate piece systems do not prevent prompt payment; thus the argument from the point of view of difficulty of calculation in India is on the side of shorter periods. The particular argument of the Indian Jute Mills Association is even less apposite. The controlling staff of the jute mills is very largely recruited from Dundee and environs, with previous experience of the system of payment in the jute mills of that area. The wages of the jute industry are governed by Trade Board rates, which are exceedingly complicated and difficult of application; yet the argument has never been put forward that this should be a reason for the postponement of payment. In Bengal, where there is not a tithe of the difficulties that exist at Dundee, the contention is not worthy of serious consideration. It may be conceded that the payment of the wages of thousands of employees in one day will be difficult, but this contention, in the view of His Excellency in Council, can hardly be upheld against the clear justice and obvious reasonableness of the proposals of the Government of India.

5. With the general principles set out in paragraph 6 of the Government of India letter, I am to say that the Governor in Council is in agreement. The adoption of shorter periods of payment referred to in paragraphs 4 and 5 of the Government of India's letter has already been dismissed as impracticable by the Government of Bengal—*vide* their letter No. 7-T.-Com., dated the 26th May, 1925. The proposal to set statutory limits to the time in which wages must be paid is both reasonable and practicable. The periods suggested are also accepted—*viz.*, within a week of the close of the month for monthly wages, within four days for fortnightly wages, within two days for weekly wages and within one day for daily wages. The Governor in Council is not in favour of discrimination between bonuses and wages, except in the case of long periods—*i.e.*, half-yearly and annual bonuses. As already mentioned, the bonus system in vogue here is relatively simple: indeed, piecework and bonus on the work of an individual means very much the same thing, and should be paid at the same time as ordinary wages. The principle of the suggestion that the date on which the month should commence should be left to the employer, subject to the approval of the local Government, is also accepted: but if such a provision is to be included in the Act, the Government of Bengal would prefer that the approval should be subject to the Chief Inspector of Factories or the Chief Inspector of Mines.

It is undesirable to distinguish between cash and kind payment. Industrial wages should be normally taken to mean cash wages, and the mention of "kind" payment would introduce into the legislation the element of Truck, which should, if necessary, be dealt with separately. The power of exemption suggested by the Government of India is also accepted, as it will give elasticity in the application of the provisions of the legislation, but the limits within which the exemption should be permitted should be narrow and no general exemption should be permitted. Exemption should also be subject to written reasons and specified conditions. The local Government doubt the wisdom of prescribing a minimum percentage of the wages which, paid within the statutory period, would secure compliance with the law. The power of exemption should give sufficient elasticity in applying the measure; to permit anything less than full wages being the statutory requirement would open the door to multitudes of pleas among which local Governments would find much difficulty in discriminating.

6. The attention of the Government of India is particularly invited to the letter of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce so far as it concerns contractors. As the Government of India are aware, a very large proportion of work in engineering works in Bengal is done through contractors, and the difficulty mentioned in the Bengal Chamber's letter is a very important one. It will be recalled that a similar difficulty appeared when the Workmen's Compensation Act was under discussion, and that it was successfully overcome by the provisions laid down in section 12 of that Act. To exempt contractors from the provisions of the proposed legislation would largely nullify its objects, as evasion would be made possible by the simple expedient of declaring labour to be contract labour. There seem to be two possible methods of solving this problem. One is to incorporate in the law a provision parallel to section 12 of the Workmen's Compensation Act, by which if the principal were penalized

under the Act, he would be liable to be indemnified by the contractor. The other is to bring the contractors themselves within the provisions of the Act. I am to say that the Governor in Council prefers the latter alternative on the ground that it would be unfair to good employers to have to incur the odium of conviction even with possible indemnification, when they were not primarily responsible for breaking the law.

7. With respect to the enforcement and the scope of the legislation, I am to say that the views of the Government of India as contained in paragraphs 7 and 8 of the letter under reply have the general support of the Government of Bengal. Prompt recovery should be provided by some form of summary procedure, and fines should be provided for offences, with the possibility of assigning the whole or part of the fine to the injured person. The principle that the enforcement of the Act, for the reasons given by the Government of India, should depend not on the workers themselves, but on an external authority is well established in the West, particularly in the Trade Board legislation of Great Britain, under which inspectors are appointed to enforce the provisions of the Trade Boards Acts. The Government of Bengal also agree that, in the first instance, the legislation should be applied only to organized industry—*i.e.*, to concerns which come within the jurisdiction of the existing Factory and Mines legislation. It is doubted whether the evils of late payment are more common in large than in small concerns, but it is obviously impossible at the present stage of development to go beyond the bounds of existing Acts. All replies are unanimous regarding the scope of the legislation. I am, however, to say that the Governor in Council is of opinion that it should be open to local Governments to designate the officers who will be responsible for enforcing the Act. Normally the work will be done by the Factory and Mines Inspection staff. The ascertainment of the dates of payment during routine inspections will not be a heavy addition to the existing work of the department. Difficulties will arise, however, in cases of individual complaints, particularly from factories at a distance from headquarters. The Factory Inspection Department in Bengal is already heavily worked; and His Excellency in Council would hesitate normally to add to this work burdens which in any way might interfere with its main duties under the Factories Act. It is not anticipated that the accretion of duties under the proposed legislation will be heavy; but he would prefer that the legislation should permit of the appointment of district or other officers as inspectors under the Act in order to obviate journeys by Factory Inspectors, and also to facilitate the easy disposal of cases on the spot. With regard to the form that this part of the legislation should take, I am to recommend a perusal of sections 14, 15, 16 and 17 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Ed. VII Ch. 22).

*Letter from the Government of the United Provinces, No. 517, dated the 16th February, 1927.*

This Government have consulted the two Chambers of Commerce at Cawnpore, the Mazdur Sabha, the Director of Industries, the Board of Industries, the Chief Inspector of Factories, and the Superintendent, Government Press. The opinions received are divided. The United Provinces Chamber consider that the delay in paying wages is generally not deliberate, but is due to the time taken in preparation of the pay rolls, which involve a large amount of calculation. But if the facts in possession of the Government of India warrant a conclusion that payment is unreasonably delayed, the Chamber would not oppose legislation. They propose, however, that the statutory limits of time within which wages must be paid should be ten days, five days, three days and one day, respectively, for monthly, fortnightly, weekly and daily wages. But they urge that these limits should not apply to piece-work at all, and believe that the suggestion to prescribe for the payment of 75 per cent. of the wages earned for this class of work within the statutory period would lead to serious administrative difficulties. They would not confer power to prosecute on any external authority and would confine the measure to mines and factories only. The Upper India Chamber begins by protesting "respectfully but very emphatically against the ever-increasing tendency on the part of the Government of India to favour the introduction of legislative measures in connection with industrial labour employed in factories, which measures are almost invariably in the direction of improving the conditions and the class-power of labour at the expense of the employer." They assert that such legislation has constituted a handicap on industrial expansion and that the continued tendency to favour labour at the expense of the employer will shortly constrain the employer to claim protection against his labourers. They impress upon the Government their feeling that the country is not ripe for the labour conditions which the Government are attempting to impose on it by legislation. Turning to details, the Chamber deny that the information collected by the Government of India reveals an unsatisfactory state of affairs. It is not alarming that monthly wages should be paid from 10 to 15 days after the close of the month.

In a large factory this period is the minimum necessary for calculating the wages due and the price of piece-work. They admit that in some cases hardship results in the first month of employment, but this is alleviated by the readiness of employers to make advances during that period. If legislation is to be enforced, they would increase the statutory period from a week to ten or twelve days for monthly payments, and from four to seven or ten days for fortnightly payments. They strongly protest against vesting in any external authority the power to prosecute. They would not confine the measure to factories and mines, but would extend it to all Government services, tea gardens, plantations, in fact all employers of labour, especially railways and municipalities where the delay is as great or greater than in factories.

2. The Director of Industries is not aware of any hardship caused to workmen by the delay in payment of wages, and neither he nor the Board of Industries see any need for legislation in this province.

3. On the other hand, the Mazdur Sabha, the Chief Inspector of Factories and the Superintendent, Government Press, consider legislation necessary. The Mazdur Sabha would fix five days, three days, and one day for monthly, fortnightly and weekly payments, respectively. They would confine legislation to mine and factories, and would for the present vest in the inspecting staff the power to prosecute. When the Sabha is well organized it will, they think, be able to enforce the law on the employers. The Chief Inspector states that the Cawnpore mills generally take from ten to fifteen days to pay wages, and he thinks legislation would serve a useful purpose in reducing this period. He would grant the power to prosecute to an external authority such as an inspector of factories. The Superintendent, Government Press, states that employers withhold payment of fifteen days as "this period coincides with the period of notice customarily demanded from monthly workers before they leave service." He holds that delays favour the operations of the moneylender. He would introduce legislation to compel monthly payments within ten days, and not seven as proposed by the Government of India. He thinks that these ten days will be more than sufficient for the reckoning of wages, and will give employers ample safeguard against desertion of workers. As to the authority to prosecute, he would give powers both to the workmen and the external authority. Finally, he urges that the evil is not confined to large establishments only. The small employer is just as ready as the large to safeguard himself against desertion by postponing wages. He would therefore extend the measure to all establishments where 20 or more workers are employed.

4. Opinions for and against legislation are thus fairly evenly balanced. Employers generally oppose the proposal and employees welcome it. This Government think that there is something to be said on both sides. There are two main causes of the delay in paying wages. One is inevitable; the other is not. The first cause is the time which must be taken to calculate the workmen's dues. This calculation is not a simple matter. Owing to fines and to absenteeism it takes a long time in a big factory to calculate the wages due to workmen. If piece wages are paid the time will probably be longer. That this is a real difficulty is proved by the delays which occurred in district boards, even under official chairmen, in paying the wages of teachers. The difficulty arises in calculating pay for men who have been on leave or fined or promoted. At least ten days are probably required for the payment of monthly wages. The second cause of delay is avoidable. It is due to the employer's desire to postpone payment in order to prevent discontented employees from leaving as soon as they get their pay. A discontented workman receiving his pay on the fourth or fifth day of the month may be ready to resign his post without giving notice and to forfeit the four or five days pay due. But a postponement of payment for ten or fifteen days ties him to the factory. The longer the employer defers payment the stronger is the tie. The employer's anxiety to retain his labour is intelligible in a country where a labourer is only a part-time industrialist, ready to drift back to the land on the least discouragement, and to leave his employer in the lurch. None the less, in so far as the employer's action is an interference with the labourer's right to seek employment where he will, it ought not to be countenanced by the State.

5. None of the critics of this measure have remarked that after the first period of waiting, wages are actually paid monthly, even though delayed. For example, if a labourer is employed on 1st January, he may get no pay until 20th February. If the factory continues to delay his wages, he will thereafter get his pay on 20th March, 20th April, and so on. A variation of one or two days on either side makes no difference. If the workman can get an advance during the first six or seven weeks when he draws no wages, he will suffer no hardship from the recurrent postponement of pay. If he wishes to resign, and gives notice at the beginning of the month, he would be entitled when paid on the 20th day of the month to draw his wage also for the 20 days.

6. This Government consider that the demand for the measure in this province is insignificant, possibly because delay in payment ceases to operate as a hardship after the first period of waiting. On general grounds they think it undesirable to add to the rapidly growing volume of labour legislation a measure which employees generally have not asked for, and which employers strongly oppose. In this view they are influenced also by the prospective difficulty of enforcing the law. It would be necessary to appoint numerous inspectors and they would be difficult to supervise. As the arguments against legislation appear considerably stronger than the reasons in favour of it, this Government are opposed to proceeding with it.

*Letter from the Government of Bombay, No. 5773/859/D., dated the 16th February, 1927.*

In considering legislation of the kind proposed the Governor in Council agrees with the view expressed by the Government of India in their letter under reference that if abuses can be checked or eliminated by legislation, it is the duty of Government to introduce such legislation. It is, however, essential first to ascertain whether the evil, it is desired to eradicate is a real one, and prevails to such an extent as to justify the somewhat drastic remedy of penal legislation with its natural accompaniments—interference with long established methods of conducting business and an addition to the expenditure of local Governments. Such considerations would carry no weight if the lot of the workers in this Presidency could be improved by legislation of the kind proposed, and it is necessary, therefore, to examine the proposed legislation and the assumptions on which it rests in order to see if the conditions laid down have been fulfilled.

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

3. *Scope of the Measure.*—As has been mentioned in a previous paragraph, opinion is overwhelmingly in favour of confining such legislation, if it is necessary, to establishments subject to the Factories and Mines Acts, the main reason for such limitation being the practical impossibility of enforcement if it were made generally applicable. The Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation are in agreement with the Government of India as regards the difficulties which must arise in legislation of this sort and these are such that legislation could only affect those concerns coming under the Factories or Mines Acts. "This appears to be one of the weaknesses of the whole scheme," says the Federation, "as it restricts the legislation to concerns which are generally well organized, and where abuses are less likely to be found and leaves the smaller concerns entirely free to carry on as they please. If it is not possible to make legislation of this nature universal it were better left alone altogether." The

workers' interests generally agree to this limited application, but suggest that State employment, railways, municipalities and all organized industries in large establishments should be covered, while the Central Labour Board is of opinion that it should also be extended to other industrial concerns "where the more intellectual classes such as clerks are employed." The Bombay Textile Labour Union recognize that additional staff would have to be employed, but consider it is worth while incurring this extra expenditure.

4. The Governor in Council, for the reasons given in previous paragraphs, is unable to accept this view, because he believes that the measure could not be enforced outside establishments under the Factories and Mines Acts where, as has been pointed out, there is little cause for complaint that wages are not paid regularly. The Governor in Council, however, concurs with the view expressed by the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, and one or two other officials, that even if the Act is restricted in its scope, power should be taken under the Act to extend it, if necessary, the power being vested in the local Governments.

5. *Method of Enforcement.*—Opinion on this subject is largely in favour of the responsibility for enforcing legislation being confined to the existing Factories' and Mines staff. The Chairman of the Bombay Port Trust considers that the procedure to be adopted in regard to inspections should be very carefully defined, it being clearly desirable to avoid all unnecessary interference with the internal management of the concerns affected. "It would probably be sufficient in most cases if the employers were required to furnish periodical certified returns showing the period and date of disbursement of their staff wages." The workers' interests, however, favour an "outside and independent agency" to enforce the Act. The Chief Presidency Magistrate is of opinion that it should be open to any workman to institute proceedings on his own initiative, prosecutions by inspecting officers of the Factories or Mines Departments being merely an additional facility. The late Sir Lallubhai Shah, Judge, Bombay High Court, was of opinion that the power to prosecute should not be given to any external authority such as an inspecting staff, but a provision should be inserted granting any number of workmen from the same establishment the power to join in one proceeding. The more general opinion seems to be that in the present state of the organization of labour, the Act would be a dead letter if it were left to the workers to initiate prosecutions. The Chief Inspector of Factories suggests that work under the proposed measure in districts would entail considerable expenditure and waste of time, in the event of prosecution being considered necessary, which could be reduced a great deal if *ex-officio* inspectors (local officials) were empowered to act as prosecuting officers. The Bombay European Textile Association objects that the duties of the Factory Inspector should not entail having to take sides between employers and employees where wages are concerned.

6. The Governor in Council has given careful consideration to the various suggestions that have been made, but he is unable to agree that the power of putting the penal law in motion should be given to any other authority than the officials who would be responsible for administering the Act, that is Factory Inspectors. The Director of Information and Labour Intelligence points out that a clear distinction should be drawn between procedure for the prompt recovery of wages due to a worker and the punishment of an employer for an infringement of the law. A workman or an organization of workmen can draw attention to breaches of the Act, and ask for the law to be put in motion, but the initiation of proceedings should be in the hands of the administrative authority. The Governor in Council concurs with this view, and is opposed to any suggestion that the power to prosecute should be given to private individuals or associations of individuals.

7. *Statutory Limits of Wage Payments.*—The Governor in Council agrees with the view expressed in paragraph 5 of the Government of India's letter that a Bill providing for the weekly payment of wages is not likely to receive the support of public opinion or to prove effective in its operation. After the general strike in the Bombay mills in the early part of 1924, His Excellency the Governor interested himself in the question of the fortnightly payments of wages and the Millowners' Association took steps to ascertain the views of the millhands themselves. Replies were received from practically all the mills in the city and island of Bombay, and, with the exception of two mills, all the operatives expressed themselves as being in favour of the continuance of the present system of monthly payments. It was pointed out by one group of mills that in 1912 they made the experiment of fortnightly payments, but the attempt had to be given up owing to the opposition from the workpeople. The workers' interests, who have dealt with this point in their reply to the Government of India's letter, recognize that the system of monthly payment is the one most favoured by the workers. The Social Service League has, however, every hope that public opinion will soon be unanimous for weekly payment of wages, while the Bombay Textile Labour Union feels confident that, if the advantages accruing from a weekly system of wage payments were fully explained to the workers, they would withdraw their

opposition, and agree to the system of payments for shorter periods. One labour organization, however, definitely states that the monthly system of wages is more advantageous to the majority of workers. The Bombay European Textile Association point out that the Association had approved of the fortnightly payment of wages, but when their members were instructed by their respective employers to persuade the operatives employed under them to accept this system, they were in almost every case informed by the operatives themselves that any departure from the present monthly system would be detrimental to their interests. The operatives refused to accept any change from the present system, and said that any attempt to change would be met by a strike.

8. The Governor in Council is in entire agreement with the views expressed almost unanimously by well-informed opinion. The legislation, therefore, should deal only with wages paid under the existing system, which in the Bombay Presidency is almost universally monthly, the chief exception being in the Ahmedabad mills. As has been pointed out above, legislation will to all intents and purposes benefit only the irregular or casual worker, and the workers taking up employment for the first time, and in view of these limited benefits it is necessary to examine the reasons for the present system of paying wages from 10 to 15 days after the end of the month, and to see whether this period could not be altered, without undue disorganization of the industries concerned.

9. *Period within which Wages should be paid.*—The Bombay Chamber of Commerce point out that any acceleration of the payment of wages, *i.e.*, in less than 15 days could not be enforced without a general revision of the period for making up accounts. The obstacle in the way of payment of monthly wages within a shorter period than 15 days after "making-up day" are (1) the difficulty of introducing satisfactory mechanical timekeeping appliances; (2) the considerable amount of clerical labour which would be involved owing to the fact that overtime is worked up to the last day of the month, and men are employed on different grades of work at varying rates of pay; and (3) the delays incidental to workpeople being employed at a distance from headquarters. The Chamber point out that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to pay within one week, specially in the case of railways and many public bodies, owing to the delay in getting in paysheets and having them checked and returned. The Bombay Engineering Employers' Federation are very strongly of the opinion that a fortnight from the end of the period under calculation for monthly payments, and a week for fortnightly payments is the absolute minimum that should be allowed. The Bombay Millowners' Association think that the rights of labour would be sufficiently protected if legislation is enacted prohibiting the withholding of wages for more than a fortnight after they have become due. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association has no objection to restricting the period of payment for monthly wage earners to 10 days. The spinners and weavers in the Ahmedabad mills receive their wages every fortnight, on the eighth day after they become due, and the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association are strongly opposed to any departure being made from this practice. The Karachi Chamber of Commerce think that ten days would be a reasonable period for monthly workers and five days for fortnightly, three days for weekly and the following day in the case of casual workers paid by the day for a day's work; but this should not be made to apply to employees who, though working on a daily wage, are in effect permanently employed and are paid monthly, the daily being merely the basis of computing the monthly sum due. The Bombay Port Trust consider six days a reasonable period counting Sundays and holidays as *dies non*. The Karachi Port Trust is prepared to make arrangements so as to enable payments being made within a week of the close of the month. The Municipal Commissioner thinks that the period of payment would have to be extended to fourteen days or at least the tenth working day after the close of the month. The Central Labour Board can see no reason why wages should not be paid after five days, or after two days in the case of payments made fortnightly. The Bombay Textile Labour Union suggests a week and four days respectively, two days in the case of weekly wages and the same day for daily wages. The Ahmedabad Labour Union would allow three to four days in the case of fortnightly wages.

10. The Governor in Council after due consideration of all the views expressed concurs with those of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, and desires to draw attention to the remarks made by that officer. The Governor in Council again wishes to emphasize the fact that in organized industries wages are already paid *regularly*, and the practical benefit of reducing the period within which wages must be paid after they become due is very small. The Governor in Council, therefore, is inclined to the view that so far as piece workers are concerned, 14 days should be allowed after the end of the month, but in the case of workers on time rates the period should be seven days. In the Ahmedabad mill industry, where payment on a fortnightly basis is general—the men affected being mostly pieceworkers—and for fortnightly wages generally, the period should be seven days. For weekly workers



it should be three days, but where workers are engaged from day to day they should be paid off at the end of each day. The Governor in Council desires to draw attention to the remarks of the Karachi Port Trust, the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence and others, and to point out that it is important in framing legislation that the period for which wages are paid and the rate at which they are calculated, should be kept distinct, because workers may be engaged on weekly or daily rates of pay, but may be paid once a month or once a fortnight or once a week as the case may be.

11. Employers should also be empowered to fix the date upon which they elect to begin and close the month, and to fix different dates for different departments.

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

13. *Limitations of Wages to Payments in Cash.*—Only two opinions have been received on this subject, both of which are in favour of payments in cash. The Governor in Council does not consider that any expression of opinion is called for upon this question, as it could more appropriately be dealt with in any legislation which might be considered necessary as the result of the enquiry which is now being conducted at the request of the Government of India into the question of fines in industry and deductions from wages.

14. *Penalties for Infringement.*—None of the non-official bodies consulted and very few officials have expressed any opinion as to the extent of the penalty. The Governor in Council concurs with the suggestion of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence that penalties might be fixed at Rs. 100 for the first offence, Rs. 250 for the second offence and Rs. 500 for third and subsequent offences. The fines recovered under the Act should be credited to the Public Treasury in the same way as the fines inflicted for any breach of the law.

15. *Exemptions.*—The Governor in Council is of opinion that power should be reserved to local Governments to grant exemptions from the Act in cases where special circumstances render this necessary.

16. *Payment of Wages for Broken Periods.*—Several questions have been raised in the course of the enquiry regarding points not specifically covered by the Government of India's letter. The most important relate to the question of the forfeiture and withholding of wages. The period of notice in any particular industry varies, and is largely a question of customs which it will be difficult to deal with by legislation, but the question of payment for broken periods should be considered. The Ahmedabad Millowners' Association point out that it is the practice in the Ahmedabad mills not to pay wages to operatives unless they put in a full seven days, and the Association strongly objects to any departure being made from this practice. The Social Service League point out that in some mills in Bombay the discharged employees are not paid there and then, but are asked to wait until the next pay day, but if they want their wages paid at once they have to pay some commission or discount. This is called the Havala system. The League say that this system is unfair to workmen, and when a month's previous notice has been given or received by the employer, there is no reason why the employee should have to pay any commission for securing his wages for the work already done by him. The complaint of the employers, however, is that workers leave without any notice at all, and it is in order to endeavour to check this practice that wages are sometimes kept in hand. Attention is also drawn to the practice of forfeiting wages not claimed within six months, and to the fact that within that period of six months wages are only paid on certain fixed days. The Bombay Textile Labour Union draws attention to the hardship upon workers who are not paid off when they are discharged or given notice, and to the question of forfeiture after six months.

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

MEMORANDUM RELATING TO SEAMEN BY THE DEPARTMENT OF  
COMMERCE (GOVERNMENT OF INDIA).

I.—Recruitment.

5. The recruitment of seamen is governed by Section 25 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act (Act XXI of 1923), according to which no person shall engage or supply a seaman to be entered on board any ship in British India unless that person either holds a licence under the Act for the purpose, or is the owner or master or mate of the ship, or is *bona fide* the servant and in the constant employ of the owner, or is a shipping master. Under Section 25 (2), no person shall employ, for the purpose of engaging or supplying a seaman to be entered on board any ship in British India, any person unless that person either holds a licence under the Act for the purpose, or is the owner or master or mate of the ship, or is *bona fide* the servant and in the constant employment of the owner, or is a shipping master. Licences have been issued in the past by the local Governments under Section 24 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act to persons to engage or supply seamen for merchant ships in British India. Such licences, which are liable to be revoked, are now granted by the Governor General in Council for such period and under such terms and conditions as he thinks proper.

As a result of the recommendation of the Seamen's Recruitment Committee, the question of revising the system of recruitment of seamen at the principal ports of Calcutta and Bombay has been engaging the attention of the Government of India for some time past, and it has recently been decided that there should be two methods of recruitment of serangs and butlers (the leading ratings), either of which may be adopted by the shipping companies.

The first method is recruitment by the ship-owners or their agents direct. This method has been followed by the British India Steam Navigation Company at Calcutta, and Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company at Bombay, for some time past; and most of the shipping companies at Calcutta have agreed to adopt it for the recruitment of their leading ratings. It has also been adopted by the British India Steam Navigation Company and one or two of the smaller companies at Bombay. The system which it is proposed to adopt is as follows:—

(1) The companies will maintain registers of the serangs and butlers in their regular employ.

(2) The selection of serangs and butlers will be done at their own offices by their own marine superintendents, chief officers, chief engineers, etc.

(3) Preference will, as far as possible, be given to men on the register who have been longest out of employ.

(4) The broker will not be employed in any capacity in the selection.

(5) Intimation that a crew is wanted will be given, not through a broker, but by means of a notice board at the companies' offices. This notice will specify the ship for which the crew is required and will give the date and hour at which the leading ratings will be selected.

(6) On the date fixed, the leading ratings will assemble and the selection will be made from those present.

(7) The lower ratings will be recruited by the marine superintendents or the ship's officers or a regular employee of the firm with the aid of the leading ratings.

The second method is the recruitment of the leading ratings through the shipping office by means of an employment register for serangs and butlers, and selection at an open muster. This method has been devised for ship-owners or agents, who may not find it possible to make the necessary arrangements for the adoption of the first method. According to this method an employment register of serangs and butlers will be maintained in the shipping offices. Here, again, intimation that a crew is wanted will be given, not through the brokers, but by a notice on the notice board at the shipping office. The notice will specify the ship for which a crew is required and the date and hour at which the leading ratings will be selected. At the time stated the owners or agents' officers or the ships' officers will attend and select the leading ratings from among those present at the open muster. The lower ratings will be recruited by the officers of the owners' or agents' or by the ships' officers.

It is hoped that the adoption of these systems of recruitment will remove the broker entirely from all connection with the selection of the leading ratings, and will limit his employment as an intermediary in the recruitment of the lower ratings almost entirely to the supply of men to fill vacancies occurring immediately prior to the vessels' departure.

At Calcutta it was the practice prior to the year 1925 to grant, on payment of the prescribed fee, first issue continuous discharge certificates marked "No previous sea service" to all applicants applying for these certificates, respective of whether

they had obtained employment. These new recruits, about 10,000 annually, joined the ranks of seamen waiting for employment, and possibly the majority sooner or later got away to sea as "first voyagers." The annual addition of this large number to the ranks of seamen waiting for employment at the port only served to accentuate the unemployment problem and to intensify the post-war outcry in regard to unemployment.

In 1925 the number of new recruits enrolled out of the applicants attending daily was gradually reduced under the orders of the shipping master, and at the end of the year this method of enrolment was stopped altogether. According to the present practice, "first voyage certificates" are only issued on the receipt of a written undertaking from the ships' officers to the effect that the men will be signed on for the current voyage, and then only to those who have passed the medical examination held by the ship's medical officer. Under this procedure the number enrolled each year is about 5,000.

Sukhanes (quartermasters) at Calcutta, are selected at an open muster held at the shipping office. The selection is made by the marine superintendents of the shipping firms or by the ships' officers.

*Desirability of establishing Employment Agencies.*—The majority of lascar seamen are partly agriculturists, and after a period of service at sea often return to their homes in the districts for considerable periods. They form themselves into groups—this is particularly so in Bombay—and these groups attach themselves to head ratings who belong to their districts and whom they know. They will seldom agree to be employed unless their friends are engaged on the same vessel. In fact, the serang is the crew. He takes the chief part in their selection and is responsible for the efficient working of the lower ratings under him. In these circumstances it is more than doubtful whether any employment agency could be worked with success.

## II.—Organization of Managing Staff.

13. Complaints against the master or officers of a ship under Section 92 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, are few and far between. Relations between the superior staff and the seamen appear to be satisfactory.

## III.—Housing.

16, 18 and 19. With the exception of a certain amount of housing provided by employers in Calcutta for seamen employed on inland steam vessels, housing is not provided for Indian seamen by employers, Government or other public agency.

In Calcutta, a small percentage of Indian seamen—those who have made their homes in Calcutta—live in their own homes.

With the above minor exceptions, Indian seamen, while ashore at the ports and not at their homes in the districts, live in so-called boarding homes belonging to private landlords. The Goanese seamen (the saloon crew), when ashore in port, live in "clubs" run by themselves.

Indian seamen do not live with their families in the seaport towns. Their families remain at their homes in the districts. The accommodation supplied by the "boarding houses" is, therefore, of the simplest, and several men usually share one room. The boarding houses in Calcutta are generally of a poor character, chiefly of the single-storied tiled type; dark, damp and unhealthy looking.

The clubs in which the Goanese live provide similar accommodation, but of a considerably better character. The accommodation provided is usually fully utilized.

20. *Bombay.*—The usual rent paid by the Indian seamen is Re. 1 per month. In the Goanese clubs the monthly charge varies from Re. 1-8 annas to Rs. 3.

*Calcutta.*—The Indian seaman pays a rent of 8 annas a month, Rs. 6 a year, for his accommodation in the boarding house whether he occupies it or not. In the Goanese club the annual charge is about Rs. 12.

*Rangoon.*—The charge in the boarding houses for Indian seamen is reported to be Re. 1-8 annas per month.

## IV.—Health.

23. The general condition of health of Indian seamen may be described as good. They are medically examined before being signed on for employment on board a ship. In Calcutta, the average number who fail to pass the doctor may be taken at 8 per cent. The most usual causes for rejection by the doctor are venereal disease, respiratory troubles and skin complaints. The agreement with seamen is in the form

sanctioned by the Government of India under Sections 27 and 28 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923. This form prescribes the latitudinal and time limits of the voyage or voyages, and provides for the free supply of warm clothing to the crew and the heating of their quarters in case the vessel proceeds to certain latitudes during the winter months. A scale of provision is included in the agreement and at the commencement of every foreign-going voyage the shipping master inspects the crews' provisions and water in the presence of the serangs. The Act also provides for complaints from seamen regarding bad or insufficient food or water and for compensation therefor to seamen. Provision is also made in the Merchant Shipping law in regard to accommodation and medical attendance of seamen on board ships. The accommodation must be properly ventilated and protected from the weather and the sea, and the minimum space required for each lascar seaman is specified—*vide* Sections 198 to 211 of the English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 ; Sections 25–27, 34 and 64 of the English Act of 1906 ; and Sections 85–91 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923. Due precaution is thus taken for the health of seamen on board ship.

No reliable figures of mortality among seamen are available as the majority die in districts where their homes are. The figures of mortality on board ship among lascar seamen engaged at the port of Bombay for the last three years are as follows :— 1926–27, 141 ; 1927–28, 126 ; 1928–29, 102.

24. The Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Section 209) requires a doctor to be carried by every foreign-going ship, as defined in that Act, which has 100 persons or more on board. The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923 (Sections 184 and 201), also provides for a doctor when more than 100 passengers or pilgrims are carried between Indian and Red Sea ports. When no doctor is carried, any illness or injury to a seaman at sea is attended to by the master, who is instructed by the Medical Guide prescribed for the purpose by the Board of Trade. Serious cases, or cases requiring hospital treatment, are left in hospital at the first port of call. In urgent cases at sea, the master can obtain medical advice by wireless from any port within call or any vessel within call, which carries a doctor. In case of illness or injury on board a vessel in port which carries no doctor, the practice is to get a doctor from the shore. Most, if not all, shipping companies employ a doctor on shore for this purpose. In the case of hurt or injury in the service of the ship, or illness not due to the wilful act or default of the seamen, all medical and maintenance expenses incurred until the seamen is cured or returned to his home port or dies (and in the latter case the expenses of burial), are payable by the owner of the ship.

At the port of Calcutta, sick seamen are admitted for treatment into the Presidency General Hospital, the Campbell Hospital, the Mayo Hospital and the Howrah Hospital. Hospital charges are met from the Hospital Port Dues Fund, constituted under Section 49 of the Indian Ports Act.

In Rangoon, free treatment is given at the following hospitals, to which seamen are sent by the port health officer and medical officers attending the ships :—(1) The General Hospital, Rangoon ; (2) The Contagious Disease Hospital, Rangoon ; and (3) The Ram Krishna Hospital, in East Rangoon.

In Bombay, seamen are treated in the Jamsetjee Jeejibhoy, Goculdas Tajpal, and other hospitals.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. There is no recognized institution in Bombay connected with the welfare of Indian seamen. The establishment of an Indian Sailors' Home in Bombay, has been under consideration for some time, and a committee appointed by Government is now considering the whole question. The Bombay Port Trust have already agreed to provide a suitable site or sites free of charge for the purpose and it is expected that the institution will come into existence before long. In Calcutta and Rangoon no institute caters especially for the welfare of Indian seamen. The existing Sailors' Home in Calcutta, is at present purely an institution for non-Indian officers and seamen. The home is being replaced by another institution to be called the Marine Club. Under the Memoranda and Articles of Association of the new (Marine) Club, Indian seamen are not excluded from the possible future benefits arising from the club.

36. So far as is known, no special facilities exist for the education of lascar seamen and their children.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

Since April, 1926, all the shipping companies have consented to the insertion in the Articles of Agreement of a clause by which they agree to pay compensation in cases of injury to or death by accident of any lascar or other native seamen in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923. Before that date, Indian seamen employed on vessels registered in the United

Kingdom were entitled to compensation under the English Act of 1906 and not under the Indian Act. The present arrangement is much more satisfactory, as it enables claims to be dealt with sooner and the claimants can appeal to the commissioner for workmen's compensation in case they are not satisfied with the compensation received. The decision of the commissioner is final.

### IX.—Hours.

55. There are no legislative provisions, stipulations arising out of collective agreements, or arbitration decisions or awards regulating the working periods on board ship. It is only by custom that the period of work is regulated, and the working periods vary with different ratings and also to some extent on different lines. There is, therefore, no standard time-table in force, but the hours of work are generally as follows:—

*Deck Hands.*—At sea, from about 5.30 a.m. or 6 a.m. to 5 p.m. or 5.30 p.m., with two intervals of one hour each for meals and one hour's duty on look-out. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays and Sundays. On Saturdays from 5.30 a.m. or 6 a.m. to 2 p.m. or 1 p.m., with one hour off for meals, and on Sundays from 5.30 or 6 a.m. to 9 a.m. In port from 6 a.m. to 5.30 p.m., with the same intervals for meals and shorter hours as above on Saturdays and Sundays.

*Engine Room Crew.*—At sea, the crew is divided into watches. Each watch is four hours on duty and 8 hours off duty. In port, the hours of duty are from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m., with intervals for meals as above. Shorter hours are worked on Saturdays—7 a.m. to 2 p.m., with one hour off—and no work is done on Sundays, except that necessary to maintain lighting and sanitary services.

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

The men are, however, liable to be called out at any time in case of emergency. Such emergencies occur seldom and overtime is avoided as far as possible. When overtime becomes necessary, it is the general practice to give the men compensating time off as opportunity occurs during ordinary working hours. Complaints regarding overwork or overtime are unknown.

56. The days worked per week are six to six and a half approximately.

The Thirteenth Maritime Session of the International Labour Conference to be held in October, 1929, will consider the question of the regulation of the hours of work on board ship, and their deliberations will show how far it is feasible or advisable to regulate the hours of work for seamen employed on board ships.

### XII.—Wages.

96. Lists are appended showing the prevailing rates of wages and the wages paid before the war by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company (Appendix A).<sup>\*</sup> These rates are slightly higher than those paid by other companies. Lists showing the rates of wages paid by other shipping companies in Bombay are also attached (Appendix B).<sup>\*</sup> A list of wages prevailing at the port of Calcutta since 1923, on ships other than those belonging to the British India Steam Navigation Company, Limited, is also attached (Appendix C).<sup>\*</sup> The wages paid by the British India Steam Navigation Company, Limited, are slightly higher than these. The present rates of wages in Calcutta are generally from 33 per cent. to 50 per cent. above pre-war rates. The rates of seamen's wages in the port of Rangoon, although based on wages prevailing at Calcutta, are slightly higher owing to local conditions.

101. Wages are not fixed by agreement, but the wages paid are entered on the Articles of Agreement under which the seamen are signed on. The present Bombay rates of wages (excluding those paid by the P. & O.) were fixed by the Liners' Conference and to this extent are standardized. Wages vary at the different ports and some companies pay slightly higher rates than other companies for particular ratings.

104. The labour supply being greater than the demand, it is not affected by wage changes. Moreover, the changes in wages during recent years have on the whole been to the seamen's advantage.

105. It is not considered necessary to fix minimum wages.

<sup>\*</sup> Not printed. The rates are given in Memoranda of Government of Bombay and Messrs. Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co. (Vol. I, Part I, pages 71 and 545-546); and also in Memorandum of Capt. R. Liddle (Vol. V, Part I, pages 364-365).

106. (i) Fines deducted from the wages of Indian seamen for breach of discipline on board do not in the aggregate amount to large sums. These fines are deducted from the wages of the seamen when they are paid off and are credited to Government by the shipping master. At Bombay, the amount credited during the last three years has been as follows :—1926–27, Rs. 682 ; 1927–28, Rs. 729 ; 1928–29, Rs. 593.

(ii) Other deductions from wages provided in the agreement are for embezzlement or wilful or negligent destruction of ships' cargo or stores, and for fines imposed by the customs' authorities for contraband goods found on board. The offence must be supported by a log entry. An entry inflicting a fine in the case of Indian seamen is frequently cancelled by the master at the termination of voyage if the seaman's subsequent conduct has been good.

(iii) Fines are not utilized for any special purpose.

107. Wages are paid on the termination of the voyage and completion of the agreement. An advance of one month's wages is usually made when the crew are signed on and further advances may be made during the voyage at the discretion of the master. The English Merchant Shipping Act provides for the final payment of wages within two days of discharge (Section 134) ; while under the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, payment must be made within five days after discharge or within three days after delivery of the cargo, whichever first happens (*vide* Section 47).

108. Indebtedness of seamen in Calcutta is extensive. It is reported that in the deck department, 85 per-cent. of the lascars are in debt and the average rate of their indebtedness is Rs. 25. The minimum debt is stated to be Rs. 15 and the maximum Rs. 700. In the engine room department, 95 per cent. are in debt, with an average rate of indebtedness of Rs. 30, the limits varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 1,000. In the saloon department, 75 per cent. are in debt, with limits varying between Rs. 25 to Rs. 1,000, and the average being Rs. 35. Taking all these departments together, the average rate of interest paid on loans varies from 75 to 150 per cent. It is roughly estimated that the total amount lent amounts to as much as 4 or 5 lakhs of rupees.

As regards indebtedness in Bombay we have very little information. The shipping master reports that when seamen have been out of employment for a long time and have no money, they borrow from other seamen or from serangs or ghat serangs, and pay back the loan when they get employment. He adds that in Bombay, professional money-lenders do not lend money to seamen, on account of their frequent absences and because their homes are not in Bombay.

### XIII.—Efficiency.

Certificates of efficiency as lifeboatmen are now granted by the Board of Trade officials in the United Kingdom, and by port officers in India. Seamen may appear for examination to obtain such certificates, and are encouraged to do so by the shipping companies. The increased employment of Indian seamen in recent years would seem to indicate that they are reasonably efficient. It also appears from informal enquiries made by shipping masters that ships' officers are of opinion that there has been considerable improvement in the general efficiency of Indian crews during the last year. This is partly accounted for by the medical examination which precedes engagement and by the closer scrutiny of the men's records, as shown by their continuous discharge certificates by the ship's officers at the time of selecting the crews.

### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

117. Indian seamen have organized themselves into several unions. At Calcutta there are at present four unions :—The Indian Seamen's Union, the Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union, the Indian Quartermasters' Union and the Mariners' and Workers' Union. The Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union is a new body, having come into existence owing to a split in the Indian Seamen's Union. The Mariners' and Workers' Union is a body which professes to represent Port Trust dock and marine employees. At Bombay there are two unions :—The Indian Seamen's Union and the Bombay Seamen's Union. The former union comprises about half the total number of Goanese seamen who are employed as butlers, cooks, waiters, general servants, etc. (known as the saloon or purser's department), and about a quarter or one-third of the seamen employed in the deck and engine room departments, the majority of whom are Muhammadans and the remainder Hindus. Punjabis and Pathans, who are mostly employed in the engine room department in the P. & O. S. N. Co., do not belong to the Union, neither do the deck crews of the same company, who are Muhammadans from the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay Seamen's Union is composed of the Goanese seamen employed in the P. & O. S. N. Co. There is also a seamen's union at Karachi.

The numerical strength of the unions mentioned above is reported to be as follows:—The Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta, about 8,000; the Indo-Asiatic Seamen's Union, about 2,000; the Indian Quartermasters' Union, Calcutta, about 1,500; the Mariners' and Workers' Union, Calcutta, not known; the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, about 21,500; the Seamen's Union, Bombay, about 8,500; the Seamen's Union, Karachi, 25.

118. The organizations mentioned above do not appear to have had much effect on the conditions generally of the employees. Attention is, however, invited to the attached note prepared by the Government of Bombay regarding the seamen's unions in that Presidency (Appendix D).

119. The aim of all the associations and unions is the protection of the interests and the improvement of conditions of their workers.

120. (i) The history of the several unions mentioned above is not available, but brief particulars regarding the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, will be found in the constitution and rules of the union and in the notes prepared by the Government of Bombay (Appendix D).

(ii) In Bombay the majority of seamen in the deck and engine room departments do not belong to the unions and evidently have no use for them. In Calcutta only a small percentage of the seamen belong to the unions. The Indian Quartermasters' Union, Calcutta, is, however, believed to be well representative of the quartermasters. This union is better organized than the others. The workers or members appear, in practice, to exercise very little control over the management of the union.

(iii) The relations of the Bombay Seamen's Union with the P. & O. S. N. Co., seem to be of a friendly and co-operative nature. Relations between the shipping companies and the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay, are not of this character, as this union is reported to have adopted a dictatorial and obstructive attitude on several occasions.

121. The only union registered as a trade union under the Trade Unions Act, 1926, is the Indian Seamen's Union, Bombay.

#### XV.—Strikes and Lock-outs.

123. In the port of Bombay there have been no strikes and lock-outs in recent years. In 1926 a dispute took place between the Indian Seamen's Union and the licensed shipping brokers. Although referred to as a strike, it was not a regular industrial dispute in the sense in which the term is generally understood.

In Calcutta there has been only one industrial dispute affecting Indian seamen (other than seamen employed on inland steam vessels) during the period 1921–28. It involved 2,000 men and caused a loss of 24,000 days to the workers. The dispute arose on the question of pay but ended in failure.

124. The shipping master is open to receive and hear grievances of seamen and represent the same to the shipping companies.

The English Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (Sections 137 and 211) and the Indian Merchant Shipping Act of 1923 (Sections 42 and 92) provide for settlement of disputes regarding wages, and for facilities for seamen to make complaints against the master or any of the crew to a magistrate, British consular officer or officer in command of one of His Majesty's ships. The Articles of Agreement also provide for the representation of grievances to certain authorities in the United Kingdom, British colonial ports or foreign ports.

No use has so far been made of the Employer's and Workmen's (Disputes) Act IX of 1860.

#### APPENDIX D.

Trade combinations amongst seamen in Bombay City date as far back as the year 1919. The Asiatic Seamen's Union and the Portuguese Seafarers' Union were the earliest formations which amalgamated together in April, 1921, under the name of the Indian Seamen's Union. This union was composed of Goans working as saloon crews, and the main object for the formation of this union was to secure rotation of employment for its members by insisting that all requisitions for saloon crews should be filled from persons put up by the union and not directly by the Government shipping brokers, who, it was alleged, were in the habit of offering employment to those who could and were prepared to pay the highest price for jobs. During the year 1925 the activities of the union were considerably curtailed owing to a dispute with the Government shipping brokers regarding the channels through which men

should be engaged for the shipping companies. The union contended that the brokers had agreed not to engage saloon staff except through the union, but the brokers denied this, although they used to engage a certain number of men through the union. At the beginning of the year 1926, the Government shipping brokers began to become more independent of the union owing to more non-unionists being available and the number of orders sent to the union declined. The officers of the union retaliated by refusing to allow any unionists or non-unionists to accept employment through the brokers. Active picketing was resorted to and this "strike" was reported to have cost the union nearly Rs. 20,000, which the officers of the union stated had been spent in giving relief doles to unemployed members. But this explanation of the diminution of the funds was not accepted by many of the members of the union. The position then was that the Government shipping brokers did not forward any orders at all to the union and engaged all the necessary crews they required both from non-unionist and those members of the union who refused to obey the mandate of the president of the union not to accept employment offered by the brokers. The policy of the executive created a considerable amount of discontent among the members and they refused to pay their subscriptions to the union until such time as a proper account was forthcoming of the manner in which the union's fund had been expended. The members of the union held a meeting on the 15th March, 1926, at which various questions in connection with the re-organization of the whole union were discussed. About 500 members, however, declined to continue as members under the existing management, and they decided to start a new union under the name of the Bombay Seamen's Union. By the 15th April, 1,500 persons had joined the new union and this number was doubled by the 1st June. The new union raised a special fund of Rs. 3,000 for the legal expenses in connection with the prosecution of I. J. Athaide, President of the Indian Seamen's Union, on a charge of alleged criminal misappropriation of funds amounting to over Rs. 18,000, which were held to the credit of the reserve fund of that union in the names of its president and secretary. The charge was, however, not sustained and Mr. Athaide was eventually honourably acquitted, after a protracted trial, the legal costs of the defence of which completely crippled the financial resources of the Indian Seamen's Union. In July, 1926, the Indian Seamen's Union decided to make the union thoroughly representative of all classes of seamen, and as a result of extensive propaganda work succeeded in registering 5,968 khalasis, serangs, tindals, etc., from engineering and deck crews as members. The constitution was remodelled and at a meeting of the members held on the 19th October, 1926, Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., was elected treasurer, and Mr. Syed Munawar, M.L.C., was appointed general secretary. The union was registered under the Trade Unions Act on the 1st December, 1927. Mr. N. M. Joshi was elected president of the union about the middle of the year 1928, and Mr. S. V. Parulekar, another member of the Servants of India Society, was appointed treasurer. The membership of the Indian Seamen's Union stood at 21,512 as at 1st March, 1929, and that of the Bombay Seamen's Union at 8,548. Several efforts were made by disinterested outsiders from time to time to try and bring about a reconciliation between these two unions with a view to an amalgamation. The members of the Bombay Seamen's Union, however, refused to listen to any proposal for a combination unless the Indian Seamen's Union abandoned its policy of extending its membership to departments other than saloon crews. As the latter union has now fully committed itself to the policy of admitting persons employed as deck and engine hands, a reconciliation appears to be highly improbable. A third seamen's union in the Presidency was formed at Karachi, in July, 1927, under the name of the Indian Seamen's Union, Karachi, but the membership of this union as at 1st March, 1929, stood at 25.

The following figures illustrate the growth of membership of the two unions of seamen in the Presidency:—

Name of Union.	Membership as at 1st June of—							
	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.
The Indian Seamen's Union.	10,000	10,000	11,000	12,000	11,597	15,436	19,931	21,512*
The Seamen's Union.	—	—	—	—	2,900	8,000	8,555	8,548*

\* As at 1st March, 1929.



MR. CHARLES T. LETTON, OFFG. CONTROLLER OF PRINTING AND STATIONERY, INDIA.

*Introductory.*

For the execution of the printing and binding work of the offices of the Central Government comprising the Secretariat Departments of the Government of India and their attached and subordinate offices at Simla and Delhi and the Army Headquarters, the five major presses are : (1) Government of India Press, Calcutta ; (2) Government of India Press, Delhi ; (3) Government of India Press, Simla ; (4) Government of India Press, Aligarh ; (5) Government of India Forms Press, Calcutta, and are maintained directly under the control of the Controller of Printing, Stationery, India. In addition to these, there are also certain minor presses, which, though not strictly under the administrative control of the Controller, are still subject to his technical supervision, some of which are occasionally utilized to a small extent to take up the overflow of work in the major presses in times of stress. These minor presses are : (1) The North-West Frontier Province Press, Peshawar ; (2) The Residency Press, Hyderabad ; (3) The Residency Press, Bangalore ; (4) The Central India Agency Press ; (5) The Baluchistan Agency Press. The information furnished in this memorandum relates mainly to the major presses.

**II.—Staff Organisation.**

*Recruitment and Training of Subordinate Supervising Staff—(i) Methods in force ; (ii) Facilities for training and promotion of workmen.*—Consequent on a stringent economy campaign by the Government of India relating to their printing and stationery department, which commenced about the year 1922, as well as the introduction of mechanical composition, it was necessary to make considerable reductions in the staffs of all the presses. There has since been little or no recruitment of industrial staff and where additional labour was required, it was recruited from the men who had been retrenched. Therefore, as regards the industrial staff it may be said that any special method of recruitment has for some years now been uncalled for.

Men are recruited to the permanent or temporary establishment under the orders of the manager. Candidates for the posts of readers may be required to appear in an examination to show their proficiency before they can be employed in any of the Presses. Compositors are recruited only after trial before one of the supervising officers. They are classified after three months' earnings on piece only, after which their classes are fixed according to the rules for classification of pieceworkers in the Government of India Presses.

The measures adopted for securing appointment of the members of minority communities to clerical establishment of the Government of India Offices were not previously adhered to in making appointments to the industrial establishment, but it has lately been decided by the Government of India that the procedure laid down for the recruitment to clerical establishments should also be adopted in the case of industrial establishment, subject to the condition that the communal composition of the staff should be determined with reference to the aggregate strength of the Press.

In order to provide for the training of Indians for supervising posts in the Government of India Presses, five apprentices are trained in the Government of India Press, Calcutta. The period of apprenticeship is five years, during which an apprentice is paid Rs. 50 per mensem as subsistence allowance. The apprentices are placed under the direction of the supervising officers in the various branches of the Press. Examination to test the progress made is held from time to time. Facilities are also provided for the higher training of apprentices in England at the rate of one each year details of which follow.

*Recruitment of the Subordinate Supervising Establishment.*—Under the instructions issued by the Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, letter No. A.-389, dated the 2nd February, 1923, paragraph 2 (8), vacancies in the grade of sectionholders are alternatively filled from assistant sectionholders and duly qualified compositors. Apart from this and the apprenticeship scheme mentioned above, there are no methods in force at present regarding the recruitment and training of the subordinate supervising staff, and we have to content ourselves with what material we have in the lower ranks, and promote them to the

subordinate supervising staff as vacancies occur. These men undergo no specific training beyond what they can learn in the course of their duties and in their own time. Such staff, therefore, generally consists of workmen who have qualified themselves for supervising duties by reason of their experience and service in their respective branches. It is not possible to recruit outsiders for such duties, who possess no experience of press work, especially of Government presses. So far no difficulty has been experienced in finding suitable men to fill vacancies that have occurred, but I am afraid that in this respect the future does not look too bright, as there are now very few men in the Presses really capable of taking up supervising work. This, I think, is due to the fact that of recent years the type of man taking up printing as a livelihood has deteriorated, due, I think, to the fact that the emoluments available offer insufficient inducement to the type of men we obtained 20 or 25 years ago.

The rules relating to the recruitment of apprentices will be found in the new handbook.

Scholarships in the Printing and Allied Trades are awarded by the Government of India. Since the institution of the scheme apprentices have been sent each year to England for training, selected from amongst those undergoing training in the Government of India Press, Calcutta.

*Training of Apprentices in India.*—The training of apprentices at the Calcutta Press is not altogether satisfactory, but under conditions prevailing, I doubt whether any considerable alteration or improvement is possible.

The method adopted is practically identical with that exercised in England. The apprentices spend a part of their apprenticeship in all branches of the Press to work side by side with those employees actually carrying out the work of each branch. There is, however, one great difference; the apprentice in England works side by side with fully trained men, and is able, from the commencement of his career, to glean absolutely expert advice from the workmen. If he is ambitious, he is able to attend evening classes at technical schools for a thorough theoretical training in subjects not generally dealt with in detail in the ordinary workshops. These conditions do not prevail in India in the printing trade. Practically all the workmen have a very elementary knowledge of the art. The number of fully trained technical staff employed at the Government of India Presses is insufficient to permit of their imparting a thorough knowledge of the art to the workmen; they are only able to advise or instruct as occasion arises.

The position at the Calcutta Press for imparting good technical knowledge to the apprentices does not improve as time advances, chiefly on account of the fact the overseers' posts are being filled, at present, by men who possess only the Indian workmen's knowledge of the art. Whatever help and advice is possible is given by the trained officials and the apprentices are instructed to approach the fully qualified technical officers with any difficulties they experience.

That two apprentices failed in the past is not sufficient cause to condemn the present system, seeing that there is no alternative at present. From what I saw of the apprentices' work in the last examination held, I am of the opinion the men can, and do obtain sufficient grounding to justify their being sent to England to complete their training. We should not, and do not, detain apprentices the full five years if they do not show adaptability to the work, or it is considered that they are not sufficiently interested.

The result of the examination given to the apprentices periodically should be such as to satisfy the management they are likely to acquire such a knowledge of the trade after three years' training, especially from a practical point of view, to justify their being sent to England to gain the more advanced knowledge. I am convinced, however, that if they are prepared to work and study hard in England, they will learn more during their three years study there, than we are able at present to impart to them over many years in India.

I am unable, under present conditions at the Press, to suggest more helpful methods of instruction than at present exist. It must be recognized a good deal depends on the apprentice himself, if he is sufficiently interested and ambitious he will seek knowledge from those he is aware are able to give it, and I am sure the instruction will be well and freely given.

There is at present under consideration in Calcutta by private printers and the Government of Bengal a scheme for training, in the technical school there, of youths in practical printing. The Government of India need to be associated with and to encourage this movement, which will be for the good of the industry in general and the Government Presses in particular.

*Holders of Government Scholarships in Printing and Allied Trades now under training in England.*—The following gives the particulars of the holders of Government scholarships in Printing and Allied Trades now under training in England :—

Names.	Dates of their apprenticeship in the Calcutta Press.	Dates of commencement of their training in England.	Date due to return from England.
1. Mr. A. C. Sen ..	1st May, 1922 ..	23rd August, 1926	September, 1929.
2. Mr. B. K. Roy	1st May, 1924 ..	23rd August, 1927	September, 1930.
3. Mr. M. K. Mazumdar.	Unpaid apprentice from 18th February, 1926. Paid apprentice from 1st January, 1927	* September, 1928	September, 1931.
4. Mr. A. N. Sen ..	Unpaid apprentice from 23rd January, 1926. Paid apprentice from 1st October, 1927	* September, 1929	September, 1932.

\* Exact date not yet reported by the High Commissioner.

*Works Committees.*—Works committees have been established in the Calcutta, Simla, Delhi and Aligarh Presses to afford the employees regular opportunities of discussing with the supervising staff inequalities and difficulties which may arise under working conditions. The rules for works committees will be found in the new handbook.

Considerable difficulty has been experienced in keeping the works committees alive in some of the Presses latterly. While that in Calcutta became defunct in 1924-25, that in Simla flourished from the start while I was manager of that press. I found the committee of substantial assistance, and ready to co-operate on all questions arising for the benefit of the workmen in general or the Press in particular. On taking over charge of the Calcutta Press, I resuscitated the committee there, and up to 1927, when I handed over charge, I found it also substantially advantageous to the management and to the workmen. The elections for representatives were keenly contested each year, and the committee soon realized the benefits it conferred. That committee is a real live committee as a perusal of the minutes, especially those recently received, will show. In Simla, however, I regret to note that since I handed over, there has been a change for the worse. The manager of that Press now reports :—

“ The works committee has been revived on more than one occasion, and though still in existence here, it has been lacking in interest in the performance of its legitimate duties for some time back. It is extremely difficult to say exactly why this state of affairs should persist. Efforts have been made, more than once, to bring home to the men that the works committee is not functioning as it ought to, but with no permanent results. I have even suggested matters that could be taken up by the works committee, and drafted questions for them which at the time seemed to waken them up a bit, but they soon fell asleep again.

“ One thing is morally certain, and that is the reason for this lack of interest cannot be because there are no grievances to ventilate. That would be a state of affairs too utopian to contemplate, and hardly to be found in any factory. From my experience of works committees during the past five years I am inclined to the view that employees expect that whenever suggestions are put up by them they ought to be carried out, and when, for administrative reasons these are turned down, they get disgruntled and protest by silence. Employees are also very fond of taking up matters through the works committee which are outside the scope of the committee, and when informed the matter cannot be discussed, they get quite annoyed, though they know full well they are in the wrong. The invariable reply is ‘ What is the use of a works committee if we cannot take up any question we want to ?’

“ Then again there is the Legislative Assembly. From many of the questions that have loomed up in that body lately, so far as the Simla Press is concerned, it would appear as if employees have found a more effective way of ventilating their grievances, for many of the questions have been such as could quite legitimately have been taken up by the works committee. I do not for a moment consider that

the men obtained any more favourable results by this method, but they have certainly gained wider publicity, which is apparently what they are after, and which undoubtedly gives a certain amount of satisfaction, and creates a feeling of something gained, however small."

In Delhi the works committee is functioning satisfactorily, but in Aligarh it has not been a success. I have on more than one occasion had to communicate with the management on the subject. In 1927 I had to insist on this committee being resuscitated. Only recently I have had to call the manager's attention to the fact that more anonymous letters reach the Controller from this Press than all the others combined, and yet this is the only Press which continually reports the works committee as not meeting because there is no business.

That there is something in what the manager, Simla Press, says in his last paragraph, is borne out by a communication I have received from the manager of the Calcutta Press, forwarding the undermentioned notice which he found posted up in the Press, and it may well be that the employees prefer to air their grievances publicly in this manner :—

#### PRESS EMPLOYEES' ASSOCIATION.

(Founded by Deshabandhu Das in 1919.)

Head Office : 175, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta, the 29th July, 1929.

To—All Compositors, Government of India Press, Calcutta.

Dear Sirs,—I beg to inform you that autumn session of the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly will commence its sitting shortly. I shall, therefore, be glad to receive all grievances for interpellation within two days.

Trusting this will receive your prompt attention.

Yours faithfully, (Sd.) M. DAS GUPTA,

*Acting Secretary, Press Employees' Association.*

*Relations generally between the Supervising Staff and the Rank and File.*—Relations generally throughout all the Presses are fairly satisfactory. There are occasions, but they are of very infrequent occurrence, when the employees, through the works committee, bring to notice the fact that the relations between the manager and the employees leave something to be desired. The grievances of the employees are mostly to be attributed to what they consider to be the insufficiency of their emoluments than to any dissatisfaction with the management of the several Presses.

### III.—Housing.

In the Calcutta Press, accommodation is provided for the menial staff only, i.e., durwans and sweepers.

In the Delhi Press there are at present 342 quarters of various types at its disposal, out of which 311 are occupied by Press employees. The number of employees is 410. Therefore housing is found for 76 per cent. The remainder live in the city either for preference or family reasons.

A statement showing the description of each class of quarter, and to which class of employees actually allotted, is given below :—

Type of quarter.	Number allotted.	Description.	Status of employees to whom the quarters are allotted.
" C "	37	4 rooms, with 2 verandahs, 1 store room, 1 servant's room, 1 kitchen, 1 bath room, 1 latrine and courtyard.	Clerks, readers, supervising staff, operators, mechanics, etc.
" D "	7	As in " C " type, except 1 servant's room.	Clerks, readers and operators, etc.
" E "	224	2 rooms, with 2 verandahs, 1 kitchen, 1 bathroom, 1 latrine and courtyard.	Assistant sectionholders, compositors, binders and warehousemen, clerks, pressmen and machinemen, etc.
" F "	74	Constructed 6 in a block, containing 17 rooms and 2 latrines.	Inferior servants.

Under the orders of the Government of India, the recovery of rent from the Indian staff for accommodation, furniture where provided, and water is limited to 5 per cent. of salary. For the purpose of salary of pieceworkers class rates are taken. Peons are allowed free quarters.

It may be mentioned in this connection that the Government of India have sanctioned the construction of the following accommodation at the new site in the city extension area, to which place the Press will be shifted as soon as the new building is ready for occupation :—

*For Officers.*

1 bungalow for gazetted officer ..	Class "C."
1 bungalow for non-gazetted officer ..	Class "D."

*For Establishment.*

1 orthodox clerk's quarter ..	Class "B."
2 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "C."
5 unorthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "C."
37 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	Class "D."
29 orthodox clerks' quarters ..	New type.
191 daftries' quarters.*	
61 peons' quarters.	

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The sanctioned strength of the Press establishment is 410 ; so it appears that it is proposed to provide accommodation for 80 per cent. of the staff.

In Simla, with the exception of 21 quarters on the ground floor of the Indian Clerks' Barracks situated on the Cart Road, and 12 on the Press premises for peons and chaukidars on the permanent establishment, there is no house accommodation provided for the employees of the Simla Press as is the case at Delhi. The quarters on the Cart Road are occupied by 19 men out of a total strength of 353. The accommodation available is one room measuring 10 ft. by 10 ft., with a small kitchen and latrine adjoining the room. These are provided at a rent of Rs. 47 per annum plus electric charges of Re. 1-4 annas per mensem, and are subject to the conditions that they will have to be vacated should they be required for occupation by secretariat clerks. Though this has not been necessary so far, presumably on account of the limited accommodation and poor condition of the quarters, the stipulation is nevertheless laid down by Government for all Press employees. There is very little doubt in my opinion but that this question of quarters has produced much discontent. Personally I am of opinion that the provision of quarters at a reasonable rent will go a very long way towards alleviating the present discontent. Moreover, it will, I feel, be distinctly advantageous to Government as owing to the accommodation question in Simla a man living in Government quarters will hesitate before he resigns or gives cause for dismissal involving removal from these quarters, with the possibility of finding none elsewhere even at an exorbitant rent. Therefore, I think the provision of quarters at a reasonable rental will not only of itself go a long way towards attracting men to the Press, but contribute towards retaining the men we have got. Failing the building of suitable quarters for Press employees, I feel that the demands for house rent allowance will have to be considered.

In the Aligarh Press no quarters are available except for a few menials.

#### IV.—Health.

The information to be furnished under this head will depend upon the maintenance and examination of health and vital statistics relating to the Press employees in the cities in which the Government of India Presses are located. Statistics will also have to be collected showing the extent to which Press employees are susceptible to local diseases prevalent in certain cities, such as malaria and beriberi in Calcutta, fever, small-pox and lung diseases in Delhi, etc., and the common ailments which compel them to be absent from work from time to time. It will also be necessary to know the extent to which local diseases supply the causes for premature retirement from service, and other causes leading to their being invalided. Statistics on these points are not available, and the figures kept by the municipal committees of the towns do not show separately the health conditions of Press workers. It is not therefore possible to furnish any information on this point, and if it is desired that statistics under this head should be collected in future, the health departments of

\* It has since been proposed to convert 96 of these to a new "E" type.

the various cities in which the Government of India Presses are located will have to be asked to maintain separate figures for the purpose, and render an annual return to the Controller of Printing and Stationery for examination and review. If, however, the general health can be judged by the number of medical certificates received daily in each of the Presses from the employees in support of their applications for leave, then I am afraid the only conclusion to be arrived at is that the health of the employees is, indeed, in a bad state. This, however, may not be a genuine test of health conditions, as in order to prevent leave being refused otherwise, recourse is had to medical certificates for any and every minor ailment. There is no doubt, in my mind, that with very few exceptions, the physique and stamina of the Press workers in all Presses is very poor. How much of this can be attributed to any of the following reasons is a matter of opinion, i.e., standard of living, arduous labour, hours of work, insanitary working conditions. Certain it is that in the Simla Press the building and surroundings are ideal. In the Calcutta Press, they could not be much worse. Here a large number of the workers perform their allotted task daily with the aid of artificial light, as the workrooms in places are dark and badly ventilated. They are overcrowded.

In the Delhi Press it is noted that the physique of the workers appointed locally appears to be somewhat better than that of the Bengalee employees who were transferred from Calcutta, who appear to have suffered from the effects of the Delhi climate and also from malaria.

In Delhi a new Press building is going up, and like Simla, there should be no complaint about conditions of work there. Working conditions in the Presses, however, have improved considerably during recent years, but there is still room for improvement in the following directions:—The Calcutta Press should be rebuilt without any further delay. In Delhi and Simla a reduction of the hours of attendance during the Legislative Sessions is called for. House accommodation should be provided where the Press is difficult to get at as in Simla.

*Establishment of a Provident Fund to provide for the Widows and Children of deceased Employees.*—Statistics are not readily available, but I venture the opinion that very few Press workers live to enjoy their pension for any lengthy period. I have been struck by the large number who die at or about the pensionable age.

*Extent of Medical Facilities provided and utilised.*—In Calcutta a dispensary has recently been attached to the Press. It is manned by a sub-assistant surgeon and two compounders, and their services are readily availed of by the employees.

In Simla a sub-assistant surgeon visits the Press every second day, and quite a number of men seek his advice. Owing to the distance of the Press from the hospital a coolie has recently been sanctioned by Government for bringing medicines from the hospital to the Press. Medicines are supplied free of cost at the Civil and Military Dispensary. In addition to the above a first-aid medical box is provided at Government expense for emergencies, as it was not possible to open a dispensary on the Press premises.

Delhi.—During the malaria season following the monsoon, as a prophylactic measure, quinine is distributed free to the staff of the Delhi Press, and an annual expenditure of Rs. 150 is being incurred on this account.

Attached to the residential quarters of the Press employees, there is a provincial Government hospital named Balak Ram's House Hospital. It is staffed by an assistant-surgeon, sub-assistant surgeon and two compounders. This hospital is meant for all Indian servants of the Government of India residing in this area (Timarpur), including the employees of the Press who have the same medical facilities at this hospital as employees of other departments of the Government of India.

The sub-assistant surgeon attached to Balak Ram's House Hospital attends the Press during working hours for one hour on alternate days (thrice a week). A first-aid chest is maintained at the Press, and employees reporting sick for minor ailments are treated by him there. He also examines and prescribes for those who cannot attend at the hospital for some reason or other, but require medicines other than those available in the first-aid chest. These prescriptions are then dispensed from the Balak Ram's House Hospital. Serious accident cases requiring treatment or facilities not available at Balak Ram's House Hospital are sent to Civil Hospital, Delhi. Such a case happened in the year 1926, when a wall of the Press building collapsed. The victims were treated under direct supervision of the Civil Surgeon.

In Aligarh arrangements have been made with the District Hospital for providing free medical attendance and medicines for the employees of the Government of India Press, but it is stated by the manager that the men do not take full advantage of the concession. A first-aid cabinet and some medicines are provided in cases of emergency.

*Utilisation of Medical Facilities.*—The Press employees generally do avail themselves of the facilities provided. In Delhi, however, they are greatly handicapped by the Press working hours coinciding with the hospital hours, e.g., during summer the hospital opens at 7 a.m., and a number of Press employees have to leave their homes about that time to reach the Press, where their work commences at 8 a.m. During the winter they get no time at all, as they have to reach the Press at 8 a.m. and the hospital opens for work at the same time. In the evenings also they return late from the Press, and by that time the hospital is closed. It will thus be seen that except by absenting themselves from their work, the Press employees are not able satisfactorily to attend to their own or their family medical requirements. I am considering whether it is possible to provide facilities similar to those of the Simla Press.

*Extent of prevalence of Industrial Diseases.*—Certain sections of Press workers are employed in essential processes involving the use of lead compounds, both in the manufacture and subsequent use of type. Such workers, i.e., in the foundry and mechanical branches and in the composing room and distributing rooms, are liable to contract lead poisoning through the inhalation of absorption of lead fumes or minute particles of lead dust. Due precautions, e.g., the provision of exhaust fans, etc., etc., are in every Press taken for the prevention of this disease, and although the employees concerned must necessarily be affected to a certain extent, lead poisoning in its serious stages is very rare in the Government of India Presses. Its prevalence in the milder stages cannot be ascertained without a thorough medical examination of all Press employees liable to be so affected. It may therefore be said that cases of industrial disease have not so far come prominently to notice.

*Simla.*—The conditions in Simla are ideal, and the factory inspection authorities have expressed satisfaction with the conditions under which the employees work in that Press. In all the Presses exhausts have been installed to draw off the fumes from the metal pots of the mechanical composing machines. In Simla central heating has been installed for use in the winter months, and in the plains the Presses have been adequately supplied with electric fans. Washing facilities with soap, etc., have recently been provided in all the Presses.

*Delhi.*—In an endeavour to obtain some reliable statistics, the invaliding certificates of those members of the industrial staff of the Delhi Press who were invalided since 1st March, 1923, have been examined, and the result is as follows:—

Number of men invalided from 1st March, 1923, to date, 27; Number of men invalided suffering from lead poisoning, pyorrhea, defective vision, 11; number invalided for debility, tuberculosis, accidents, bronchitis, etc., 16.

There were two cases of lead poisoning in 1926, and one recently from the Delhi Press.

This Press will be housed shortly in a new building on another site, and it is hoped to make it a model Press in every way.

In Calcutta conditions leave a lot to be desired. The workrooms are overcrowded, and in places so dark that the electric light is kept burning throughout the day. The rooms, too, are not efficiently ventilated. The building is quite unsuitable, and a new Press should be built with the least possible delay.

*Aligarh.*—Aligarh has hitherto reported no specific case of industrial disease. Conditions in this Press are not unfavourable.

## V.—Welfare.

*Physical Welfare.*—As regards sanitation and hygienic conditions of residence and factory, it may be mentioned that in the case of press workers at Delhi to whom Government residences have been provided, necessary sanitary and hygienic arrangements have been duly provided by the Public Works Department. It has already been explained that in the Government of India Presses in which the men spend a major portion of the day on work, necessary hygienic arrangements exist for the removal of dirt, dangerous fumes, refuse water, etc., resulting from the operations of the employees. Satisfactory arrangements exist in the Press buildings for proper ventilation and regulation of temperature in the hot and cold weathers to enable the workmen to attend to their duties with due comfort and convenience. Electric fans are provided wherever necessary for cooling. In the Simla Press a special heating plant has been installed to keep the workmen warm during the winter and monsoon months. The existing arrangements are considered satisfactory, except perhaps in Calcutta, for the physical welfare of the workmen, in view of the fact that no complaints or representations have so far been made regarding their inadequacy in any other of the Government of India Presses.

As regards athletic clubs, gymnasias, etc., necessity has not been felt so far for Government to take steps to provide facilities for the workers to take part in suitable games and sports to maintain their physical fitness. In Calcutta, where football

is very popular with the Indians, the workmen have combined together to form a regular football club, which has been working satisfactorily. The staff of the other offices of the Printing and Stationery Department at Calcutta also participate in the game, and sufficient encouragement has been given by the management for the success of these private undertakings. Similar athletic organizations do not seem to have been started by the workers in Delhi, Simla and Aligarh, but in cases when any such clubs come into existence, the management will be glad to encourage the efforts of workers as far as possible.

*Intellectual Welfare.*—No educational facilities for the benefit of the workers themselves have so far been considered necessary by Government. Unlike in England, America and other foreign countries where special institutions exist for imparting technical instructions to workmen, even in big cities like Calcutta and Delhi no recognized technical schools or colleges seem to exist where workmen desirous of acquiring higher theoretical knowledge of the art of printing can attend out of their working hours to gain knowledge. The present facilities afforded by the Presses for the training and promotion of workmen in the various branches of printing are considered sufficient for present requirements, but it does appear necessary that steps should be taken to provide special educational and training facilities for the training of those workers who show sufficient aptitude to become expert in the art and in administration.

In regard to reading circles and libraries, attempts seem to be at present confined to private efforts of the workers themselves, and no necessity has so far been felt for special assistance from the management to encourage their formation or working.

*Social Welfare.*—It has not been found so far necessary to take any steps to encourage the social welfare of the press workers by helping them to form recreation clubs and societies, social gatherings, etc. In matters of this kind, the results of private enterprise of the workmen are in evidence in certain places, notably in Calcutta, where a dramatic club has been started by the staff of the Stationery and Printing Department, in which a number of the employees of the Press also participate.

No official information is available regarding the existence or otherwise of similar clubs and gatherings for the social entertainment and welfare of press workers in Delhi, Simla and Aligarh.

*Economic and Moral Welfare.*—Fuller information regarding thrift and co-operative societies of press workers has been furnished elsewhere. There is no indication that intemperance and drug habits prevail to an appreciable extent among the workmen of the Government of India Presses, who are generally sober and regular in habits. In the case of the Mohammadan employees, drinking is prohibited by their religion, and the majority of the Hindu workmen, being religious and orthodox to a degree, are not believed to be addicted to the drink or drug habit. No necessity for special temperance propaganda or efforts for the prevention of other pernicious habits has, therefore, arisen. Owing to the policy of the religious neutrality of Government it is not possible for the management to interfere with other moral activities of the workmen which more or less assume a religious character.

In Delhi, maternity and child welfare work is being carried on in Timarpur by the Delhi Notified Area Committee, among the families of Government servants who reside in that area. These include the clerical staff of the accountant-general, posts and telegraphs, the Government of India Press employees, and the clerks of that portion of the Army department which is located in Old Delhi during the cold weather. Maternity and child welfare activities were first undertaken in this area in 1927, by the Delhi Health and Baby Week Committee. In December, 1928, the Notified Area Committee took over this work and improved it by appointing a lady doctor in charge of this centre.

*Provision of Educational Facilities for Workers and their Children and the extent to which utilized.*—No facilities are provided at present at any of the Presses, and the employees have to make their own arrangements at the local schools if they can afford to do so.

I have proposed that provision be made for a primary school near the new Press building at Delhi. I have not the slightest doubt that any facilities in this direction which could be provided would no doubt be welcomed, although I doubt if any facilities are called for in Calcutta. Delhi is better off in this respect than the other Presses, as the Notified Area Committee, Civil Station, Delhi, maintains three day schools for boys and girls, and two night schools for adults at a cost of about Rs. 17,800 per annum.

The N.A.A.V. Middle School at Timarpur, imparts free primary education in Urdu, Hindi, Bengali and Tamil, and a fee, under the Punjab Education Code rules, is charged from the boys reading in the middle classes. Free and half-free concessions are given to poor and deserving students to the extent of 10 per cent. of the total number on the rolls.



There are two girls' schools for teaching, through the mediums of Urdu, Hindi and Bengali, up to the standard of V class. In these schools needlework and sewing is also taught by trained and well qualified mistresses. These three schools are highly spoken of by the educational authorities and the public.

Besides these there are two night classes at Chandrawal and Dhakka, where as many as 55 adult students are reading Hindi and Urdu. One night class at the Boys' School, Timarpur, which was started in August, 1927, at the request of the Press employees for teaching English, Urdu and Hindi, was closed last year owing to the meagre attendance due possibly to the long hours of attendance at the press or to apathy.

*Extent of Co-operative Movement.*—There is in Calcutta a very efficiently run co-operative society, which men of all the Calcutta branches are eligible to join. Copies of bye-laws are available from the Deputy Controller, Stationery, Calcutta.

In Simla also a Co-operative Thrift and Aid Society has been registered for many years under the Co-operative Societies Act, and the objects of which are stated in the bye-laws, copies of which are available from the Manager of the Simla Press.

There is in Simla another fund called the Bepanna Bandhub Fund, of a distinctly charitable nature, the funds of which were subscribed by Press employees about 40 years ago, and the interest on which is allotted for such purposes as small monthly allowances to the destitute widows and children of deceased Press employees. The control of these two funds is entrusted to the manager as president, and a separate managing committee for each, who are elected annually by the Press employees from amongst themselves.

## VII.—Safety.

*Incidence of Accidents in Presses and their Causes.*—There have been two fatal accidents in the Presses in recent years—one in the Delhi Press in 1926, due to the fall of a wall under construction by the Public Works Department, and one in the Aligarh Press. In the former, two men were killed and three injured, and in the latter, one was killed. Accidents of a minor nature occasionally occur, due to the careless handling of machines which are power driven, but which are protected as required by the Factories Act and which are frequently inspected by inspectors under the Act.

In the Calcutta Press there were, in 1928–29, 17 minor accidents reported, of which three were cases of pure accident and the rest were due to negligence on the part of the men injured.

The Aligarh Press case mentioned above was that of a coolie who fell as the result of an electric shock while repairing some electric supply lines.

In the Delhi Press, besides the fatal accident due to the fall of a wall mentioned above, there were, in 1927–28, 13; in 1928–29, 11 minor accidents, in every case due to carelessness on the part of the injured persons.

*Measures for Accident Prevention (including "Safety First" Propaganda) and for the First Aid and Medical Relief.*—Notices giving precautions to be taken are hung near the machines and near any dangerous electrical equipment likely to cause injury by careless handling. The motors, shafting and belting in the various Presses are all protected. In Simla, which is the last Press to be reconstructed, the following protective arrangements have been adopted and will no doubt be adopted in the Delhi Press now under construction, and in the Calcutta Press if and when it is rebuilt.

The motors in various places are kept underground, and where this is not possible the motors are covered by wooden fencing. All the conduits for water and for electric heating and power wires are under the floor, which is of reinforced concrete. Machines are operated by trained labourers only. The casters, keyboard and air compressors are belt driven from shafts in trenches below floor level. Each printing machine has its individual motor belted direct and below floor level, and the electrical starter for each machine is conveniently placed for the machineman on a stanchion within easy reach of the feed-board.

The Press employees are entitled to free medical attendance and medicines from the hospitals, and dispensaries provided by the local Government. In addition, at Delhi, Simla and Aligarh, a first-aid chest is maintained in the Press, which is visited on every alternate day by a sub-assistant surgeon. In Calcutta a dispensary with a sub-assistant surgeon in charge has been established in the Press building.

An attempt is being made by the Delhi Health and Social Service Union—a union formed in Delhi under the guidance of the chief commissioner—to start classes, lectures, and courses on hygiene and first aid. Circulars have been circulated to the various offices and industrial concerns calling for names of candidates. If an adequate response is obtained, the classes will be started in various centres. It remains to be

seen whether the response anticipated will be forthcoming. I do not anticipate a rush of candidates from the Press employees, as usually one branch of the Press is working overtime throughout the year and during the period the Government of India is in Delhi, the employees have to work so much overtime that they have no time in which to attend lectures. In the summer those who leave at 5.30 p.m. are so fatigued by the excessive heat during the day that they desire some form of recreation by which to recuperate. However, the syllabus of instruction proposed by the union is a very comprehensive one and if their efforts are successful, it will be another step in the right direction in the interests of industrial workers generally.

#### VIII.—Workmen's Compensation.

The Workmen's Compensation Act came into force on the 1st July, 1924, and the following cases of compensation paid under this Act have been recorded :—

Date.	Name and designation.	Details of accident.	Nature of injuries.	Amount.
4.11.1926	Mohd. Khuda Bux.	Delhi Press, collapse of newly built wall.	Killed .. ..	Rs. a. p. 1,850 0 0
4.11.1926	Abdul Shakur	Do. ..	Do.	1,387 8 0
4.11.1926	Sarat Chandra Bose.	Do. ..	Compound fracture of left leg.	1,575 0 0
4.11.1926	Hem Chandra Singh.	Do. ..	Severe injuries, not specified.	1,750 0 0
4.11.1926	Mohd. Yakoob	Do.	Do.	787 8 0
27.6.1928	Narain ..	Fall due to electric shock while repairing electric supply lines.	Died of effects of fall.	450 0 0

Extraordinary family pension also granted for dependants of Khuda Bux and Abdul Shakur—Rs. 11-6 annas and Rs. 12-5 annas per month, respectively.

The case of Mahabir Prasad, a compositor of the Delhi Press, who was invalidated from the 2nd April, 1928, on account of his being affected by lead poisoning, may also be mentioned here. It is proposed to pay him Rs. 875 on account of his permanent disablement, involving the loss of one-fourth of his earning capacity, subject to a reconsideration of the opinion of the medical officer, Delhi, who has been asked to give a final opinion.

As a result of the call for information for this memorandum from the Delhi Press, it has been discovered that the undernoted persons were invalidated due to "chronic" lead poisoning :—

Name.	Designation.	When invalidated.	Reasons.	Amount of invalid pension granted.
(1) Kumar ..	Compositor ..	5.9.1926	Chronic lead poisoning.	Rs. a. p. 24 6 0 per mensem.
(2) Bose ..	Do. ..	10.9.1926	Do. ..	36 10 0 per mensem.

No compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act was paid to them, neither was any claim put forward by the persons concerned. As these men were invalidated after the Workmen's Compensation Act had come into operation, the matter is being examined to ascertain their title or otherwise to any compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

*Suitability of the Provisions of the Act relating to the Scales and Conditions governing the Grant of Compensation and Industrial Diseases.*—In Simla there have been no cases for the grant of compensation and, therefore, the suitability or otherwise of

the provisions of the Act have not been questioned there. In Calcutta, Delhi and Aligarh, no grievance has been forthcoming regarding the suitability of the provisions of the Act, and so far I have had no occasion to notice the unsuitability of the provision of the Act relating to the scales and conditions governing grant of compensation, neither have any representations regarding inadequacy of compensation paid been received from the dependants of the deceased or from the disabled employees. Perhaps the Act has not been in operation long enough to prove its suitability or otherwise in this respect, as it is only by experience and application of the relevant portion this can be definitely ascertained.

Employees, who come under the new leave rules, are entitled to injury leave to half-pay rates from the commencement of disablement if injured in circumstances which would give rise to claim for compensation in the case of a workman as defined under the Workmen's Compensation Act. This leave can be granted for so long as it is necessary subject to a limit of two years for any one disability and five years during an employee's total service. Leave salary payable under this rule would, in the case of a workman to whom the Workmen's Compensation Act applies, be reduced by the amount of compensation payable under Section 4 (1) D of this Act.

### IX.—Hours.

The ordinary working hours of the Presses are 48 per week, exclusive of meal intervals. The ordinary hours worked per day from Monday to Friday are 8½, and on Saturday 5½, making a total of 48 hours per week exclusive of meal intervals, but quite an appreciable amount of overtime is required to be worked in all the Presses except perhaps Aligarh.

In Simla and Delhi overtime is excessive during the period the Legislatures are in session, and when the Government of India Secretariat is in Delhi and Simla, respectively.

The Delhi Press has for this reason been exempted by the local Government from certain provisions of the Factories Act for a period of five months during the year, which permits the Press working 12 hours per day.

During the year 1928-29 the Delhi Press was open on 302 days, and on 235 days it was necessary to work ordinary overtime either in some or all branches, and emergent or special overtime was worked on 72 days. In addition to this the Press was kept open on a Government of India closed holiday and one Sunday. In Calcutta Sunday work obtains when His Excellency the Viceroy is visiting there.

For working on Sunday an allowance of 50 per cent. over the ordinary rates is now paid, if it is not possible owing to pressure of work to allow the men a day's holiday in lieu. This can only happen, however, when exemption from Section 22 of the Factories Act has been obtained.

The possibility of a reduction in the working hours of the Presses is a question which has periodically arisen during the last 20 years. There is no denying the fact that the amount of overtime which has to be worked in the Presses during the Delhi and Simla season must in the course of time affect the vitality of the workers, especially as the climate of Delhi during the hot weather is enervating and not recuperating.

Prior to the revision of 1920, the ordinary working hours were from 10 a.m. to 5 p.m., with overtime morning and evening, which was at that time practically unrestricted and abnormal. The revision increased the normal day for all industrial workers who draw overtime to 8½ hours on five days of the week and 5½ on Saturdays, but overtime was considerably curtailed under the revision which limited the working hours to 60 per week or a maximum of 250 hours, including overtime per month; thus the curtailment of overtime reduced the abnormal number of hours worked under the old system, but lengthened the normal working hours which must be worked daily and before overtime payment commences. I think I am correct in stating that this change of hours has always been brought forward from time to time as a grievance by the industrial workers.

From the management point of view, the hours worked at present are essential to cope with the enormous amount of work allotted to the various Presses, and also to cope with the demands made upon it by the departments, which in some cases are unfair and impossible.

The amount of overtime worked during the winter months has been curtailed considerably during the past two years, and the 12 working hours per day allowed by the exemption from Section 28 of the Factories Act has been adhered to in all the Presses, except perhaps on one or two occasions at Delhi. But even these hours are excessive, and it is most trying for the employees to work so many hours for at least 2½ months in the year. Extra staff for this period would not obviate the difficulty,

as skilled labour is not available in Simla or Delhi in sufficient quantities ready to accept employment for 2½ months only in a year. If the labour were available, the introduction of a shift-system might be considered.

*Existing practice in regard to Intervals and their relation to Fatigue and to Workers' Meal times.*—An interval of half an hour is allowed after every 5 hours as provided for under the Factory Act. This, however, is not paid for, and is over and above the ordinary hours of attendance. Men engaged on 8 hours basis attend in Delhi and Simla from 9 a.m. to 6 p.m., with rest interval from 1.30 to 2 p.m.—9 hours. In Calcutta an extra meal is taken at 10 to 10.30 a.m., making the total attendance 9½ hours daily. The employees usually take their meals before and after the above mentioned hours of attendance in Delhi and Simla; while in Calcutta food is taken during the first interval. The intervals chosen were decided as the result of referendums of the employees, who are at liberty to make recommendations or suggestions for changing them at any time should they find them inconvenient. The interval from 9.30 to 10 a.m. appears to suit the majority of employees, who take a meal at this period after working from 8 a.m. in Delhi and 9 a.m. in Calcutta. The next interval is from 1.30 to 2 p.m., and this interval is utilized generally as a rest period as very few employees take a meal during this hour. When overtime is worked, another interval of half an hour is allowed from 5 to 5.30 p.m., during which period some employees take refreshment according to their customs.

A few years ago it was a common practice for compositors to work during meal intervals, whenever an opportunity was forthcoming, in order to inflate their earnings. Formerly they were allowed to charge at class rates for these periods if engaged on hour work at the time of the interval, during which they would also do fresh composition. With the abolition of the payment for meal intervals, the prohibiting of employees to work during meal intervals, and stricter supervision, the practice has ceased.

## XII.—Wages.

The following tabulated statements show the rates of wages and earnings, and the movements of wages in recent years. Improvements in the rates of wages and in piece rates have taken place in recent years, and the statements show the effect thereof. The time allowed has proved insufficient to produce an exhaustive and complete statistical picture of movements of wages, and the following can only be said to show roughly the movements both as regards salaried men\* and piece-workers. These are separately shown.

The rates for timework and piecework are given in the new Handbook of the Government of India Presses.

Statement showing comparative statistics of hourly earnings of piece-workers in the Government of India Press, Calcutta, during the years 1919-20 and 1920-21, and for the period from the 1st July, 1928, to the 31st May, 1929.

### Compositors (Hand).

Class.	Average hours per month.			Average earnings per month.			Average earnings per hour.		
	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 31.5.29.
				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Annas.	Annas.	Annas.
1	201·0	174·7	207	11 15 7	13 3 2	57 5 0	0·9	1·1	4·4
2	168·6	175·6	173	15 6 5	16 8 1	37 9 0	1·1	1·4	3·4
3	192·4	183·3	—	16 9 6	23 1 2	—	1·2	1·9	—
4	192·9	186·0	154	19 14 11	28 13 0	30 5 0	1·5	2·4	3·2
5	189·0	183·0	128	22 12 2	31 8 1	17 15 0	1·8	2·7	2·3
6	202·4	186·4	192	27 12 5	35 13 6	43 0 0	2·1	2·9	3·6
7	203·7	188·0	180	31 0 9	40 15 0	47 14 0	2·3	3·4	4·3
8	214·7	195·4	180	36 15 4	48 4 11	47 6 0	2·6	3·9	4·3
9	202·3	194·4	189	38 10 10	54 1 11	52 3 0	2·9	4·3	4·4
10	206·9	192·3	194	44 3 11	58 14 8	58 11 0	3·3	4·7	4·9
11	217·6	196·7	191	49 7 8	62 14 5	67 10 0	3·5	5·2	5·8
12	224·6	204·2	196	56 6 9	68 11 3	72 8 0	3·8	5·5	5·9
13	224·8	202·7	199	59 11 9	73 15 6	81 9 0	4·0	5·8	6·6
14	226·2	207·5	192	64 5 2	84 3 3	81 15 0	4·5	6·4	6·9
15	241·7	210·6	197	73 0 1	93 5 4	90 4 0	4·8	7·1	7·3
16	198·5	214·6	208	59 1 4	96 1 1	97 9 0	4·7	7·7	7·5
17	281·0	217·4	198	88 2 8	93 11 11	90 1 0	4·6	6·9	7·3
18	—	—	175	—	—	89 14 0	—	—	8·3
19	—	—	204	—	—	123 1 0	—	—	9·7
20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

\* The statements referring to the salaried establishment have not been printed. The present rates are given in the Press Handbook.

Statement showing comparative statistics of hourly earnings of compositors in the Government of India Press, Delhi, during the years 1919-20 and 1920-21, and for the period from the 1st July, 1928, to the 10th July, 1929.

Class.	Average hours per month.			Average earnings per month.			Average earnings per hour.		
	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29.	1919-20.	1920-21.	1.7.28 to 10.7.29.
1	—	—	—	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Annas.	Annas.	Annas.
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	231.4	212.3	217.2	19 8 2	25 9 7	49 4 0	1.3	1.8	3.5
4	227.9	211.6	206.5	21 2 1	27 15 8	47 7 0	1.4	2.0	3.7
5	228.0	218.9	198.1	25 11 7	25 14 2	47 1 0	1.8	2.6	3.8
6	232.8	214.6	191.5	30 1 0	49 6 11	37 12 0	2.0	3.3	3.1
7	243.5	221.3	198.4	39 3 9	50 15 8	48 6 6	2.5	3.6	3.9
8	234.2	207.2	198.9	40 3 3	53 3 10	52 14 0	2.6	3.3	4.9
9	223.5	209.8	213.4	44 12 8	58 10 10	60 11 0	3.0	4.3	4.6
10	246.0	221.3	203.5	53 11 8	65 5 11	57 4 0	3.3	4.8	4.5
11	256.3	223.3	206.4	62 0 9	75 13 11	64 0 0	3.7	5.3	5.0
12	257.6	223.3	193.0	64 14 0	74 9 9	66 7 0	3.9	5.2	5.7
13	267.9	236.8	203.6	77 6 2	91 6 2	77 13 0	4.6	6.2	6.1
14	244.4	219.5	202.7	71 8 7	83 4 1	80 13 0	4.6	6.3	6.4
15	262.2	214.3	211.5	76 10 6	85 12 6	80 5 0	4.5	6.3	5.8
16	263.2	237.9	209.4	89 6 7	111 9 3	88 14 9	5.1	7.2	7.0
17	273.9	240.3	214.3	100 9 7	120 0 3	108 2 0	5.8	7.9	8.2
18	—	—	225.2	—	—	123 8 0	—	—	8.3
19	—	—	210.9	—	—	100 9 0	—	—	7.6
20	—	—	216.8	—	—	114 1 0	—	—	8.4
21	—	—	226.9	—	—	122 1 0	—	—	8.6
22	—	—	184.7	—	—	119 7 0	—	—	10.3

*Method of fixing Wages and extent of Standardisation.*—The rates of pay for various classes of press workers are sanctioned by the Government of India. The broad principles regulating fixation of wages are (i) cost of living, (ii) availability of the class of workers required, (iii) nature of the duties performed. Beyond this it cannot be said that any particular method is adopted in either fixing or standardizing wages in the Presses.

*Extent of Deductions made on account of Fines and their utilization.*—Fines made are classified under three heads:—(a) Those credited to Government for neglect of duty or bad work involving extra expenditure to Government; (b) the pye-sorting fine imposed to re-coup Government for the cost of sweeping from the floor and sorting and replacing in the cases type thrown there by the compositors; (c) those imposed for petty misdemeanours involving no loss to Government.

As regards the last category, the Government of India decided, as a result of a representation made while I was in charge of the Simla Press and as a result of a works committee representation, to institute with effect from the 1st April, 1922, a fine fund for each of their Presses. To this fund are credited all fines realized from the workmen, excluding pye and such other fines as are levied for neglect or bad work entailing loss or extra expenditure on Government. The assets of the fund are applied to the relief of distress among workmen or their families in accordance with the rules which follow. This fund is quite separate and distinct from the general provident fund or any special provident fund established specifically for Press workers. For example, grants may be made to sick workmen or to families of workmen left in impoverished circumstances by the death of bread winner.

No grants are made except upon the recommendation of the manager with the sanction of the controller. It is open to the works committee to bring to the notice of the manager any cases which they consider deserving of relief from the fund. In fact, no grant is usually made unless agreed to by the works committee.

The amount of the grant is fixed with reference to the rate of pay, length of service, the necessities of the case and the balance available in the fund.

Recoveries of the funds are deposited in the Post Office Savings Bank to the credit of the manager of the Press, and regular accounts of receipts and expenditure are submitted to the controller and audited by the examiner, Government Press accounts.

The following statistics show the amount of fines levied for bad work involving loss to Government, and it may be noticed that considering the large number of employees the amounts in recent years are trifling :—

Year.	Calcutta.	Delhi.	Simla.	Aligarh.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1924-25 ..	—	3 8 0	1,510 0 0	28 4 0
1925-26 ..	379 15 0	2 0 0	477 6 0	33 1 0
1926-27 ..	40 9 0	27 5 11	787 1 0	25 15 0
1927-28 ..	17 2 0	Nil	851 8 0	11 15 0
1928-29 ..	1 5 0	0 12 0	744 9 0	33 13 0

*Pye Sorting Account of the Government of India Presses.*

Period.	Calcutta.		Delhi.	
	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1924-25 ..	700 11 0	*Nil	655 1 0	715 2 8
1925-26 ..	673 2 0	237 4 1	924 3 0	762 12 0
1926-27 ..	712 13 0	29 3 10	857 15 0	616 11 0
1927-28 ..	734 15 0	304 10 0	854 1 0	672 10 0
1928-29 ..	644 7 0	1,181 7 5	744 15 0	258 12 0

\* There was no expenditure in 1924-25, as no pye sorting was done; surplus pyed type having been sold off.

*Statement of particulars of the Fine Funds of the Government of India Presses.*

Period.	Calcutta.		Delhi.		Simla.		Aligarh.	
	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Receipts.	Disbursements.
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
1924-25	1,138 4	Nil	379 13	} 982 6	211 14	400 0	5 11	Nil
1925-26	1,307 6	Nil	291 11		205 7	150 0	92 14	Nil
1926-27	1,108 14	222 12	276 7		155 8	220 0	265 12	10 0
1927-28	1,249 12	1,138 14	170 13		188 7	330 0	280 12	108 0
1928-29	1,115 13	1,291 0	254 15		151 7	50 0	328 14	72 0

*Extent of Annual Leave allowed and taken by Workers.*—For the purpose of leave the industrial staff is classified into the following six categories :—

Classification.	Leave rules under which governed.
(1) Employees holding permanent substantive appointments prior to 6th September, 1928.	Fundamental rules.
(2) Permanent salaried industrial employees classed superior appointed substantively on or after 6th September, 1928.	Leave rules sanctioned in Annexure I to F.D. Resolution No. F.119/R.I./28, dated 6th September, 1928.
(3) Permanent piece-workers classed superior.	Leave rules sanctioned in Annexure II to F.D. Resolution No. F.119/R.I./28, dated 6th September, 1928.
(4) Temporary salaried employees appointed prior to 22nd May, 1929.	Supplementary rules.
(5) Temporary pieces .. .. .	Sixteen days class pay leave in a year provided the employee is regular in attendance.
(6) Temporary salaried employees appointed on or after 22nd May, 1929.	Non-cumulative leave on full pay for 16 days in a year.

Permanent salaried industrial employees below the grade of overseer or assistant manager earn leave on average pay at the rate of one month's leave for every complete period of 11 months' duty, and as regards incomplete periods, one day's leave for every 11 days' duty, provided that no such leave can be earned by any employee who has four months' leave on average pay to his credit.

On the production of a medical certificate, leave on half average pay up to three months may be added to the leave mentioned above, and a further extension of leave on half average pay not exceeding three months may be granted on the production of a fresh medical certificate granted by the officer in chief medical charge of the district in which the employee is residing, provided that the total amount of leave on medical certificate during the employee's service shall not exceed two years. Leave without pay is granted when no other leave is due.

Injury leave at half-pay rates is granted from the commencement of disablement to all permanent salaried industrial employees below the grade of overseer or assistant manager irrespective of whether their pay exceeds Rs. 300 a month or not, who are injured in circumstances which would give rise to claims for compensation in the case of a workman as defined in the Workmen's Compensation Act. This leave is granted for so long as is necessary, subject to a limit of two years for any one disability and five years during an employee's total service. This is not taken into account in calculating the limits laid down for leave on medical certificate.

Permanent salaried industrial hands employed before the 6th September, 1928, enjoy 10 days' casual leave during a year.

*Permanent Piece-workers.*—Non-cumulative leave on average pay is granted to piece-workers according to their service as shown below :—

<i>Length of service.</i>	<i>Leave admissible.</i>
Less than 10 years .. .. .	16 days in each calendar year.
10 years but less than 15 years .. .. .	23 days in each calendar year.
15 years and above .. .. .	31 days in each calendar year.

In calculating the length of service, the period of continuous temporary service rendered by a piece-worker up to the date of his being brought on to the permanent establishment is taken into account. Gazetted holidays actually enjoyed are, at the option of the piece-worker, counted against any leave admissible to him, and if so counted will be paid for.

Leave on medical certificate on half average pay is earned at the rate of one month's leave for every complete period of eleven months' duty and as regards incomplete periods, one day's leave for every eleven day's duty. It is cumulative and is granted only when no average pay leave is admissible.

Leave without pay is granted when no other leave is due.

No continuous period of leave with pay shall exceed one year; any extension over one year shall be leave without pay.

Injury leave is granted as mentioned above.

*Temporary Establishment.*—Temporary salaried industrial hands who were in employ before the 22nd May, 1929, are allowed 10 days' casual leave in a year plus leave under Supplementary Rule 285, but those recruited on or after the 22nd May, 1929, are allowed 16 days' leave in a year. Those who come within the first category have the option to take 16 days' leave in a year in lieu of the leave to which they are entitled. The option once exercised is final. Temporary piece-workers are granted 16 days' leave in a year.

Quarantine leave is granted to salaried industrial hands and piece-workers, whether permanent or temporary, on the occurrence of infectious diseases in their quarters or when they are detained in plague camps, with full pay up to 30 days. This leave is not debited against any kind of leave which is due to them. If the period of absence exceeds 30 days, the employees are allowed leave with leave salary of any kind which is due to them and thereafter leave without leave salary.

In the case of a Press worker bitten by a rabid animal, to enable him to undergo anti-rabic treatment in a Pasteur institute, he is granted, under Rule 2 of Appendix 8 to Civil Account Code, Volume I, one month's casual leave, or when the appointment of a substitute is found necessary, one month's extra leave on average pay, which will not be debited to his leave account, any leave required in excess being granted under the ordinary rules.

As the leave rules in the fundamental rules were considered unsuitable for industrial establishments like the Government of India Presses, a new set of leave rules for the new entrants to permanent superior industrial establishment and the existing permanent superior piece workers were introduced in September, 1928. In the said rules new concessions regarding leave on average pay and medical leave on half average pay were also, for the first time, given to piece-workers.

*Extent of Leave taken.*—Except in rare cases, piece-workers avail of all the leave on full class pay admissible to them in a year. An examination of the amount of leave on average pay taken by the permanent salaried industrial employees of the Delhi Press during the year 1928-29 shows that out of a staff of 141, leave on average pay was taken by 93 men to the extent of an average of 1 month and 4 days per head. The minimum and maximum amount of leave on average pay taken during the year varied from one day to 8½ months. Taking into account all sorts of leave taken by the industrial staff, comprising 360 men during the year 1928-29, it has been found that on an average 13 per cent. of the staff is absent daily on leave of one kind or another.

#### XIV.—Trade Combinations.

*Effects of Trades Unions.*—There is an organization founded in 1919 with its headquarters in Calcutta called the Press Employees Association. This organization has not yet received recognition by the Government of India, as it does not conform to the requirements under which such organizations are to be recognized.

A phase of its activities is to be seen by the letter given under *Works Committees* and it is stated by one manager that its activities such as those which have detracted from the interest formerly taken in the works committees by the employees who prefer to have their grievances ventilated in the Council Chambers.

Personally, while in charge of the Simla and Calcutta Presses, I have had no reason to complain of the activities of this Association.

I have no information of the present existence of any organization of the employees of the Delhi Press. In March, 1928, a meeting of Press employees was held at Timarpur, at which a prominent Labour member of the Legislative Assembly presided with the object of organizing a trade union of Press employees amongst those engaged in that industry in the Delhi province which, presumably, meant a branch of the Calcutta Press Employees Union. A temporary working committee was appointed and, I think the union functioned for some time, but I have no official information of its present existence in Delhi; therefore, the effects of the Trade Unions Act, 1926, and any organization of the operatives have been nil so far as the Delhi Press is concerned.

*Effects of Trade Union Act.*—As no organization is yet in existence which is recognized by Government, I have no remarks to offer.

#### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

*Extent of Strikes and Lock-outs in Presses, with Causes, Duration and Nature of Settlement—Calcutta.*—In September, 1905, influenced by the Swadeshi and Boycott movement in Bengal, the employees of the Government of India Press, Calcutta, struck work. The position was at the very outset taken in hand, and the Comptroller-General gave a sympathetic hearing to the grievances of the strikers. The main demands of the strikers were increased overtime and payment for Sundays and other holidays. The Controller of Printing and Stationery instituted enquiries into the matter, and effected what appeared to be a settlement, but it subsequently proved to be merely a lull in the storm. About seven ringleaders who were at the bottom of the whole trouble were dismissed. Some of these were also arrested by the police on a charge of threatening the men who did not join the strikers. This revived the strike, and about 50 per cent. of the employees absented themselves. Although they were informed by the Controller that modifications were called for in some of the rules and conditions that regulated the Press, they did not appear to be interested neither would they represent any grievance in the proper way. They convened meetings under the auspices of the leading politicians, as a result of which the trouble was exaggerated. Efforts were made to pacify the excitement by persuading the strikers to submit their grievances, but in vain. Work was carried on with the co-operation of the local private presses, and with the assistance of the Provincial Government Presses. Briefly, the grievances were :—(1) Payment for Sunday holidays; (2) Payment for Gazetted holidays; (3) Imposition of irregular fines; (4) Grant of leave on medical certificate and average pay; (5) Higher rate of overtime; (6) Re-instatement of dismissed men. Settlement on the following terms were offered and accepted by the strikers, and the trouble was brought to an end in November, 1905, after a little over one month :—(1) List of Bengal holidays was incorporated in the Press Rules; (2) Reduction in the rate of deduction for pye-sorting; (3) Provision of more coolies for carrying compositors' cases; (4) Payment to salaried men for working extra hours; (5) Fine register was maintained regularly. The men who were dismissed were not re-instated.

The last strike in Government of India Presses took place in July, 1920, which affected the Presses at Calcutta, Simla and Delhi.



The strike of 1920 was confined in the main to the piece-workers, although the machinememen of the Delhi Press, who were and are still salaried men, and many other salaried hands joined the strikers, as also did the bindery staff, who at that time worked solely on hour rates. The remainder of the staff worked throughout the strike.

In the Calcutta Press practically the whole of the operatives left their work whether salaried or otherwise.

The duration of the strike was about two months, i.e., from July 20th to September 19th, 1920, in the Delhi Press, but the operatives of the Calcutta Press left their work on or about the 14th July, 1920.

Before the strike concluded it had, more or less, developed into a fight between the piece-workers and the Government of India for fixed salaries *versus* piece-rates, but the original reason for the operatives leaving their work was their dissatisfaction with the revised terms of service, increase of rates, etc., published in a Government of India Resolution No. A-31, dated July 15th, 1920, from the Board of Industries and Munitions.

For some time previous to the strike the Press employees had been in receipt of temporary war allowances, and the Resolution previously referred to abolished these and increased the rates of payment by an amount which the Government of India thought adequate, but the operatives thought otherwise and left their work.

The Government of India gave an assurance to the strikers that the main object underlying the Government Resolution was to enable operatives to earn higher wages than heretofore, and to work shorter hours. The operatives, however, were not satisfied with the revision of emoluments, and remained away from their duties for two months. During this period some of those who went out on strike returned to duty and negotiations took place between the representatives of the strikers and the Government of India, which resulted in their resuming work on the same terms with which they had expressed their dissatisfaction by going on strike. The period of absence without permission was not treated as a break in service for the purpose of pension, etc., and no man was in any way penalized or punished as a result of the strike.

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#### THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR SUPPLYING MEDICAL AID BY WOMEN TO THE WOMEN OF INDIA (COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN'S FUND).

For the information of the members of the Royal Commission on Labour, it is desirable to state the nature of the organizations on whose behalf the following memorandum is submitted.

The Women's Medical Service of India has a cadre of 44 members recruited in the proportion of 50 Europeans and 50 with Indian domicile. The majority of the latter have both Indian and European qualifications. The Service is administered by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund Committee, which receives a grant of Rs. 3,70,000 from the Government of India for the purpose. The Chief Medical Officer, besides being the head of the Service, is consulted freely on questions relating to the supply of medical aid to the women of India, and is intimately acquainted with all the many problems involved. She is also secretary to two other organizations which deal with questions affecting the health and welfare of women.

*The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund* was established in 1902 to promote the training of indigenous midwives (or dais).

*The Lady Chelmsford League for Maternity and Child Welfare* undertakes three main pieces of work :—(1) Propaganda of various types ; (2) Organizing schools for the training of Health Visitors ; (3) Grants-in-aid to organizations in Government of India areas. It is also in correspondence with numerous organizations throughout India, which seek its advice on matters relating to maternity and child welfare schemes, and is in touch with the movement all over the world. Apart from the help given in advice, the League has been the means of supplying health visitors to various societies for employment.

On account of this knowledge of the medical and health needs and problems of the women of India, I beg to submit the following remarks under the heading :

#### IV.—Health.

23. (ii) *Birth-rate and Infant Mortality.—Methods of registration.*—The figures for infant mortality in industrial areas compare unfavourably with those in other towns and in rural areas. In the report of the Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India (1926) the following figures are quoted :—

Calcutta 372 per mille, Howrah 339, Ahmedabad 438, Cawnpore 484. It is doubtless true that these figures are vitiated to some extent by the exodus of women for child-birth to their villages, and the death of the child on their return to the town, but the fact remains that the conditions of life for children in industrial areas, whatever the cause, are not those that make for health. Investigation on this point is urgently required. Medical women in India have repeatedly pressed for an enquiry into the causes of infant mortality. An enquiry of this kind would enable suitable measures to be taken to try and reduce the mortality, and such an enquiry would naturally embrace in its scope the question of the causes of high death-rate among the children of industrial workers. No response has yet been made to this request for investigation, though it is obvious that it is a *sine qua non* for the formation of proper child welfare schemes.

Registration is known to be very faulty, and the penalties attached to failure to register are insufficient to act as deterrents. Accurate vital statistics are said to be the foundation of proper public health work. If that is the case it is difficult to see how the latter can be satisfactory in India.

The registration of the *causes* of death is even more unsatisfactory hence the necessity for an enquiry.

In this connection I should like to point out the usefulness of the work of Health Visitors. Were Health Visitors at work in an industrial area they would be able to aid registration in various ways, e.g., they would have knowledge of the cases of delivery expected in their area and would know what proportion stayed in the locality and how many went to their villages for confinement ; they would be able to detect unregistered births and urge registration in their visits to the homes ; they would be able to check, to a certain extent, the causes of death.

24. *Extent of Medical Facilities provided.*—In dealing with this point my evidence is based not so much on actual experience of industrial areas as on general knowledge of the demand for and need of medical women, health visitors and midwives. My remarks concern 24. (iv) more particularly, but I have not found it possible to separate the four sub-heads.

The cadre of the Women's Medical Service is very small, and it is composed of relatively expensive and highly trained women. The services of these can be seconded to a provincial Government or a private body by arrangement, and are sometimes asked for in this way. With the exception of the cases noted below no doctor has ever been asked for in connection with work for women in industrial areas, either Government or private.

In 1921 the Department of Industries considered seriously the possibility of giving effect to the recommendations of the International Labour Conference at Washington regarding the employment of women before and after child-birth. A scheme was drawn up which proposed the employment of medical women, health visitors and midwives. As a preliminary, the services of two medical women were asked from the Countess of Dufferin's Fund for investigating the conditions of women's labour in Bengal and Bombay. These two medical women belonging to the Women's Medical Service were lent for this purpose, their grade pay being paid by the Countess of Dufferin's Fund.

These two officers submitted their reports,\* which in addition to the results of their investigations on the effect of factory and other work on the health and physique of women workers, contained various suggestions and recommendations regarding the provision of medical and health facilities for women workers. These suggestions, which could well form the basis of schemes at the present day, have hardly been acted upon and no first class medical women have been asked for for this work. Medical women are employed by some of the Bombay and Nagpur mills, but not so far as we are aware by any of the jute and other mills near Calcutta, or in any other industrial concerns in India, either private or Government.

Health visitors have been employed in small numbers, e.g., in Bengal, one health visitor was appointed in 1922 and another in 1926. I believe others are about to begin work in the jute mills near Calcutta, but the numbers employed are certainly very inadequate to the need. Health visitors have been employed in Cawnpore for some years under the B. I. Corporation.

\* Maternity Benefits to Industrial Workers, Dr. F. D. Barnes, Bombay Labour Gazette, September, 1922. Women's Labour in Bengal Industries, No. 31. Bulletins of Indian Industries and Labour.

In Bombay, Ahmedabad, Nagpur and Sholapur some provision is made for nurses, and creches are also established in certain mills for the care of infants of women employees, but it is certain that the needs of women and children have not been met by these provisions either by Government or by employers. Occasionally voluntary societies have started work which should properly have been undertaken by the employing bodies, e.g., creches and dispensaries in Ahmedabad and health visitors in a few places. (In the hydro-electric scheme of the Punjab at Mandi a health visitor is working. The scheme was at first entirely financed by the Lady Chelmsford League, though the Punjab Health Department is now meeting some of the expense.)

The conditions of work of health visitors are frequently difficult, as they may be placed in situations where they are lonely and unprotected. The pay given does not always compensate them for these drawbacks.

Midwives are sometimes asked for by employers, and difficulty has been experienced in securing suitable women. It has to be realized that the difficulties involved are very real. The midwife may have the same disadvantages to cope with as the health visitor, and in addition she has to face competition of a serious kind from the indigenous untrained midwives who are on the spot. These latter women are either local midwives (or dais) or else they come from the villages with the workers. They must in either case earn their livelihood, and it is a very poor one, so that they resent the intrusion of paid midwives, who take no fees. They do not scruple to spread absurd and lying rumours about the new comers, which may make their work impossible.

In considering this problem (i.e., 24 (iv)) it is necessary in my opinion to take a large view of it.

It is obvious that, where numbers of people are gathered together as in industrial centres, the need to guard the health of workers is specially great. This is generally recognized as a principle in such matters as housing and sanitation, and the prevention of epidemic disease, even though in practice it may be imperfectly realized. In so far as women and children are part of the population of these areas, they share in the benefits of such schemes of improvement. It is, however, a fact that women and children have special needs in industrial, as in other, areas, due to the peculiar conditions of life in India, and very little attempt has been made to meet these needs. This no doubt partly due to the fact that the needs have not been realized, but it is also due to apathy and to unwillingness to spend money on the purpose, or inability to do so. In this connection it is to be noted that this special provision is needed, not merely for women actually working, but also for the wives and children of workers.

The circumstances that render necessary the provision of special facilities for medical treatment and for health work among women and children are as follows:—

(1) The fact that the majority of women, even when not observing "purdah," do not care for the attendance of men doctors for gynaecological complaints or at the time of child-birth.

(2) The fact that the majority of confinements in India are presided over by untrained indigenous midwives (dais). These ignorant women, belonging frequently to low castes, are the sole attendants, and they serve the function of midwife and nurse, and frequently also of gynaecological consultant.

(3) The small experience of most men doctors of midwifery and gynaecology and also of diseases of children for the reason given under (1).

(4) With special regard to health work, the difficulty of penetrating the house and home of the worker with any teaching in health matters or securing any supervision of what occurs there, which may be greatly to the detriment of the health of both the home and community at large.

A complete scheme of medical women with health visitors and midwives working under their control is what is likely to meet the problem. It is almost impossible to ask individual women to undertake the necessary work. Without inspection, control and encouragement such workers, even if they are ready to stand up to the conditions involved, tend to get into ruts over their work, and fail to uphold a good standard. It is very difficult for men doctors to effect this necessary supervision for various reasons.

Such a scheme would not be difficult to carry out. In a really large concern the expense could be met by a single firm. In other cases a group could unite to employ one good medical woman to supervise the work of several mills or factories, the lower grade of workers being paid for by individual firms. For even smaller units, part-time services might be utilized. No doubt such schemes would require careful organizing, but there is no reason why they should not be successful.

The presence of women assistants to the Directors of Public Health in the provinces would materially assist in the advancement and smooth working of such schemes. This was in fact recommended in the reports alluded to above, and has been repeatedly urged by medical women since.

At the time of the scheme suggested by the Industries Department in connection with maternity benefits, the doubt was expressed that medical women would be available in sufficient numbers for the purpose outlined. Though many more medical women are available at the present time, that doubt is still voiced. It is also expressed with regard to the provision of health visitors and midwives. I believe this does present some difficulty, but at the same time I have not much doubt but that, if posts were created, applicants would come forward. Since the demand has been so little made, the supply is not apparent. Were the demand to increase, the supply would increase. Good conditions must, of course, go with such appointments in order to attract the right type of workers. It has to be remembered that the earning power of all professional women in India is greater than that of men, so that their work is relatively expensive.

It may be pointed out here that substantial benefits would accrue to the employing bodies through such appointments. The complaint is frequently made that labour is unstable, and this involves loss to the firms concerned. The provision of good medical and health facilities for women would prevent to a large extent the exodus of women to villages for confinements, and would tend to correct the disturbance of the sex ratio in industrial areas. No one can doubt that both these factors would help to stabilize labour. With regard to the women who are actually working, improvement in their physique would undoubtedly increase their value to the employer and mean less absence for sickness. Such provision as I have outlined for women workers or the wives and children of workers, need not therefore be regarded as pure philanthropy, but as an investment which will bring in a return.

25. (ii) In the reports of Dr. Curjel and Dr. Barnes above alluded to, the fact was brought out that women take very little advantage of the provision made by mill and factory authorities for medical help. I give above my reason for this state of affairs. My opinion is based not only on these and other reports of those acquainted with the conditions in industrial areas, but on my own knowledge of the facts as applied to the general public. It is true that in many parts of India women have no objection to attending general dispensaries for ordinary complaints, but when anything gynaecological occurs, they will not seek advice from men, nor be attended by them in child-birth. The women of Madras Presidency are perhaps an exception to this rule, but, even there, many women would prefer a woman, even though the services of a man might not be actually banned. Where adequate medical facilities exist, and in this I include the provision of health visitors and midwives, and are suited to the conditions, they are fully utilized and appreciated.

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LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR EDWIN H. DE VERE ATKINSON, K.C.B., K.B.E.,  
C.M.G., C.I.E., MASTER-GENERAL OF THE ORDNANCE IN INDIA.

*General.*—Detailed replies to the questionnaire have been sent in by four arsenals and seven factories. It would be difficult without reiteration to collate these in detail, as the local circumstances differ so much in establishments spread over an immense area as involved in India.

It must be borne in mind that in arsenals, the majority of the labour is unskilled, and in factories the majority is skilled.

In the following memorandum I have endeavoured to provide what has been asked from me, which is a general statement on the most important points, and not a detailed reply to each sub-item of the questionnaire. Technical details such as time-keeping, payments, safety, compensation, etc., are more or less the same in all factories, and have been dealt with by superintendents.

### I.—Recruitment.

Migration of unskilled labour is, as is to be expected in an agricultural country, chiefly due to seasonal causes when men return to their crops.

Changes in skilled labour are mostly due to the varying needs of the army. As the load on the factories varies with the yearly demands on them, so the number of skilled employees has to be changed to meet the varying load. Any large turnover is to be strongly deprecated from a point of view of efficiency.

Recruitment of labour varies in methods :—(a) Through existing employees ; (b) Labour Bureaus and trade tests, and registration of applicants ; (c) Apprentices ; (d) Notices at factory gates ; (e) Through sirdars, or gangers.

There is no doubt that the best method is an efficient and well-organized Labour Bureau. These have been existent in most factories for years, and have lately been introduced into arsenals.

The functions of a Labour Bureau generally are :—(i) The recruitment and grading of all skilled and unskilled labour ; (ii) The maintenance of records of service of workmen and of their earnings and punishments ; (iii) The records and location of all discharged men.

The efficiency of the work depends, however, greatly on a first class manager.

The duties as detailed in the rifle factory, Ishapore, are heavy, and it is hoped all other bureaus will develop on these lines.

The worst method is (e) through sirdars or gangers. The breaking up of this system in the clothing factory, Shahjahanpur, was responsible for a strike in 1926 (Vol. III., Part I., page 303). The custom was for a ganger, who was not often even a tailor, to produce so many tailors and take a percentage of their pay. When it was settled to introduce piece-work and pay a man according to his skill and industry, it was necessary to abolish gangers. They naturally resented having their soft method of livelihood taken away and organized a strike. Certain tailors, however, refused to strike and accepted the new terms, and on their experience the strikers soon returned when they saw the advantages to themselves of the new system.

*Unemployment Insurance.*—This would be far more difficult and expensive in India than in the West, but if possible would be a great boon to skilled workmen, specially trained for ordnance manufacture, but if generally introduced the burden on Government and the employer would be immense.

*Turnover of Labour and Public Employment Agencies.*—Superintendents have given details of turnover generally. There are, however, some aspects they are unable to touch on.

The volume of work in any ordnance factory is dependent on the army demand, and this is not a constant quantity, hence the majority of our employees have to be kept on an elastic basis. In a few cases it is practicable and advisable to keep out-turn fairly constant, and let variations in stock cover variations in consumption ; examples are small arm ammunition, cartridges .303 in. Such cases can only occur when the military necessity of readiness for mobilization justifies the expenditure of more cash than the minimum visible demand would cost. In the majority of cases this is not practicable, and variations in labour staff required become inevitable with consequent turnover.

In recent years army provision methods have improved, and very great fluctuations in demand have been eliminated.

The labour records now kept enable us to keep to some extent in touch with labour that has left, and we have evidence that some at any rate of the private firms are beginning to use army factory labour records as a convenient method of getting hold of semi-skilled and skilled men to deal with the variations in demand which are equally inevitable in the private trade.

I am informed that certain firms when they sell machine tools advise the buyers to get men trained at Cossipore or Ishapore. Some firms are openly approaching factory Labour Bureaus for this purpose. Others, however, do not do this, though we know they depend very largely on ordnance factory men.

Up to a point we are welcoming this type of turnover, as it increases the reserve of skilled or semi-skilled labour in the country available to meet mobilization needs. Moreover, the wider experience obtained tends to more fully trained men for supervizing posts.

The above facts indicate that there are already openings for general labour bureaus in the country. I am in doubt, however, whether the time is really ripe for them, and it is possible they would lead to "graft." A difficulty is the immense distances in India and the sparse distribution of trades. Though Indian labour does not mind considerable migration, yet the cost of journeys has in the long run to be borne by the cost of goods, and the margin available for such extraneous charges is none too large. The evidence for readiness to migrate is available from ordnance factories.

Aruvankadu (Nilgiris) employs men recruited in Calcutta and Madras. The map of recruitment at Jubbulpore shows a range from Tuticorin to Kabil. Metal and Steel Factory regularly recruits certain types from Mirzapore. Shahjahanpur taps Sialkot.

A further difficulty is the uncertain standard of training. Apparently in England a man's union ticket is a real guarantee of a minimum standard of skill. There is nothing like this in India, and a man must be classified by trial on arrival.

In Appendix IV, I give some analyses of the uneconomical effect of a large labour turnover, which were worked out to help our proposal for a provident fund for daily men, in so far as it would tend to keep our turnover as steady as possible.

## II.—Staff Organization.

The staff organization of the army ordnance factories at army headquarters is as follows (details for arsenals not given).

The *Master-General of the Ordnance* is responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

*Director of Ordnance Factories and Manufacture.*—This officer is responsible for the administration of all the factories. In addition, in conjunction with the Director of Technical Organization, he is responsible for keeping in general touch with private manufacture in the country to see what army stores can be produced in India, and thus avoid importation.

He has under him :—(a) *Deputy Director.*—Responsible to the director for all questions concerning personnel and stores, also spade work of finance ; (b) *Civil Engineer Adviser.*—Responsible for all questions concerning plant, buildings and methods of working ; (c) *Assistant Civil Engineer Adviser (I).*—Responsible for regulation of output to meet needs. Cross feed between factories and allied work. This officer is also responsible to the officer in charge of army provision for placing orders for supply of all army needs, after quantities and cash available have been approved, and for following up rate of supply. He is also responsible to the Director of Technical Organization for placing these orders in the way best calculated to ensure possibility of requisite supply in war ; (d) *Assistant Civil Engineer Adviser (II).*—In primary charge of material provision section, and spade work in assistance to Deputy and C. E. A.

*Finance.*—The factories are essentially financed from the value of orders placed on them. Each item of manufacture is priced at a sort of catalogue rate by the financial authorities, called "Priced Vocabulary Rates." Normally this rate is the lowest at which recent supplies have been made. Prices are assumed to remain constant for three years and are then revised.

The sum total of the value of orders so placed at these rates, plus any incidental receipts such as sale of waste materials, is the available cash at the disposal of the Director. This cash has to pay for all expenses of the factory, including all wages from that of the Director downwards, depreciation charges, police charges, etc.

This system has had great effects. It has brought home to all concerned more or less definitely that the more the individual and system together earn, the more there is available for increasing the real money value of all wages, whether directly or by means of increased comfort and other conveniences.

The Director allots funds to the individual factories on practically the same system, but allows for variations in the amounts of available stocks.

In each factory the organization is essentially identical, and is fairly self explanatory :—Superintendent ; works manager, production ; works manager, non-production, including stores ; works inspection officer ; assistant works managers as needed ; sections (typical) ; 1 foreman ; 1 assistant foreman ; chargemen as needed ; 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade supervisors as needed ; gang or line mistries ; workmen ; store section, 1 store-holder ; assistant store-holder, receipts and issues ; assistant store-holder, provision ; chargemen as needed ; godown-keepers as needed, each responsible for holding a small group of stores.

The works inspection officer is responsible that correct material is used, and for all stage inspection.

An independent army inspection staff inspects final out-turn, and any key stages desired. This has no connection with factory costs.

An independent accounts organization, which is, however, charged against factory out-turn, compiles and audits all factory accounts and supplies factory management staff with necessary figures.

In any given factory or section any one or more posts or grades may be eliminated if necessary. For instance, one factory has only one officer representing the assistant works manager and upwards.

Details of the organization in each factory and arsenal are given in their printed statements.

*Recruitment and Training.*—The various schemes under which the ordnance factories endeavour to train men for their various charges is given in Appendix I—“Extracts from a note on Vocational Training in the Ordnance Factories.”

(iii) Appendix II shows sanctioned permanent establishment in the Indian ordnance and clothing factories, and arsenals.

Appendix III shows the average present strength of employees in the Indian ordnance and clothing factories, and arsenals per diem.

*Works Councils, Associations and Trade Unions.*—Brief histories of each that exist are as follows. It will, however, be seen from the detailed reports that various workmen's councils have been started and tried out, but have generally died out.

*Civilian Gazetted Officers' Association of the Ordnance Factories.*—Application for Government recognition of the Association was first received in December, 1925, and Government recognition was accorded in 1926. The membership of the Association is open to the civilian gazetted officers employed in the ordnance and clothing factories and the inspection section. The Association deals with questions relating to the status, conditions of service, concessions, remuneration, etc., of the above-named officers.

On the 28th March, 1929, the Association had on its books 37 members, out of 58 officers eligible.

*Foreman's Association of India.*—This was the first Association in the ordnance factories which was recognized by Government in 1919.

In their application for recognition it was stated that the Association was an incorporated body, duly registered, and requested that it might be recognized by Government as representing the civilian mechanics of the ordnance department, and at the same time assured Government that the object of the Association was to loyally assist the Government in every effort to better the prospects of the civilian mechanics and raise the standard of the department all round.

As this was the first definite application for recognition received by the Government of India from a body of Government servants, the matter was considered in all its bearings between the various departments of the Government of India with regard to such combinations of organized labour in India and their effect on the authority of Government in dealing with them. The matter was ultimately discussed in Viceroy's Council and the principle of recognition accepted. The official recognition was accordingly accorded to the Foreman's Association of India on the conditions laid down in the late Indian Munitions Board letter No. E.-1024, dated the 23rd May, 1919 (see Appendix VII).

The Foreman's Association of India as at present constituted is designed to protect the interests of the non-gazetted staff (principal foremen, foremen and assistant foremen) of the ordnance factories, inspection section and arsenals. Various representations and memorials have been received from time to time for the improvement of their terms and conditions of service during the last four or five years, and have been dealt with by this branch in the usual way and with due expedition.

*Précis of Formation of Whitley Councils, their present condition and work done so far.*—*Formation.*—In June, 1923, the Foreman's Association represented to the late Director-General of Ordnance that they desired the formation of Whitley Councils applicable to the civilian technical non-gazetted officers of the Indian Ordnance Department.

On examining the question in detail it was found that the system in force in England was not in all ways applicable to India, but it was decided to endeavour to form modified Whitley Councils.

The M.G.O., therefore, formed a representative committee consisting of:—One representative of the director of ordnance factories and manufacture, five representative officers from five factories, six members of the foreman's association, to meet in July, 1925, with a view to settling the drill to be followed in regard to the formation of the proposed Whitley Councils. In this meeting the object and functions of the proposed councils were drawn up and after some discussion, the Government of India in September, 1927, accorded an official recognition to the Whitley Councils.

The councils consist of:—

*Factory Councils.*—In each factory, consisting of two gazetted or commissioned officers and two members of the association.

*Central Council.*—Consisting of one gazetted or commissioned officer and one member of the staff side from each factory council.

*General Council.*—Consisting of the members of the central council with a representative of the M.G.O.

(This council is to meet not more than twice in a year and only if asked for by not less than three factory councils.)

All local questions are dealt with in the factory councils. Those that cannot be dealt with in the factory councils are referred to the central council and such matters as cannot be dealt with by the central council are referred to the general council.

The object and function of the councils are:—(i) Provision of best means for utilizing the ideas and experience of the staff; (ii) to make recommendations regarding the general principles governing conditions of service, e.g., recruitment, hours, tenure and remuneration of the staff; (iii) the encouragement of further education of the staff and their training in higher administration; (iv) improvement of office machinery and organization; (v) discussion of the general principles governing superannuation and provident fund rules and their application to the staff; (vi) discussion of any promotion in regard to which the staff side considers that the principles of promotion have been violated.

*Present Condition and Work done so far.*—Members of the factory and central councils were chosen for the first session and the first meeting of the general council was held on 27th November, 1928. The following points were discussed in this meeting:—(a) Interpretation of the objects and functions of the councils; (b) drawing up of bye-laws for the factory and central councils; (c) procedure to be followed in affording executive experience to the non-gazetted staff; (d) procedure to be followed in filling vacancies in junior gazetted and in non-gazetted staff; (e) revision of the I.O.D. provident fund rules; (f) adequacy of the present medical concessions; (g) revision of the existing travelling allowance rules.

Items (a) to (d) have already been settled.

Regarding item (e), this is awaiting revision of the provident fund rules on the railway side, as the I.O.D. provident fund rules are based on those rules.

As regards item (f), the concessions asked for were:—(i) Medical attendance by an R.A.M.C. or an I.M.S. officer or by a qualified civil doctor; (ii) provision of a motor ambulance in each establishment for carrying cases to hospitals; (iii) treatment in military hospitals or where a military hospital is not available, treatment in civil hospitals.

(i) Is already provided for in the regulations; (ii) this is under consideration; (iii) treatment in military hospitals of civilian European gazetted and non-gazetted officers has been sanctioned in Army Department letter No. Z./4380/2 (D.M.S.), dated 9th August, 1929.

As regards item (g), the concessions asked for were:—(x) First-class travelling allowance and daily allowance for non-gazetted staff; (y) actual expenses incurred for journeys within a radius of five miles of headquarters.

(x) Has been negatived; (y) this is under consideration.

*Precis of History of the Cordite Factory Labour Union.*—In the first instance on the formation of the Cordite Factory Labour Union, the master-general of the ordnance had to inform the members that there were no existing rules under which the union could be recognized, but that he would be pleased to meet the members informally whenever he was in Aruvankadu. This he did several times, and came to the conclusion that the union if properly run was likely to be of great assistance to the administration.

Rules having been set forth by the Government of India, the Cordite Factory Labour Union was officially recognized by Government in 1928, on the understanding that the union would not amalgamate with other trade unions not composed of Government employees, and under the further conditions set forth in the rules (see Appendix VIII) regulating the recognition by Government of associations of Government employees. The registration of the union under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, was not considered necessary by the Government.

The union consists of workmen and supervisors on the temporary establishment of the Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu.

On 27th August, 1928, the union had 459 members on its books out of a total eligible strength of about 700. It had a balance to their credit of Rs. 578 on 1st July, 1928.

Representations received from the union from time to time have been given sympathetic consideration and two of the important concessions asked for by them, e.g., grant of leave with pay to daily paid men and provision for old age in the shape of a provident fund, have been recommended to Government and are likely to be in force shortly. Various minor recommendations have been carried out.

*Precis of the History of the Harness and Saddlery Factory Labour Union.*—The Harness and Saddlery Factory Labour Union applied for official recognition in January, 1928, and was officially recognized by Government in June, 1928, on the understanding that the conditions set forth in the rules regulating the recognition by



Government of Associations of Government employees are complied with. The registration of the union under the Trades Union Act of 1926 was not considered necessary by Government.

The union consists of workmen and supervisors on the temporary establishment of the Harness and Saddlery Factory, and of the Inspectorate of Stores and Clothing. The union had 350, out of about 1,800 eligible, members on its books on 31st March, 1929, and had a credit balance of Rs. 48 on that date.

The leaders of the union appear to take their advice from outside rather than inside the factory.

Since its recognition, no representation has been received from this body. An article appeared in the local newspaper "Mazdoor," in February, 1929, written by the honorary secretary of the union, accusing certain members of the Harness and Saddlery Factory staff of corruption, but the writer subsequently retracted it and apologized.

*Association—Clerks, Ordnance Factories.*—Clerks of ordnance factories have an All-India Association, with its headquarters at the Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore, and branches at other ordnance factories. The Association was recognized by Government in 1924. Its aims are mainly to watch the interests of the clerks of the ordnance factories. The membership of the Association as reported by the Association in November last stood at 297, out of approximately 400 who are eligible to join.

There is also an All-India Arsenal Clerks' Association.

### III.—Housing.

There is no doubt that all over the world generally wages have ceased to be the sole consideration in labour problems, and while wages have increased considerably faster than prices, discontent has grown out of the very discovery that money cannot purchase alleviation of the conditions under which men work. With education, the desire for a higher standard of living has increased and labour demands that it shall no longer be bought and sold as a dead commodity, but that its remuneration shall be regulated on the basis of the human needs of a family living in a civilized community.\*

In India, labour has not, except in a very few exceptional cases, arrived at the above pitch of reasoning, but there is no doubt that Indian labour at the present moment looks with appreciation at all attempts made to provide it with decent housing.

As stated in my evidence, I considered that the State should show the way to private concerns in giving decent accommodation to its workmen. Unfortunately, the amount involved was a large one and it has been possible to provide only a small amount in every year for workmen's lines.

Further, this has not merely a moral aspect but a financial one. From statistics kept and information obtained from acquittance rolls, it has been proved in Jubbulpore, that men living in the factory village compared with men living in the bazaar showed an average increase of efficiency of 17.5 per cent. equivalent to 436 annas per man per hour. The men had been for years engaged on piece-work so that their earnings were a measure of their efficiency.

Appendix V† shows what we have been able to do recently for housing workmen and Appendix VI our expenditure on welfare schemes.

### IV.—Health.

The following is the best we have been able to do, but there is no doubt in my mind that there is a strong feeling among workmen for the provision of medical and hospital facilities for themselves and their families:—

#### *Hospitals and Dispensaries.*

Metal and Steel and Rifle Factories, Ishapore.	(1) European park dispensary. (2) Central dispensary and 6-bedded casualty ward for Indian workmen. (3) Gate dispensary for first aid.
Ammunition Factory, Kirkee .. ..	2-bedded dispensary.
Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu .. ..	(1) Central dispensary. (2) Maternity ward and child welfare centre.

\* Hobson.

† Not printed.

*Hospitals and Dispensaries.—Contd.*

Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore ..	The Factory subscribes to a local charitable 60-bed hospital.
Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore ..	(1) Factory dispensary. (2) Lines " (3) 12-bedded hospital under consideration for epidemics.
Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore	Central dispensary.
Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur ..	(1) Hospital for 2 European and 6 Indian beds. (2) First-aid dispensary.

**V.—Welfare.**

It must be borne in mind that all expenditure on health and welfare has to be met out of the factories Budget, which, as explained under Finance (Staff Organization) depends on the rates fixed by the accounts officers for work turned out by the factories. It is only from profits made by efficient work and administration that any money is available, and further the existence of any profit depends on the total factory load being large enough to carry the fixed overhead charges.

Then again the success or otherwise of all the measures depends on the enthusiasm of the staff. The outstanding success of the rifle factory schemes is almost entirely due to the whole-hearted enthusiasm of the late Superintendent, Lieut.-Col. Lenfestey, R.A., and I am glad to be able to place this fact on record.

*Co-operative Societies.*—These valuable societies only exist in five factories, as their existence must depend on local enthusiasm, being self-supporting. Their objects are :—(i) To issue loans to members and free them from debt, and for marriage purposes ; (ii) Supply of stores when co-operative stores do not exist ; (iii) To encourage thrift through a deposit account system ; (iv) To pay home allowances to members' families.

By far the most successful is the Rifle Factory, Ishapore, which on 13th March, 1929, had—members, 2,958 ; working capital, Rs. 2,08,055 ; loans outstanding, Rs. 1,42,686 ; reserve fund, Rs. 20,960.

*Co-operative Stores.*—These again depend on local enterprise, and at present are only running in three factories. The Cordite Factory, for an invested capital of Rs. 7,500, has a turnover of Rs. 95,500 and 410 members.

*Other Welfare Measures.*—1. An Indian Club has been started at Ishapore at a cost of Rs. 25,000 with tennis and Badminton courts.

2. An educational cinema has been installed at the Technical School, Rifle Factory. For this purpose His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief gave a grant of Rs. 1,500 from his special fund.

I would also like to place on record that nearly the whole of the machinery in use at the Technical School has been received as free gifts from various Calcutta engineering firms.

*Grant of Leave with Pay to daily rated and monthly paid Men.*—Our daily rated and monthly paid men in factories at present only get leave with pay as follows :—(a) Leave for two days for plague inoculation ; (b) Short leave for broken periods of a day ; (c) Enforced casual leave for not more than one month at a time when the man himself or a member of his family or household is suffering from an infectious disease, or when he is sent to a Pasteur Institute for antirabic treatment.

A scheme has now been approved to follow railway practice and grant, in addition to the above, 15 days' casual leave with pay (to cover absences on account of non-gazetted holidays, sickness or leave) in each year to daily rated, but monthly paid, artisans, workmen and piece-workers, subject to the following conditions :—(i) That the man has been in the regular employment of the factories or inspection sections for the previous 12 months ; (ii) That the leave cannot be claimed as a right, nor can it accumulate.

*Provident Fund for monthly and daily rated Supervising and Clerical Staffs, Workmen and Piece-workers employed on Temporary Establishments of Ordnance and Clothing Factories and Inspection Sections.*—A proposal for making provision against old age and incapacity was mooted by the Cordite Factory Labour Union, Aruvankadu, in 1924. After prolonged consideration of this proposal the Government of India decided recently that the institution of a contributory provident fund for these workers is justified. Government have come to this decision not only from the point of view of the welfare of the employees, but with also the object of preventing the

pecuniary loss to Government caused by the fact that skilled workmen of the factories have frequently been tempted away to other workshops which offer inducements in the shape of provident fund, bonus and gratuities such as railway workshops. Government also preferred a contributory provident fund over a direct increase in emoluments of the workers concerned chiefly on the grounds that the provident fund enables a man to save money which otherwise, under the family system prevailing in this country, would go to his relatives or be spent on weddings and other ceremonies also that a provident fund has a great value in developing thrift and strengthening the position of the employer.

2. The Secretary of State has now approved the Government of India's scheme generally, but while leaving the detailed approval of the proposed rules to the Government of India, made certain suggestions. These suggestions may take some time in complying with, and then when funds can be made available the scheme will be brought to being (probably on 1st April, 1930). The provident fund scheme thus approved provides for subscription to the proposed fund by men with three or more years' continuous service in the factories or inspection sections, and includes certain safeguards against the men resigning their employments in order to obtain the provident fund money at their credit. Government contribution to each subscribers's account will be 50 per cent. of the money subscribed by him. This, though meeting to some extent the case of future workmen, does not legislate for the loyal workers of long service, who shortly have to leave through ill health or old age. The only way to meet these cases is the payment of bonuses from the fine funds, which is not an ideal method of meeting the obligation.

*Fine Funds.*—A fine fund is maintained by each ordnance and clothing factory. Its income is derived from fines realized on the following account from men on the extra and temporary establishment, whether monthly paid, daily paid or piece-workers :—Lateness, absence, bad work and breach of rules.

The fund is utilized for the benefit of the workmen and their families generally. The following is legitimate expenditure from the fund :—(a) Gratuities or donations may be given to workmen on discharge, but they must not exceed those permitted by regulations, though they may be given in addition to them; (b) Donations to widows and families of deceased workmen; (c) Allowances to sick or injured men in special cases; (d) Relief in deserving cases, e.g., losses from floods or fires in the houses of men who have claims on the factory; (e) Cost of construction and maintenance of such buildings and institutions as rest and dinner sheds, grain and other shops and schools for the benefit of the workmen and their families, provided that the entire expenditure on this account, initial as well as recurring, is met from the fine fund, and no portion thereof is charged against the working expenses of the factories.

Bonuses may be given periodically for good attendance or long service or for special good services.

#### VI.—Education.

There is no doubt that education of workmen and their families leads to efficiency of work, better workmen, and the power for workmen to recognize the efforts that are being made, and that ought to be made, for their own comfort, health and well-being.

The amount of work we have succeeded in doing, with the funds at our disposal, is detailed in Appendix I.

#### XII.—Wages.

Ordnance factories are distinct in a way from civilian factories, in that they are a branch of the army. They have to keep, in many cases, a larger nucleus of keymen, buildings and equipment than might be necessary in peace, to be ready for instant mobilization and enormous expansion in war. They do not require their men to serve under fire, but they do expect men to work somewhat under the same spirit of self-sacrifice as soldiers do, and to put their last ounce of effort into a job in the nation's service.

Their wages must vary in various factories, depending on local conditions, climate, race, etc., but the general principles for fixing wages are as follows :—

Wages are to be fixed in the first instance at the lowest rate that we can persuade efficient workmen to engage, which rate must be sufficient to keep them in such a state of fitness and keenness at all times that they may turn out our goods at the lowest practicable cost. Superintendents are encouraged to exercise full responsibility in the matter, and to take into consideration, in addition to actual money, education, quarters, welfare and other amenities. They have in their evidence detailed their local methods.

The higher management generally scrutinizes to see that the standard of fitness and keenness aimed at is not in excess of what is economical, having due regard to repercussions on the army at large and on local industries.

The criterion for testing these amenities is precisely the same as that for testing whether a new pattern machine is advisable ; (a) Have we cash available to authorize these ? (b) Money paid in the event of a man being hurt ; (c) Is it reasonably probable that they will not cause unwelcome repercussions in the army at large ?

It will be seen from the detailed reports that having fixed the minimum, in most factories work is graded into various scales, and the probationer is trade tested and his grade provisionally fixed. The trade test, in addition, is to ascertain whether it is safe to allow a man to try his hand at a specific job without undue risk of loss, by waste of material, of machine time, or of planning time.

In ordnance factories 95 per cent. of the workmen are paid on piece-work rates, and so the trade test not only fixes a nominal daily rate which only governs (a) money paid for a holiday with pay ; (b) money paid in the event of a man being hurt, but also the scale of piece-work rate.

The piece-work rate is fixed with the intention that a man of average intelligence with the necessary minimum skill, after a short experience, can earn about 25 per cent. over his nominal daily rate. Exceptional men can attain to three times the normal wage. If a man fails to earn sufficient he either leaves on his own, or is discharged by the factory for being a nuisance.

If it is found that an insufficient number of men stop, it is necessary to increase the piece-work rates or improve the standard of planning, whichever is most economical.

*Daily versus Monthly rates of Pay.*—From the fact that the load on factories depends on the yearly variation of demands from the army, which itself depends on the size of the army, the changes in patterns of equipment and lethal weapons, policy and economy, the ordnance factories have to be in an elastic position as regards the majority of their labour. Further monthly paid men clamour for every holiday, which in India are most numerous ; whereas daily paid men clamour for the factory to be kept open on holidays, which adds to efficiency and economy.

We restrict monthly paid men to those who normally do not do much overtime, but are essentially whole-time Government servants, keymen, and those cases where a man's job ought to carry a special " izzat."

The additional arguments on either side are as follows :—

*Daily Wage Men.*—(1) They are not whole-time servants of Government ; (2) They are therefore entitled to overtime ; (3) Unless specifically agreed to the contrary, they can go absent at any time without penalty, and in any case the penalty is small ; (4) They can be paid at piece-work rates, without difficulty, and allocation of time to a job is simple ; (5) There is no difficulty, other than funds being available without injustice to others, in arranging for a limited amount of leave with pay ; (6) Rates of pay are by custom fixed locally, and can follow market conditions.

*Monthly Wage Men.*—(1) Are whole-time servants of Government ; (2) They are therefore not entitled to overtime, and special sanctions have to be obtained to pay it ; (3) In theory one day's absence without leave ends their service, and washes out all previous service unless absence is specially condoned. In practice this is arranged for, but at any time they are at the mercy of audit, which is necessarily soulless ; (4) Piece-work payment is difficult if not impossible, and time allocation to a job is harder ; (5) They are automatically entitled to privilege leave under certain conditions annually ; (6) Rates of pay have invariably to be sanctioned by higher and non-local authority, and payment has to be subject to pre-audit. It is in consequence difficult for rates to follow the market ; (7) From the old idea of what are now considered illegitimate " perquisites," the rates of pay which will initially attract are low, and this leads later to dissatisfaction.

*Regularity of Employment and rates of Pay.*—The question has been asked whether we have to pay higher wages owing to irregularity of employment. There is no such thing as absolute constancy of employment in any job which depends on demand. The army is commonly regarded as constant employment, and yet in the war temporary engagements were innumerable.

This impossibility of guaranteeing continuity is common to all firms employing labour of the class we do. We endeavour to keep labour as constant as possible because anything else is expensive, not in direct wages, but in lost material and time.

We have repeatedly made comparisons with other firms, and do not seem to pay more at any rate, either in money or money's worth.

The question has further been touched on in the detailed replies from factories (see Metal and Steel Factory, para. 101).

### XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.

The questionnaire as it stands is very difficult to deal with. Workmen's efficiency depends very largely (a) on efficient management, administration and plant, while (b) it also depends on welfare, health, education, standards of living, etc.

In my opinion, to undertake a given volume of work a larger number of Indian workmen and a larger number of men employed on supervision and planning is necessary than is the case in England.

While as regards (a) we can have a standard as equally high as in England, as regards (b) we are a long way behind, and this seems the avenue along which to increase efficiency.

The experience of ordnance factories from 1796 onwards has shown that with efficient management, Indian factories can compete effectively with imported goods, and in the long run definitely undersell imported goods of identical quality and similar numbers, provided always they are produced by the same methods, i.e., mass production or general engineering methods. It is obvious that an article in either country produced by general engineering methods cannot compete with one produced by mass production. The point, however, is that it takes from two to five years to do this, after all plant is ready and manufacture started, and it will only be obtained if the management is accustomed to make the best advantage of the peculiarities of Indian labour.

One further difficulty has inevitably to be faced. If a new industry starts in England, a "by product" market exists or can be developed. In India "by product" markets are very difficult to find.

Though only speaking for ordnance factories, I believe that the same experience will be found in commercial work. The fact that ordnance factories have to carry greater capital and nucleus staff in peace to insure meeting war needs is balanced by profit and interest on capital, which has to be taken into account in commercial enterprises.

Generally speaking, we consider that there are ample margins for the standard of comfort and education to rise considerably without undue difficulty to the management in keeping costs competitive, provided the workmen continue to realize that to get greater advantages, they must earn them. This, I think, they are shrewd enough to realize.

### XV.—Industrial Disputes.

The Indian workman as a whole is singularly unvoiced, and it is, in consequence, very hard to always ascertain what grievances exist. If one can do this, it is often easy to remove the grievance. Their very voicelessness, however, makes them suspicious of changes, and it is often difficult to get rid of imaginary grievances.

If a grievance cannot be accurately located, their voicelessness is an unmitigated nuisance. What, for want of a better word can only be called political agitators, find it easy to get hold of them. In this event strikes are apt to be long drawn and futile, and the removal of the real grievances does not always lead to contentment.

An example was the introduction of the Labour Bureau at the Rifle Factory. The first and immediate effect of the Labour Bureau was to put a somewhat abrupt end to the system which had grown up and was justified by tradition, whereby gang mistries and various higher grades got a rake off from individual workmen on employment, and promotion, and had considerable say in discharges. Although the men who lost traditional perquisites and power were given small increases in pay, they did not appreciate the innovation. The workmen even were suspicious, as they imagined at first they were losing the old protection from above. The suspicion was taken full advantage of by outsiders to boost "non-co-operation." After some six weeks the men came back unconditionally, but it still took some time to get them to fully realize that they were better off.

The break up of the gang system at Cawnpore led to similar trouble, but more sporadic.

Delays in dealing in 1920 with a known and located grievance at Jubbulpore led to a long drawn out strike, but it took several years to really re-establish confidence.

In the case of this grievance the cause was located at Kirkee, and was common to all India. During the war the cost of living rose, and earnings during the war period (which in factories continued throughout the Afghan war and later) kept pace with this owing to overtime and increased intensity of planning. When the pressure ceased all earnings, particularly piece-workers, fell below the minimum necessary for a reasonable standard of comfort. The cause was obvious, and increased rates were ordered forthwith, together with a strict scrutiny of all workmen's jobs to ascertain

whether they were workers or passengers. Passengers were eliminated as far as justice would allow. The result was to give individuals enough pay without any appreciable rise in the cost of goods. The increased efficiency soon removed even the slight rise in the latter.

Rapid action was taken in all factories except Jubbulpore, and elsewhere there was little or no trouble. At Jubbulpore there was delay, and the superintendent was moved elsewhere.

This voicelessness of the Indian workmen makes the higher management ready to welcome labour unions. A union which will give the management coherent intimation of incipient grievances is invaluable. At the same time not every union can be welcomed, it must really represent the men, and have their interests at heart. If the union presses for abnormal privileges for one group, it is merely raising discontent elsewhere. The Indian workman is intensely shrewd. An analogy to his village system is easily followed. When reductions of staff become necessary, for example, they will instantly appreciate why their village cannot afford to keep more than two blacksmiths to look after 200 cattle. A union that brings this shrewdness to bear is invaluable, one that does not is damaging in the long run both to the management and workmen.

The question of recognition is complicated. For example, it is hard to expect a Government to recognize a union which definitely announces that one of its objects is to destroy that Government. At the same time if the union is reasonably sane, no difficulty is experienced in practice whether there is formal recognition or no. In any case the management, higher and lower, do meet union representatives and do hear their views, and such action is taken as is practicable.

## APPENDIX I.

### *Technical and Vocational Training.*

The whole of the various schemes now working in the factories are shown in extracts from the report made by the Master-General of the Ordnance in 1926 on his proposals for revision and improvement. Most of these recommendations have been carried out except as regards gazetted officers, which latter are still under consideration with the Secretary of State, and this part has been omitted as it will not apparently interest the Labour Commission.

### *Report on Vocational Training in the Ordnance Factories in India with proposals for Revision and Improvement.*

Part I.—General; Part II.—Boy Artisans; Part III.—Apprentices; Part IV.—Apprenticeship training in individual factories; Part V.—Schools; Part VI.—Hostels; Part VII.—Financial proposals.

#### *Abbreviations used.*

R. F. . . . .	.. ..	Rifle Factory, Ishapore.
M. & S. F. . . . .	.. ..	Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore.
G. & S. F. . . . .	.. ..	Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore.
H. & S. F. . . . .	.. ..	Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore.
G. C. F. . . . .	.. ..	Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore.
A. F. . . . .	.. ..	Ammunition Factory, Kirkee.
Cord. F. . . . .	.. ..	Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu (near Ootacamund).
Clo. F. . . . .	.. ..	Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur.
M. G. S. . . . .	.. ..	Master-General of Supply (now Master-General of the Ordnance in India).
D. O. F. & M. . . . .	.. ..	Director of Ordnance Factories and Manufacture.

## PART I.

### *General.*

1. Vocational training has been carried on in various ways in ordnance factories since their inception. A revised apprenticeship scheme was sanctioned as lately as A. D. letter No. 1048-4 (O. 3), dated 19th January, 1924, but no attempt was made to place schools and boy artisan training on a satisfactory footing. The apprentice scheme has done good work, but experience has shown that it requires revision and pruning, while a co-ordinated, all-embracing scheme of vocational training, if now sanctioned, may lead to very successful results. It is hoped that this report will show that the authorities concerned are very whole-heartedly keen on making a success

and giving the inhabitants of India a chance to train in ordnance factories. Naturally, as practically the whole expense is borne by the army, the interests of the ordnance factories is the predominating feature, but there is no obligation for those trained to remain in the factories; so successful scheme must undoubtedly react wholesomely on India in general.

It will be noted that the additional expenditure asked for, both initial and recurring, is very small, compared with the importance of the results, which may be obtained.

2. Ordnance factories not only cover, a very wide field of production, but the products must be of a high standard, as in use they are subjected to severe conditions at a time when failure may be disastrous. Further, they are products of precision and inter-changeable, requiring accurately adjusted machinery, high grade tools, and work of a high degree of exactitude. As weight is a very important consideration, strength must be obtained by quality, not quantity of material. Taking steel as an example, this means that the material must be perfectly treated and subjected to physical, chemical and microscopic tests. The critical constants must be determined by the thermal curves. It is then forged at definite temperatures, normalized and macrographs taken to examine the flow of grain. It is then machined, and it is often necessary to relieve the stresses by annealings. It is hardened and tempered, the process being controlled by pyrometers. The results being checked by the Brinell impact test, tensile tests, photo-micrograph, etc. An equally careful and scientific procedure is required for other materials. This, however, is not now a laboratory, but a workshop operation, and in the hands of workmen who have to deal with expensive and delicate appliances.

To enable the best to be made of material as outlined above, experience and knowledge of a high degree are required, and this is brought to the workshop in the form of supervision. In old days, the good workman rose to foreman, but he would be quite incapable of supervising the processes mentioned above. Now, to properly exercise this supervision a comparatively high professional and scientific training is necessary, together with manual dexterity acquired by experience, and this is even more necessary in India than in other countries in view of the general low efficiency of the labour that has to be supervised. It is further obvious that supervision can now only be entrusted to the educated, and can be only efficiently exercised by men with long experience and training.

3. The above paragraph is an attempt to show very briefly why the ordnance factories have to engage their supervision in England, and why it is vitally necessary for them to educate and train men in India to enable English recruits to be replaced. This is the object of our apprentice schemes.

4. Further, as regards workmen, the Indian shows considerable intelligence, and has proved himself capable of work requiring the highest skill, but generally he is handicapped by lack of elementary education, and the average of skilled labour is very low and largely illiterate. Hence we also require to educate boys to become tradesmen, with highly developed manual skill, combined with sufficient elementary education to read and write English, to enable them to have access to engineering tables and data. This is the object of our boy artisan classes.

5. We require in factories :—(a) *Gazetted officers*, who must be men of high education, great technical knowledge, ripe experience and the necessary qualities to make leaders of men. It is seldom that they will be found by promotion from (b) *Foremen and others engaged in supervision* (see Part II). These men must be absolute experts at their trades to command respect from their workmen, combined with sufficient education to efficiently exercise the functions of supervision sketched in paragraph 1. Grit and personality are very important qualities; (c) *Skilled tradesmen* (see Part II).

6. We will now deal with these three grades in the reverse order.

## PART II.

### *Skilled Tradesmen supplied by the Boy Artisan Class.*

1. *Field of Recruitment and Numbers required.*—As far as possible, they should be sons of our workmen, and their numbers might be unlimited, both for the sake of the factories on mobilization and for the general good of India.

The numbers that can be entertained, however, depend on the load on the factories. If working at full output, a large number could be entertained, but working, as we are at present on reduced output, the numbers must be restricted both because of the reduced flow of work, and because too large numbers would mask production costs.

The existing numbers and the numbers recommended at present are :—

	R. F.	M. & S. F.	G. & S. F.	H. & S. F.	G.C.F.	A.F.	Cord. F.	Clo. F.	F. Total.
Existing .. ..	19	16	28	18	84	14	18	Nil.	197
Recommended .. ..	30	20	30	25	50	20	10	20	205

The M. G. S. should be empowered to raise these numbers to a maximum of 300, if time and experience show they can be absorbed without detriment to factory output.

2. *Education*—(a) *Theoretical*.—This will be compulsory for boy artisans in factory schools, which now require to be placed where necessary on a sound basis. This is a transferred subject, and the local education grants only finance a school to the same extent as money is provided by the local body, which is the factory. This question of schools being a lengthy one is dealt with in Part V. It must be understood that not only boy artisans are concerned, but the general question of workmen's children and half-timers working in the factory.

(b) *Technical*.—This should be practically in one trade or in one or two branches thereof, and the object is to produce skilled tradesmen, and from these in time higher grade of extra temporary supervision than is now obtainable.

(i) The training should normally be for 4 years, but in certain trades may be extended to 5 years, at the discretion of the superintendent.

(ii) There will be no obligation to employ or render service at the termination of the training.

(iii) Age of recruitment should not be less than 12 or more than 17, but each factory may fix its range at the discretion of the superintendent to suit the various trades it caters for.

(iv) There should be approximately 10 hours per week theoretical instruction in school, of as high a standard as the factory can provide or the boys assimilate. Where it is more convenient or efficient to give this in night schools, it may be done.

(v) A minimum of 6 hours a day to be spent in the shops *as soon as possible*, and as far as possible on production work.

(vi) Maximum pay as follows, but pay to be fixed by each factory superintendent to suit the circumstances of the station. Promotion to be based on proved earning capacity (but see note below) :—

1st year .. ..	8 annas per diem.
2nd " " " "	8 " "
3rd " " " "	10 " "
4th " " " "	12 " "
5th " " " "	14 " "

One anna extra per diem for good colloquial English, and a further one anna for reading and writing English. Further, in cases where boy artisans show great skill and proficiency, they may be placed on piece-work rates at the discretion of the superintendent. Eight annas a month to be contributed by each boy artisan to the schools. Eight annas a month to be passed to the credit of the boy artisan in a deferred pay fund, and only to be paid over to him on his completing his course to the satisfaction of the superintendent.

Note.—In cases where a lad who is already earning satisfactory money in one branch of a trade (e.g., milling) is changed over to another branch (e.g., slotting) for training, he should have his daily rate continued, whatever his earnings, for such period as it is considered by the Superintendent reasonable for him to take to attain the equivalent degree of skill.

3.—*Cost*.—Boy artisans have been trained in the ordnance factories for over 50 years, but no attempt has been made to definitely settle their status. They have been treated as unskilled workers and, as stated under apprentices, the fluctuating load on factories means constantly "hiring" and "dismissing" men. Whenever a new unskilled workman is taken on he is put on a daily rate, but for some time he costs an appreciable sum. Till he knows his work he spoils machines, materials and tools, and takes up the time of mistries and foremen in teaching him. This is part of inevitable expenditure against the factory.

Boy artisans are treated in the same way, and in some factories boy artisans soon earn their pay, but in others they do not.

For example, in the R. F. he is carefully selected, for 140 days he is attached to a selected skilled workman, usually a relative. After 140 days without pay, he gets his share of the profit or of this gang of two, or may be permitted to work alone, and very soon earns his pay.



In other factories, it is impossible to get boys to work without pay, and in some cases the workmen object to having them in their gangs.

Further, he has to go for two hours schooling, which deducts from his production.

No provision is made for theoretical tuition, books or apparatus.

Further, average lads may earn their pay, but the lads above the average, whom we specially want to train for the extra temporary supervision, require special arrangements, and often, in consequence, cannot earn their pay.

On the sanction of the apprentice scheme, some difficulty arose with regard to boy artisans as the accounts rightly contended that they did not all earn all their pay, and it was decided to charge, wherever possible, direct to production, and the balance to a special work order A.-67, which was the apprentice grant, and limited to Rs. 50,000, and already too small for the apprentice scheme.

Now, it is requested that the scheme may be regularized, and a definite sum sanctioned by Government as a maximum and placed at the disposal of the D. O. F. & M. for allocation to factories.

The factory allotment should be placed to a special work order Training of Boy Artisans, which will be debited with the pay of each boy, and credited with his productive out-turn, the account of each boy being kept separate. Taking a four years course as a normal, the average pay proposed works out at As.  $\frac{3}{4}$ A=9½ annas per diem. Add 50 per cent. of the extra 2 annas allowed for English=1 anna. Average pay 10½ annas. As shown, any definite estimate for a fair charge direct to production is impossible, and a conservative guess may be 5 annas, leaving 5½ for indirect charge. Add ¼ anna for equipment, prizes, miscellaneous, making 6 annas in all. Taking working days at 24 a month, this works out to 9 rupees a month per boy artisan or Rs. 108 a year.

It must be understood that the whole is now borne by the factory, and the above is only a convenient method of watching results, and allocating to indirect charges or direct charges.

It is requested that this may be sanctioned up to a maximum of 300 boy artisans, provision being made in the budget for the actual numbers anticipated in the coming year. If experience shows a greater percentage can be charged direct to production, the budget provision can be altered.

Further, it is found that it is often very efficient to give a bonus to selected artisans for instructions, and sanction may be accorded for a bonus up to Rs. 4 per mensem to be given when considered necessary by the superintendent, and charged to the special work order.

### PART III.

#### *Apprentices.*

1. *General.*—The existing scheme is as sanctioned in army department letter No. 1048-4 (O. 3), dated Simla, the 19th January, 1924, and has generally shown signs of success, but experience now enables us to more accurately define its scope, and make some improvements and alterations. The existing scheme is in some ways based on the system followed at the Royal Ordnance Factories, England.

2. *Object.*—It must be definitely understood that our object is to train men *who can build on their apprentice training, by work as improvers*, and ultimately fit themselves for chargemen, assistant foremen and foremen as their individual capacity and personality dictate. A few may rise to higher things, and provision is being made for these.

It will be understood that the opportunities, trades, standards, etc., possible, vary enormously in the different factories, and each must be considered separately, but there are some general principles common to all factories.

3. *Recruitment.*—Recruits are available in far greater numbers than our requirements or capacity for training, and in many cases we can demand a high educational qualification. The following principles should be laid down :—

(i) Apprentices will be recruited from every race and creed found suitable for performance of the work required. They will include a proportion of Europeans, Anglo-Indians, Mohammedans, Hindus, Sikhs, Punjabis, Madrasis, etc. It is most undesirable that any one class or caste should predominate.

(ii) Too great stress should not be laid on purely educational qualifications, and social standing, physique, health, character, skill at games, etc., must be considered. Candidates successful in the qualifying examination should be personally interviewed before final selection.

(iii) The entrance qualification should be generally a "sound general education." The exact qualifications to be fixed by each factory to suit their peculiar circumstances and to be sanctioned by the M. G. S.

(iv) *Period of Apprenticeship*.—To be five years, except in certain specialized trades (e.g., plumbing), where a longer or shorter period is required and is customary. Also the term is extensible in case of unavoidable sickness. It is to be sanctioned by D. O. F. & M.

(v) *Scope of Apprenticeship*.—"General Engineering Apprenticeship" to be limited to four factories—those at Ishapore, the Gun Carriage Factory at Jubbulpore and the Ammunition Factory, Kirkee. The other factories to have specialized apprentices. *Apprentices*.—Most of the apprentices at the Metal and Steel Factory will be "special."

(vi) *Pay*.—The maximum rates of subsistence pay, as at present sanctioned, are as follows, but rates may be fixed within this scale in each factory, to suit the circumstances of the locality and this will be sanctioned by the M. G. S.

					Rs.	
1st year	..	..	..	..	40	p.m.
2nd "	..	..	..	..	50	"
3rd "	..	..	..	..	60	"
4th "	..	..	..	..	70	"
5th "	..	..	..	..	80	"
6th "	..	..	..	..	100	"

} If housed by the State,  
Rs. 20 p.m. to be deducted. (See, however, para. 5 below.)

10 per cent. of an apprentice's pay will be deducted and placed in the Post Office Savings Bank or a recognized deferred pay fund. It will only be paid to him if he completes the full apprenticeship to the satisfaction of the superintendent, and no other charges are outstanding against him.

(vii) *Rules*.—Conditions of service, indentures if any, rules, etc., to be based on a common principle, but to be drawn up to suit the individual needs of each factory and sanctioned by the M. G. S. as is done at present.

4. The present number of apprentices sanctioned is 290, and the existing number is 171 (1925).

I propose the following maximum numbers for the factories:—

R. F.	M. & S.	G. & S.	H. & S.	G. C. Fy.	A. F.	Cord F.	Clo. F.	Total
60	30	20	24	32	16	20	20	222

or allowing for contingencies, say 230.

I propose therefore that instead of the intricate rules existing, there should be a fixed grant of Rs. 22 per apprentice.

5. *Deduction of Rs. 20 p.m. for Rent*.—The present rule is that if an apprentice is housed in a hostel, a deduction of Rs. 20 on account of rent is made. This is regarded as a grievance. The rates of subsistence pay have been given with a view to a living wage for boys apprenticed a long way from their homes, and we propose to embrace all India. I strongly recommend this deduction should be done away with altogether, but if this is not approved it should be reduced to a nominal figure. It should be recognized that a subsistence pay is for a definite purpose, and all charges, such as rent, lighting, water tax and conservancy should be a book debit against training and not recoverable.

#### PART IV.

*Consideration of the Conditions of Apprenticeship Training in individual Factories.*

1. *General Engineering Apprentices*—(a) *R. F.*—This factory has gone far ahead of all others, and has a successful system of apprenticeship developed. The educational qualifications of applicants is high and so selection is easy, but it has the inherent disadvantage that up to date practically only Bengalis have been admitted. This is now being changed, and letters issued to all Governments in India to nominate candidates for the entrance examination.

This is the only factory which does and can aim at two classes of apprentices:—

(a) Student apprentices; (b) Trade apprentices.

*Student Apprentices*.—The entrance qualifications and entrance examination are fairly stiff. The object of the theoretical and practical training is to turn out lads for trades which require general engineering education. The apprentice will still require to work as an improver, but this time may be spent in any selected factory or workshop. He should rise rapidly to chageman and assistant foreman.

It is emphasised that the training of student apprentices does not mean the lads are being trained for gazetted ranks, but rather for trades such as draughtsmen, gauge, tool and fixing designers, etc., which require general professional engineering training. The training is intended to be of a standard which would enable a lad to compete for a Whitworth scholarship, if such existed in India. It must be recognized that attaining to higher posts is a matter of personal qualifications, including experience, and a certain few of the best will be eligible for further training.

Lads who cannot keep pace with the work will on the recommendation of the superintendent, be permitted to join the trade apprentice class. The number sanctioned is five per annum.

*Trade Apprentices.*—This is the general type of apprentice we cater for, and while learning one trade thoroughly, apprentices are given opportunities of learning a reasonable amount about allied trades (e.g., a toolmaker will be trained primarily as a fitter and turner, but will do a certain amount in smithy, pattern making, drawing office, etc.). It is intended the lads should be thoroughly useful tradesmen, so trained that the most ambitious and capable will not be handicapped by lack of technical knowledge from rising to the posts of foremen. This paragraph may be taken to apply to all trade apprentices in all factories. The R. F. is well equipped for high grade tool production and for plant maintenance, but otherwise has little machinery of a general engineering character and the trades which can at present be taken on are:—(1) Toolmakers; (2) Millwrights; (3) Blacksmiths; (4) Joiners and pattern makers.

The number sanctioned is the number necessary to bring the total number of apprentices at any given time up to 60. It will be seen that this scheme is very much more complete than possible in any other factory, and it is recommended that for the R. F. in addition to the Rs. 22 a month per apprentice, the following be sanctioned:—

	Rs.
(1) Hostel * superintendent at average pay 273 .. .. .	3,276 per annum
(2) Full-time lecturers at 273 .. .. .	6,552 ..
	9,828 ..

The monthly allowance will be required for the part-time services of members of the staff, equipment, etc.

Ten student apprentices have completed their training. Eight have been retained as improvers, one has obtained employment in the M. & S. F. and one in the inspection branch.

Four trade apprentices have passed out; one is employed in the M. & S. F. and two in the Calcutta Corporation, and one in the Stocking (woodwork) section of the factory.

(b) *M. & S. F.*—This factory has no apprentices at present, but a scheme is now under consideration. They will all be trade apprentices, and the following trades can be catered for:—(1) Non-ferrous worker; (2) Blacksmiths; (3) Steel rollers; (4) Moulders; (5) Electrical engineers; (6) Millwrights; (7) Toolmakers.

The apprentices will attend for theoretical work the class in the R. F. for the technical instruction of trade lads, and may be required to take such classes with the international correspondence schools as the superintendent may direct.

Note.—It has been found that very few, if any, Indians will take up apprenticeship at the M. & S. F. The work is very heavy and hot.

(c) *G. & S. F.*—The apprentices are of the class of trade apprentices, and carry out their theoretical training at the Calcutta Technical Evening School, and are given lectures of a semi-practical and technical nature by the factory staff.

There are at present 16 apprentices, and 10 have passed out. Two are supervisors in the factory. The rest were offered work as improvers, but selected to leave, and of these, six are known to have obtained appointments with engineering firms of repute.

(d) *G. C. F.*—The following trades are available for trade apprentices:—(1) Machine workers; (2) Fitters and erectors; (3) Smiths; (4) Moulders and pattern makers; (5) Carpenters; (6) Power station work.

Theoretical work is at present done by the factory staff. The present number is 36.

\* See Hostels.

Seven have completed their course of training. One has been selected by the Central Provinces Government for a 3-year improver course with an engineering firm in England. Another has entered the Manchester Works of the Metropolitan Vickers Co. on a 2 years' scholarship. Three have been engaged by the factory, one in the inspection branch and one in the electrical department of the G. I. P. Railway. As this is a very promising field for apprenticeship, it is recommended that a hostel be built (*vide* Part VI). Further, this year for apprentice training, a physical and chemical laboratory has been provided in the main office block. The present allowance for a senior chemical instructor is 50 p.m. and a junior 25 p.m.—Rs. 900 per annum.

The work is done by two chemists on the factory staff, whose salaries less the above 900 are charged to works inspection. As they devote more than half their time to apprentice training, it is considered only fair that half their salaries, viz., Rs. 2,250 be charged to apprentice instruction being an increase of 1,350 per annum.

2. *Specialized Trade Apprentices*—(a) *Harness & S. F.*—Apprentices take the following courses:—

A. Tanning	..	..	..	..	..	4 years.
Currying	..	..	..	..	..	2 ..
B. Harness and saddlery	..	..	..	..	..	5 ..

Local arrangements are made for hostel accommodation. There are at present eight apprentices, only one has completed the course, and has gained a post in a local tannery. No alteration recommended.

(b) *A. F.*—There are at present 18 apprentices. Three have passed out, one being appointed to the factory, one has proceeded to England, and one has obtained employment in India. The trade apprentices at the A. F. do a general engineering training. A new scheme is now under consideration. The Poona Engineering College gives students a three years' course of theoretical and practical training in mechanical and electrical engineering, and then places them for two years with the Tata Iron and Steel Works, Jamshedpur; M. & S. M. Railway Workshops, Perambur; E. I. Railway Workshops, Jamalpur; B. N. Railway Workshops, Kharagpur; B. B. & C. I. Ry. Workshops, Ajmer.

It is proposed that the A. F. should become a training centre for these apprentices. It is thought the factory will get a far better trained apprentice at a reduced cost of training as the factory has very poor facilities for theoretical education. I recommend that the power to inaugurate this scheme be vested in the M. G. S., provided that the cost does not exceed that at present sanctioned for 16 apprentices allotted to the A. F., viz., pay as per Part III, paragraph 2 (vi), plus 22 per mensem per apprentice.

(c) *Cord. F.*—The trade apprentices are here necessarily specialized, and the object of training is to provide men who can be employed in a supervisory capacity in chemical works. The scope and numbers are consequently limited. Two years are devoted to machine tools, fitting, carpentry, smithy, repair and maintenance of electrical plant, steam boilers, and two years to practical operations involved in cordite manufacture (excluding the manufacture of nitro-glycerine). The rules, etc., are satisfactory, and no alteration is recommended.

This factory should be given Rs. 300 per mensem, till the number of apprentices reaches 14. It should also be given an initial grant of Rs. 3,000 per annum for three years to provide all the necessary equipment, etc., which starting a scheme involves.

(d) *Clo. F.*—This factory has only been recently taken over by the M. G. S. branch and rebuilt and reorganized. It has no schools, apprentices, boy artisans or welfare scheme.

## PART V.

### Schools.

Schooling for children of employees is imperative from the point of view of the moral obligation of the employer, and the ultimate efficiency of the factories. It will be seen from the following report on existing schools that the circumstances and success of the existing schools vary and seem greatly dependent on local initiative. Some have been built and supported or partly built and partly supported from the Workmen's Fine Fund which severely cripples the Fine Fund.

In certain cases there are no teachers, except volunteers from the staff.

Schools are required not only for boy artisans, but for the large number of half-timer boys working in the factories, and also for the children of workmen, or families living on the estate.

The existing situation in each factory will be reviewed separately, and the immediate needs to place the schools on a satisfactory footing noted. Education is a transferred subject, and the local Governments have assisted, but in some cases shortage of funds is, as usual, in the way.

I. R. F.—This is by far the most elaborate system and consists of:—

(a) The ordnance Village Infant School. For children below 8 years of age.

(See M. and S. F.)

(b) The ordnance Village Primary School. Provides a four years' course of primary education, especially adapted for requirements of an engineering career. It caters also for the M. and S.F. The boy artisans attend the school, and also special evening classes.

(c) Missing link—a technical school—dealt with afterwards.

(d) Continuation classes. These are held in the factory by Indian personnel, such as clerks, supervisors, draughtsmen, godown keepers, etc., and comprise such subjects as fitting, turning, English, elementary mathematics and are self-supporting.

2. *The Technical School.*—This is the missing link as under the existing system there is a break in the education of boys between the age of 12, when they leave the primary school, and the age of 15, when they join the factory.

It will also provide evening instruction for the purpose of raising the status of men in employment, which they cannot do at present. The school has only just been sanctioned. The capital cost will be Rs. 50,490.

Recurring Cost Rs. 540.

The Bengal Government have agreed to contribute Rs. 25,000 capital and Rs. 3,600 per annum,

3. *Staff of the Primary School.*—Towards this we receive a grant-in-aid for three years from the Bengal Government which covers the cost of staff (excluding part-time instructors, 40 rupees p.m. paid from the Fine Fund). Local Governments, as a rule, only pay half the cost and owners the rest, but the reason for their generosity is that they paid nothing to the cost of buildings and their grant-in-aid will be reduced to half in 1929. The Fine Fund also contributes a sum of about Rs. 1,000 per annum for electric light, equipment and prizes which should be really a Government contribution.

I recommend that the following expenditure should be sanctioned, viz., Rs. 1,500 p.a. at present, and Rs. 3,760 p.a. from 1929 onwards.

4. *Buildings.*—Excellent buildings exist, the funds for which were originally sanctioned from the Fine Funds of the R. F. and M. & S. F., but the M. & S. F. could provide no funds except for the Infant School, so the rest of the cost has fallen on the R. F. This consisted of:—

	Rs.
Buildings .. .. .	about 12,000
Equipment .. .. .	2,000

5. Inspectors' reports have been very satisfactory.

II. *M. & S. F.*—This factory has only a Primary School for boys and girls up to 8 years, which it shares with the R. F.

No funds are available, and expenses are met from the Fine Fund. An application to Government for Rs. 100 a month for the maintenance of the school in 1922 was held up pending the result of the Inchcape Committee recommendations. This was again held over in 1923 while the Inspector of Schools, Presidency Division, Calcutta, stated his allotment was only sufficient to meet existing grants.

I recommend a recurring grant of Rs. 1,000 per annum be sanctioned to cover cost of teachers, prizes, equipment, etc. Efforts will still be made to get a grant from the Bengal Government.

III. G. & S. F.—This factory has an Anglo-Vernacular School situated in the factory, and attended by 78 boys employed in it, including boy artisans (under 18).

The staff consists of six teachers and one secretary from the factory clerical staff, who receive no remuneration.

Extra expenses are met from the boy artisan fund. The boy artisans subscribe a monthly subscription of  $\frac{1}{4}$  anna per rupee of pay, and thus support the school.

The services of the factory staff are hardly voluntary, and the system causes inconvenience and discontent.

I recommend that a permanent staff of three teachers on Rs. 60, 50 and 40 per mensem be sanctioned. The annual cost being Rs. 1,800 and Rs. 200 for equipment, prizes, etc., making an annual grant of Rs. 2,000 in all.

IV. G. C. F.—This is a more elaborate system. It consists of two schools, viz. :—  
(a) Anglo-Vernacular and Middle School, including boy artisans and half-timers;  
(b) Primary.

These two schools are housed in an excellent building, obtained by extending old buildings and consists of 9 rooms.

*Finance—*

	Rs.
Annual grant-in-aid—Boy Artisan and Anglo-Vernacular and Middle Schools—from Central Provinces Government .. .. .	933
Annual grant-in-aid—Primary School—from the Central Provinces Government .. .. .	808
Factory .. .. .	1,020
Fees from boy artisan students .. .. .	1,032
Fees from Anglo-Vernacular Middle and Primary School students ..	1,129
	4,922

*Requirements.*—For the last two years the lowest class has consisted of 80 boys. These are divided into two portions and occupy two rooms. Already this year 25 applications have been refused for want of room. Further, class VIII was formed this year, and there is one room short. Two additional rooms are required at an estimated cost of Rs. 3,000. Seven electric fans are required at a cost of Rs. 1,134.

The present factory contribution is Rs. 1,020, and it is recommended this be increased to Rs. 1,250 to meet the cost of replacement of furniture, equipment and up-keep of library.

V. H. & S. F.—There only exists a primary school which is held in some open sheds, and is attended by 29 boys employed in the factory, whose attendance is compulsory, and 44 children of workmen (who pay 8 annas a month).

It works in 3 shifts of 2 hours, each boy attending for 2 hours.

*Finance.*—Factory grant Rs. 600 per annum; United Provinces Government grant Rs. 576 per annum; each boy who earns over Rs. 6 a month is charged a fee of 8 annas.

There is an undoubted want of a better school and decent buildings. It is proposed to add an Anglo-Vernacular School, and the estimated cost of buildings and equipment is Rs. 14,000. Additional staff would be required, and though no details have yet been worked out, it is anticipated that Rs. 2,600 per annum would be sufficient.

VI. A. F.—Here the circumstances are very different. The whole schooling is done in the Alegaonkar Brothers Schools. These brothers were factory clerks who gave up their professions to start schools.

There are six day schools and seven night schools situated in Kirkee, and various suburbs and villages where the workmen dwell, and are partly financed by the local Government.

Factory boys who attend are given an increase of six pies per diem on the principle that an educated boy is of more value than an uneducated one.

Eight annas a month is collected from the pay of these boys and paid to the school. Last year the amount was Rs. 1,460.

The Fine Fund paid Rs. 2,000 to assist in new school buildings, and in 1926 Rs. 1,000 to maintenance. This factory has a large number of children of school-going age employed in the factory, viz., 524 (in 1925) out of which 246 were attending the Alegaonkar Schools.

I am of opinion that in addition to what the Fine Fund can afford, we should give Rs. 2,000 per annum, and a special grant of Rs. 5,000 to the Building Fund.

If more information is required regarding these excellent schools, it can be furnished.

VII. *Cord F.*—This factory only has a night school. Average attendance 70-75.

The staff is financed by a provincial grant.

The situation in Aruvankadu is somewhat different to most other factories, and after consultation with the local educational authorities, it is recommended that a Higher Elementary Anglo-Vernacular School be instituted. It is estimated that about 260 scholars will attend.

The local education authorities should provide half, so our expenses would be :—

	Rs.
Initial .. .. .	16,500
Recurring .. .. .	3,726

VIII. *Clo. F.*—This factory has recently been taken over by the M. G. S., and has no school or educational facilities, technical or otherwise.

I recommend there should be (a) Infant school for children under 8 ; (b) Anglo-vernacular school for boys over 8 and for boy artisans.

A rough estimate of the cost of the building is Rs. 20,000 and equipment Rs. 2,000.

Endeavours would be made to get the local Government to pay half the initial and recurring cost.

## PART VI.

### *Hostels.*

Hostels are required at the R. F., which will include accommodation for the apprentices of the M. and S. F. and at the G. C. F.

*Rifle Factory.*—Accommodation is required for 90 apprentices. At present two old war-time barracks provide accommodation for 20 each and 8 class X quarters which will be used for hostel superintendent, teachers, sick boys and six apprentices. Total available 46. So additional accommodation is required for 44 apprentices. The dormitory principle, which has been successful at Ishapore for six years, is recommended.

Three cook-houses with connected messes are required for (a) Mohammedans, (b) Hindus of Bombay and Madras, (c) Hindus of the rest of India. Ablution shed and drying rooms and latrine with water-borne sewage will be provided. Modest provision for a library is provided, and for health and recreation purposes a small gymnasium and 3 pucca tennis courts.

The rough estimate is taken at Rs. 3,400 per head, approximately Rs. 1,50,000. This includes equipment as follows :—Tennis courts, gymnasium, library, beds with mosquito poles, mosquito nets, chests of drawers, kit boxes, tables and stools.

*G. C. F.*—A hostel here is a necessity for the proper execution of a factory scheme.

(This hostel has not so far been built owing to scarcity of funds.)

## APPENDIX II (abridged).

Sanctioned permanent establishment in the Indian Ordnance and Clothing Factories, and in Arsenals, Ordnance and Clothing Depots in India.

10 Factories.	Non-gazetted staff, e.g., Foremen, Assistant Foremen, etc.	Clerical establishment.	Medical establishment.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
(1) Metal and Steel Factory Ishapore .. ..	55	56	15	5	131
(2) Rifle Factory, Ishapore	59	38	—	—	97
(3) Ammunition Factory, Kirkee .. ..	63	43	1	—	107
(4) Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu ..	45	26	6	4	81
(5) Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore .. ..	46	65	3	2	116
(6) Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore .. ..	64	58	6	—	128
(7) Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore	37	44	2	—	83
(8) Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpore ..	21	28	2	22	73
(9) Clothing Factory, Madras .. ..	7	26	—	35	68
(10) Assembly Factory, Rawalpindi .. ..	5	3	—	—	8
Total ..	402	387	35	68	892
Arsenals (7) .. ..	7	381	—	35	423
Ordnance Depots (6) ..	—	80	—	23	103
Clothing Depots (3) ..	—	41	—	47	88
Total ..	7	502	—	105	614

208 permanent artificers are sanctioned for the various arsenals, and 22 clerks in addition to arsenals.



## APPENDIX III.

## Temporary Establishment.

Average present strength of Employees employed in the Indian Ordnance and Clothing Factories and Arsenals per diem.

	Skilled labour.	Unskilled labour.	Others (including clerical staff, etc.	Total.
<i>Factory.</i>				
(1) Metal and Steel Factory, Ishapore	970	1,250	313	2,533
(2) Rifle Factory, Ishapore .. ..	2,542	747	186	3,475
(3) Ammunition Factory, Kirkee ..	904	3,435	223	4,562
(4) Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu ..	115	561	45	721
(5) Gun and Shell Factory, Cossipore	1,782	418	345	2,545
(6) Gun Carriage Factory, Jubbulpore	1,453	1,253	118	2,824
(7) Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore .. .. .	1,427	355	178	1,960
(8) Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpore	470	140	175	785
(9) Clothing Factory, Madras .. ..	147	125	36	308
(10) Assembly Factory, Rawalpindi ..	2	47	17	66
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>9,812</b>	<b>8,331</b>	<b>1,636</b>	<b>19,779</b>
<i>Arsenals.</i>				
(1) Rawalpindi .. .. .	570	612	—	1,182
(2) Ferozepore .. .. .	693	854	—	1,547
(3) Kirkee .. .. .	521	430	—	951
(4) Allahabad .. .. .	383	482	—	865
(5) Quetta .. .. .	285	271	—	556
(6) Madras .. .. .	264	271	—	535
(7) Mingaladon .. .. .	200	250	—	450
<i>Ordnance Depots.</i>				
(1) Agra .. .. .	78	150	—	228
(2) Bombay .. .. .	8	136	—	144
(3) Cawnpore .. .. .	4	104	—	108
(4) Drigh Road .. .. .	14	50	—	64
(5) Fort William .. .. .	125	142	—	267
(6) Lahore .. .. .	13	334	—	347
<i>Clothing Depots.</i>				
(1) Shahjahanpore .. .. .	10	254	—	264
(2) Madras .. .. .	—	44	—	44
(3) Quetta .. .. .	—	56	—	56
<b>Total (Arsenals and Depots) ..</b>	<b>3,168</b>	<b>4,440</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>7,608</b>

## APPENDIX IV.

Analyses of the uneconomical effects of a large Labour turnover.

## Tailors.

One tailor draws on piece-work 6 annas per unit of work done.

The standing charges for one day per tailor come in round figures to 12 annas a day.

A man who has had about 12 months' experience does 3 units a day, and there is definite evidence that with 3 years' experience he could do 4 units. If he does 3 units the cost is—

Piece-work rates .. .. .	18 annas.
Standing charges .. .. .	12 ..
	30 ..

or 10 anna per unit in all.

A new man only does  $1\frac{1}{2}$  units at first and reaches 2 units after about a month's work, and the cost is—

Piece-work rates	..	..	..	..	12 annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	12 ..
					24 ..

or 12 annas per unit.

The extra expense in consequence of having new hands is 2 annas per unit or  $16\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of the man's earnings. This loss occurs for at least six months, and means that 8 per cent. of the man's earnings are lost by each turnover of labour.

There is further but very small loss of material by spoilt work.

To maintain a force of 1,200 men last year 2,836 were engaged, stopped a short time and then left.

#### *Cordite Rifle Pressing.*

The machines can in theory do 73 cycles per shift.

A really trained man (12 months' experience) will get 72 cycles and a yield of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. per cycle, equivalent to an output of 96 lbs. The cost of these 96 lbs. excluding material is—

Day work rate..	..	..	..	..	12 annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	84 .. (700 per cent.)
					96 ..
					= 1 anna per lb.

An unskilled man will only get 64 cycles after a month, and a yield of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lbs., equivalent to 72 lbs. per shift.

The cost is the same as the skilled man's 96 lbs. or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas per lb. The extra cost for an output of 960 lbs. is therefore 240 annas.

This means that each turnover of labour per year costs nearly 100 per cent. of the day workers' earnings per annum.

In addition there is a very appreciable loss by the expenditure of acetone and labour on reworking the waste; which would amount to about 1 anna per lb.

This is the case when the plant is fully loaded. In peace, however, the plant is half empty, and we rarely employ extra men, which means that the cost of 96 lbs. goes up to 100 annas or an increase of  $33\frac{1}{3}$  on the man's day rate.

The turnover in this factory, which is only manned with a nucleus staff, is 10-15 per cent. per annum.

#### *Cartridge Making.*

One operation in this is drawing. This is done on a machine which can in theory do 108 strokes per minute.

Experience has shown we can only get 400 working minutes in a shift of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  hours.

A really experienced hand will get 95 effective strokes per minute out of the machine, or a yield of 38,000 cases per day. He gets  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an anna per 1,000 at piece-work rates, and costs are per 38,000.

Wages ..	..	..	..	..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..
					38 ..

or 1 anna per 1,000.

A new hand will only get 80 effective strokes per minute after one month's work, or an output of 32,000 per shift. These cost—

Wages ..	..	..	..	..	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ annas.
Standing charges	..	..	..	..	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..
					36 ..

or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  annas per 1,000 = 1.13.



## APPENDIX VI.—contd.

Serial No.	Name of Measure.	Existing Buildings and Welfare Institutions.		Proposed Schemes.		Remarks.
		Initial	Recurring per annum.	Initial.	Recurring per annum.	
2	Factory Clubs for Indian employees	Ra. 14,280	Rs. 200	Rs. —	Rs. —	This is for the Ordnance, Indian Club at Ishapore.
3	Hospitals and dispensaries, including Maternity Wards.	1,25,000	(x) 82,000 (y) 1,720	(z) 84,400	470	(z) On hospital and dispensary staff and equipment. (y) Maintenance of hospital and dispensary buildings. (x) Initial cost of proposed 12-bedded hospital at G. C. Fy., Jubbulpore, for workmen and their families.
4	Dinner sheds and tiffin rooms for workmen, clerks, etc.	64,900	—	—	—	Rs. 59,200 spent from Government funds and Rs. 5,700 from the Fine Funds of the factories.
5	Co-operative Credit Societies Stores and other stores.	(a) 26,900 (b) 3,000	— —	— —	— —	(a) Erected from Fine Fund at Rifle Factory, Ishapore. (b) Erected from Fine Fund at Harness and Saddlery Factory, Cawnpore.
6	Education of workmen's children.	(c) 1,30,700	(a) 37,660  (b) 1,530	—	—	(a) On school staff and equipment. Local Governments contribute Rs. 13,740 per annum towards this expenditure. (b) Maintenance of school buildings. (c) Cost of factory schools—Rs. 1,11,000 spent from Government funds and Rs. 20,000 from Fine Funds. Rs. 15,680 $\frac{1}{2}$ (cost) will be contributed by local Government towards cost of new school at Cordite Factory.
7	Provident fund for supervisors, clerks and workmen on temporary and extra temporary establishments.	—	—	—	1,15,900	
8	Grant of casual leave with pay to daily rated workmen and piece-workers.	—	—	—	2,10,000	
9	Free issue of ice, lemon, &c., to workmen employed on arduous work, such as on furnaces.	—	2,000	—	—	
10	Machinery, educational cinema plant and theatrical equipment for Technical School, Ishapore, and general instruction and entertainment of employees and their families.	5,250	—	—	—	Rs. 1,500 granted by His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief from funds at his disposal and Rs. 3,750 allotted from the Fine Fund of the Rifle Factory, Ishapore.
	Total ..	12,92,840	1,62,440	68,30,400	4,12,670	

## APPENDIX VII.

*Copy of Letter No. E-1024, dated 23rd May, 1919, from the Secretary, Indian Munitions Board (through the Director of Ordnance Factories), to the Secretary, Foreman's Association of India, Dum Dum, Calcutta.*

I am directed to acknowledge your letter addressed to the President, Indian Munitions Board, No. M-5, dated 26th April, 1919, regarding the meeting which took place on the 31st March, 1919, between the Hon'ble Sir Thomas Holland and a deputation from the Association, when the question of the official recognition of the Foreman's Association of India was discussed.

2. Sir Thomas Holland has explained to your representatives that the attitude of Government towards such bodies as your own is a friendly one, and that there is no objection to their being officially recognized as representing in each case the class of Government employees concerned, subject to the observance of certain essential conditions. These conditions are:—

(a) That an Association can be recognized by Government only in so far as it represents a distinct class of Government employees employed under a single department of Government;

(b) that Government can recognize only associations which employ no paid officer who is not in the active service of Government, and belonging to that class of Government servants which the Association represents;

*Exception.*—This would not, however, preclude the employment as an office holder, of a pensioned officer of the same class.

(c) That an Association shall be allowed to represent the interests of a class but not of an individual; the representation of the interests of a class may cover questions relating to conditions of work such as remuneration, hours of work, grant of leave and the like, which though they may relate directly to a single individual only, may also affect all the members or a group of members of the association concerned; but it does not give the association any right to represent individual cases in matters of discipline, promotion, transfer or extension or in any matter which can only affect a single member of the staff; such cases being dealt with by the ordinary memorial rule procedure, namely by application by the individual himself;

(d) that an association must correspond with Government through the regular official channel as prescribed for individual Government servants of the class represented. Obviously, this procedure prevents a source of delay in dealing with a representation.

3. I am to say that the Government of India accordingly agree to grant official recognition to your association, subject to the observance of the preceding conditions and will be pleased to accord it such support as is practicable in its efforts to improve the technical efficiency of the staff represented, and generally to improve their amenities in such a way as to conduce towards their contentment. The Government of India observe that though, so far as is known, the present membership of your Association is confined to employees of the Indian ordnance factories, the Rules of Association would allow of other persons of similar status, belonging to other departments or private firms, also becoming members. It must be understood that the recognition now promised to your association is governed by condition (a) above. While there is no objection to your association comprising persons other than ordnance factory employees, you will understand that the Government of India can consider its representations only when they are limited to the interests of a specific class as already defined.

(Copy forwarded to the Department of Commerce and Industry for information.)

## APPENDIX VIII.

## RULES.

PART A.—*Rules applicable to Government Employees in Departments other than the Police and Prisons Departments.*

1. Government is prepared to accord official recognition to associations of its employees which comply with the conditions set out in the following rules. Representations from such associations, whether made orally, by deputation, or presented in writing, may be received by Government officers, subject to the conditions set out in these rules, and notwithstanding anything contained in the rule relating to the submission of petitions and memorials by Government servants.

*Note.*—Nothing in these rules affects the discretion of the Governor-General and the Governor or other Head of a Province to receive or not to receive a deputation from any association.

2. The association must ordinarily consist of a distinct class of Government employees.

3. Every Government employee of the same class must be eligible for membership of the association.

4. Ordinarily Government will not object to persons who are not in the active service of Government being office-holders of the association, but Government reserves the right in particular cases of refusing recognition to associations of which all the office-holders are not either in the active service of Government or honourably retired officers belonging to the same class of Government employees as the association represents.

5. No representation or deputation will be received, except in connection with a matter which is, or raises questions which are, of common interest to the class represented by the association.

6. Government may require regular submission, for its information, of copies of the rules of the association and the annual statement of its accounts and of lists of its members. In the event of legislation being passed which will permit of the registration of the association, the association shall be duly registered.

7. Government may specify the channel through which representations from the association shall be submitted and the authority by whom deputations may be received.

8. The officer who is empowered to grant leave to a Government employee will, so far as is possible, grant casual leave to an employee who is a representative of a recognized association to attend duly constituted meetings of the association. The grant of such leave will be subject to the exigencies of the service, of which the officer in question shall be the sole judge, and such officer will have complete discretion to refuse such leave if asked for more than once in any month.

9. (1) In these rules unless the context otherwise requires "Government" includes a local Government and a Department of the Government of India.

(2) A local Government or a Department of the Government of India may delegate any of its powers under rules 1 to 8 to any authority subordinate to it.

(3) A local Government or a Department of the Government of India may make subsidiary rules relating to the recognition of associations of classes of Government employees subordinate to it.

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COL. J. D. GRAHAM, C.I.E., I.M.S., PUBLIC HEALTH COMMISSIONER  
WITH THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

1. Prior to the introduction of the Reforms in 1921 industrial hygiene as a Division of the Health Organization was not regarded in India, and, indeed, in many other countries, as being of very material significance. Though, even at that time, signs were not wanting that the public and professional consciences in various countries had already demanded or were moving towards a demand for such an organization, the real awakening was just beginning, and throughout the British Empire outside of Great Britain, the movement is consequently hardly more than a decade old. It is little wonder, therefore, that India had at that period made practically no organized effort to collect any data, and to co-ordinate and control this work.

2. The peculiar circumstances surrounding the organization of the medical services in India—circumstances which have been detailed in full in a volume\* prepared for the League of Nations Interchange of Health Officers two years ago—were not calculated to produce in the post-reform period such a modern development as a Division of Industrial Hygiene. Such an omission, though it is partly, no doubt, the fault of the organization referred to, indicates a very definite gap in the central health organization as at present constituted.

3. In the pre-reform period a few of the provinces took limited cognisance of this subject in their annual health reports, but the information was always scrappy; in the post-reform period, so far from becoming augmented, this has tended to become even more scrappy. In verification of this one need only turn to the annual report of the Public Health Commissioner to see how meagre is this information in regard to

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\* Health Organization in British India, by Colonel J. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S.

industrial hygiene for an empire like that of India. It has now been arranged, however, to give greater provincial latitude to health directors in the arrangement of these health reports, and to break away from the stereotyped sectional headings of the past which have held the field for over two decades. In such instances industrial hygiene is being and will be given its proper place in these new schemes.

4. In pre-war days most civil surgeons throughout India were, where circumstances indicated, medical inspectors under the Factories Act; but I understand that this role has now ceased for many of them. Here and there certain directors of public health have been able to keep a finger on this pulse, even though the control was no longer vested in them, and have remained in visiting charge of some plants such as certain mining operations in Madras, the Burma Corporation works at Namtu, certain mines in Bombay, etc. In Bombay the officers of the Public Health Department still inspect factories, and in Madras and in the United Provinces directors of public health, certain civil surgeons and district and municipal health officers are "ex-officio" additional inspectors of factories within the limits of their jurisdictions. It is obvious that little information which was precise and in line with modern developments was likely to be available from such inspections, and a reference to the provincial reports bears this out. As a result there could be no systematic attempt to collect relevant data centrally, and such therefore do not exist. Whether, under the developments envisaged in Dominion Status, the central medical re-organization associated with such a future will be framed to include a division of industrial hygiene it is impossible to say; but there can be no doubt from the technical point of view of the necessity for its creation and organization.

5. In view of the closeness of the parallels to that of India, it will be profitable to examine briefly some other systems now in operation.

6. Great Britain has been a pioneer in this field and began early; but, if we glance hastily at this organization in other countries and in other parts of the British Empire, we see how recent is its growth.

7. In Canada it dates from 1919, and was a definite result of the British (War-time) Health of Munitions Workers Committee, which produced a realization of the main principles, of the fact that output and health are integrally related, and that health reacts delicately to all factors in the working environment. As a result of the Federal Committee on Industrial Fatigue in 1919, the assembly of a library and relevant data was made possible; and publicity and propaganda work were begun. In 1920 the former were in due course transferred to the newly created Division of Industrial Hygiene, which has functioned at Toronto for the last seven years. In 1928 a division was inaugurated for Quebec at the University of McGill. Both of these have concerned themselves with the formation of a library and information bureaux, with publicity, with propaganda, with full time medical services, and with the study of various occupational diseases both experimentally and in the field. As a result, though there is much still requiring to be done, a large number of important industries have now been investigated and are under hygienic control. Though legislation to date is scanty and there are no factory medical inspectors, the Factories Act has been administered through the Factory Inspecting Department.

8. In Australia this movement began with an enquiry into lead poisoning in Broken Hill Mines in 1893; but, at the time of Federation in 1901, there was no factory branch of any health department of State. Between 1901 and 1914 two royal commissions and various enquiries took place; but it was largely as the result, in 1917-18, of the stimulus from the Rockefeller Foundation's investigations into "hookworm" in New Guinea and Queensland that American experts were deputed to help for two years and that, in 1921, a division of industrial hygiene was established. This division, since its inception, has been exceptionally active at its three conferences of 1922, 1924 and 1927 by breaking new ground on each occasion, and by getting down to notification of occupational diseases, factory inspection, hygienic standards, morbidity statistics, child and female labour, accidents, the various poisonings, clothing trade and printing industries, flour mills, examination of Government employees, etc. The Royal Commission on Health in 1926 led to a Federal Health Council being established, and this is now functioning to the benefit of all such industrial questions. The Division of Industrial Hygiene now deals with statistics, the publications of special reports, industrial welfare services (medical, dental, nursing), medical examination of employees, uniformity of records, university training for medical officers in industrial health, and special surveys in order to set up Australian standards. In spite of all this progress and gradual improvement "State" inertia exists, and the position is still considered defective and incomplete, though it is recognized that Federation has made State co-ordination possible in a way which was not previously the case. It is realized, however, that a good start has been made, and that it is only a matter of time till employers grasp its significance and value.

9. The position in South Africa first centred round mining, and the problems associated with the importation of a large native labour population. Lord Milner, in 1903, was responsible for initiating enquiries, and in 1911 a Medical Commission on Miner's Phthisis was appointed. Since 1926 the big developments have taken place, and some of these have a special interest for us in India, in view of the composition of the labour force and the importation of much of it from Portuguese East Africa. Such diseases as silicosis, tuberculosis, hookworm, pneumonia, typhoid, scurvy as well as industrial fatigue in its various aspects have all been specially investigated with a view to scientific and rational control; and the more specifically urgent problems such as tuberculosis and pneumonia have received very special attention at the hands of the South Africa Institute for Medical Research.

10. In America this work began desultorily by its introduction over 15 years ago into certain of the more enlightened labour plants, and has since spread rapidly. I mention a few facts in this connection as examples of what is going on.

(a) The Tennessee Coal and Iron Railroad Company have, since 1913, organized and operated an Industrial Health Department very much on the lines of that of the Asansole Mines Board and the Jharia Mines Board in Bengal, thus controlling some 22 villages in six sanitary areas and establishing divisions of sanitation, medical relief, dentistry, and a social science department. This has been reproduced in scores of plants in other industries.

(b) In 1924 the New York State as a result of a conference between the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the Industrial Health Division of the State Department of Labour and the Reconstruction Hospital of New York State, established an industrial hygiene clinic in New York with devices to diagnose and treat industrial diseases, and to teach doctors in regard to these. This clinic is highly organized for the purpose with X-ray, electro-photo-hydro-mechano and occupational therapy.

(c) The Public Health Institutes created at Yale and Harvard are developing departments where highly specialized experimental research on such physiological problems as ventilation and illumination, humidity, atmosphere, etc., can be easily undertaken and efficient demonstrations given to students.

(d) Over nine years ago the Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons was inaugurated in America and this has done valuable work by publications, propaganda and advice on the various aspects of industrial hygiene.

(e) The Federal Government has a bureau of industrial hygiene and sanitation under its Division of Scientific Research. This is a very live bureau.

11. From the above brief references to what is happening outside of India it is obvious that not only is this a branch of recent growth, but that on these analogies a similar organization should exist in the Central Health Department of an empire like that of India. It is not for a moment suggested that nothing has been done in India in this regard. Problems of industrial housing and modern sanitation have been tackled in many industrial areas which the Commission will visit, more especially in Bombay, Nagpur, Cawnpore, Tatanagar, Calcutta, etc.; while problems specially associated with the control and prevention of infectious diseases and such tropical diseases as hookworm and malaria are being intelligently grappled with in the tea and rubber areas, in the jute factories, in the coal and iron areas of Bengal and in other places.

12. India has a wealth of disease problems; some of which are peculiarly her own; but those most in the limelight, so far as labour is concerned, are connected with the three infectious diseases—plague, cholera and smallpox—with tuberculosis, malaria, hookworm, skin diseases, including leprosy, drug addiction and, in a minor way, with venereal disease, cancer and respiratory diseases generally. The variety of "study" problems comprised in the term "industrial hygiene," in so far as India is concerned, is very great. Such problems, for example, as the examination of employees, housing, welfare of women and children in factories, fatigue and rest, nutrition, pregnancy, accidents and their relief, ventilation and lighting, child labour, malingering, noise, eye and mental strain, electric accidents, temperature, humidity, air movement, dust and health education generally are only some of those that must claim attention.

13. As Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India I feel it my duty to emphasize the necessity for the creation of a central bureau or division of industrial hygiene in any developments of the central health organization of the future. In view of the transfer under the Reforms Act and the Devolution rules of certain aspects of health work to the provinces, it may be necessary, however, to ally some slight degree of suspicion which seems to be in danger of developing between Provincial and Central Governments as a result of this transfer. The creation of a Ministry of Health would no doubt help to circumvent this; but, short of this proposal, the creation of a thoroughly representative Central Health Board would probably go far



towards meeting such difficulties as I have in my mind. The resolutions of such a Board, if it were sufficiently representative, should carry weight everywhere, and would allow of co-ordination of effort and, if necessary, legislation, on an all India basis. Such a Board would help to justify, from the administrative point of view, the creation of such a central bureau, and would be a great step forward for the wage earner, the employer, the individual doctor and society generally.

### CHIEF COMMISSIONER, AJMER-MERWARA.

#### *Conditions of Industrial Labour in Ajmer-Merwara.*

*Extent, Distribution and Classification.*—Ajmer-Merwara is a district of 2,711 square miles with a population, according to the 1921 Census, of 4,95,271. It is surrounded on all sides by various Indian States of Rajputana. There are no plantations in the district. Statistics with regard to industrial undertakings were collected at the time of the last census. Eight years have since elapsed, and changes have occurred, but the figures may be taken as approximately indicating the present position. They show that the number of industrial establishments in the district employing ten or more persons was 73, and the number of persons employed in them was 20,410, i.e., about 4 per cent. of the total population. These establishments were classified as follows:—

Industry.	Number of Establishments.	Number of persons employed.
Mines .. .. .	24	736
Textiles .. .. .	19	2,405
Wood .. .. .	2	48
Metal .. .. .	1	30
Food industries .. .	6	146
Dress .. .. .	2	48
Furniture .. .. .	2	24
Means of Transport ..	7	16,295
Physical forces .. ..	1	24
Luxury .. .. .	8	511
Jail factories .. .. .	1	143
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>20,410</b>

The classification of these establishments (excluding the Jail Factory) with reference to size and the use of mechanical power or otherwise is shown below:—

Size of establishments.	Using power.		Not using power.	
	number of establishments.	persons employed.	number of establishments.	persons employed.
10—20 persons ..	3	47	17	237
20—50 .. .. .	10	315	23	710
50—100 .. .. .	6	434	3	185
100—200 .. .. .	5	576	1	164
200—400 .. .. .	—	—	—	—
400 and over ..	4	17,599	—	—
<b>Total .. .. .</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>18,971</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>1,296</b>

*2. Strength of Labour.*—The last report on the working of the Indian Factories Act in Ajmer-Merwara, compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara—for the year 1928—shows that there

were 40 factories in the district subject to control under the Act, 35 of which worked during the year. Their classification and the average daily number of persons employed was as follows :—

Industry.	Number of factories.	Average daily number of persons employed.	Remarks.
Textiles .. Cotton (spinning, weaving and other) factories	5*	2,097	*Two are combined with cotton ginning and pressing factories.
Engineering .. Railway workshops ..	4	10,353	
Minerals and metals .. Foundries .. ..	1	17	
Paper and printing .. Printing presses ..	1	113	
Food, drink and tobacco .. Ice and aerated waters..	1	14	
Gins and presses Cotton ginning and baling .. ..	23	2,277	
Total ..	35	14,871	

Of the 14,871 operatives employed in these factories, during 1928, 13,252 were males, 1,388 females and 231 children (between 12 and 15 years of age). Eighty-five per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the year, and 15 per cent. for four to six months, only the latter being engaged on seasonal work in cotton ginning factories.

3. The principal employers of labour in this district are the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company in their carriage and wagon and locomotive workshops in Ajmer, each of which employs about 5,000 men. Next in importance come the three principal cotton spinning and weaving mills which are located at Beawar in Merwara and employ over 2,000 persons. The cotton ginning and pressing factories also provide work for over 2,000 employees. The majority of these are located in Beawar and Kekri, but there are isolated factories at different places in various parts of the district.

4. *Recruitment.*—Recruitment of labour is not a serious consideration with the factory owners who do not attach any great importance to references except in the case of supervising and mechanical staff. The method adopted by the employer is frequently that of taking a worker for a week or more on trial, during which period wages are not always paid.

Labour in textile mills is mostly recruited from the agricultural classes, and to some extent from the artisans from neighbouring villages, but technical experts are imported principally from Ahmedabad and the United Provinces.

The B. B. & C. I. Railway Workshops, Ajmer, who employ skilled labour from almost all the neighbouring provinces, recruit mostly from the sons and relatives of their employees. The higher technical staff is imported from England.

5. *Unemployment.*—There is a certain amount of unemployment amongst workers in cotton ginning factories, the reason being that the cotton industry has experienced three poor seasons in succession. In textile mills there has been little or no unemployment during the past three or four years, this is due mainly to the fact that labour troubles in Bombay and Ahmedabad have increased the work in the textile mills of Ajmer-Merwara, and these mills have not only greatly expanded during recent years, but have also been working at full pressure.

6. *Mines.*—The mining industry is not of great importance. The mines are mostly surface mica mines scattered about the district. They are not worked very regularly or systematically and obtain labour, as required, from villages in the vicinity. As regards health, efficiency and standard of living, there is no distinction between the labourers so employed and the agriculturist. They are ordinary villagers, who from time to time take employment in the "mines" instead of working in the fields.

7. *Standard of Living.*—Generally speaking the standard of living of industrial labourers in this district is not different from the ordinary standard of living of the masses of the population. They live in the towns or villages, in or near which the factories and mills in which they are employed are located, and under the same conditions of life as any other residents of these towns or villages. As they have regular

work and in most cases adequate pay they are to this extent better off, and have more money to spend than the ordinary agriculturist who ekes out a precarious existence with uncertain harvests, dependent on the vagaries of the monsoon, and with land revenue to deduct from his profits. In some respects the establishment of mills and factories has definitely raised the standard of living of certain sections of the community. But the standard is still low, and the sustenance it provides is inclined to be inadequate. The final report of the last settlement of the district, written in 1910, contains the following observations in the section relating to the "condition of the people."

"The establishment of the railway workshops at Ajmer and the development of Nayanagar (Beawar) together with the frequent famines have had a great effect upon the condition of the artisan classes and the labourers. Formerly these village servants were paid for their work by doles of grain, or sheaves of the cut crop at harvest time, according to the amounts or rates fixed and recorded in the village's 'Wajib-ul-arz.' Uncertain and short payments of these, however, have yielded before the superior attractions of employment at regular cash wages always to be had at the workshops of mills. The workshops absorb all the labour that offers itself, and pay good wages. The previous village system has, therefore, largely broken down, but on the whole to the convenience of both parties, as the villagers now pay for the piece of work done, while the artisan class is on the whole well off, or where some of them have remained still in the villages can better themselves by moving into Ajmer or Beawar. These workshops and mills and the growing demand for labour for handling goods in the towns and at railway stations, have made things easier for the unskilled village labourers also, as in the intervals between ordinary agricultural operations they can generally find employment at good wages if they wish for it."

This was written many years ago, but serves to show that the effect of the mills and factories on the economic life of the district has been beneficial. It cannot now be said that the workshops and mills absorb all the labour that offers itself. Since 1927 there has been some reduction in the numbers employed in the railway workshops in Ajmer, and for the present at any rate they are taking on few new hands, and can employ only a fraction of the available supply of labour. In the hilly sub-division of Merwara agriculture is scanty and precarious, and cannot provide a livelihood for the whole population of the rural area. In the past the army has taken the surplus, but this outlet is now closed. The 44th Merwara Infantry was disbanded after the war, and recruitment in Merwara for other regiments of the Indian Army has been discontinued since 1927. At the same time the Mers and Merats already serving in the army were mustered out and returned to their homes. Many of these men, for whom there was no room on the land or in the mills, have sought employment outside the district, *e.g.*, in the Ahmedabad mills.

8. *Housing.*—Quarters are generally provided for the permanent staff such as managers, engineers, etc. The factories employing a limited number of workmen or those carrying on business operations during a part of the year have no apparent intention to house their labour. Two of the textile mills in Beawar have, however, made provision on a restricted scale for the accommodation of their operatives at a reasonable rent. The dwelling provided by the Krishna Mills, Beawar, are mostly constructed in corrugated iron sheeting, and are lacking in ventilation and sanitation. The quarters provided by the Edward Mills, Beawar, on the other hand, are of a somewhat improved type. The quarters provided in Ajmer by the B. B. and C. I. Railway Co., are only for their European and Anglo-Indian staff of higher grades, *e.g.*, firemen, chargemen, drivers, etc. (about 700). No quarters are provided for the lower grades of workers in the railway workshops. The housing conditions of the accommodation provided by the B. B. and C. I. Railway workshops, Ajmer, are on the whole satisfactory in relation to drainage, water supply and sanitation. The bulk of the labouring classes in Ajmer and Beawar live in privately rented quarters, while those employed in the cotton ginning and pressing factories throughout the district live in the various towns and villages subject to the conditions generally prevailing in them. In Ajmer the employees in the locomotive and carriage and wagon workshops with their families form about half the total population of the town. In spite of reduction each workshop still employs over 5,000 men. They are to be found residing in all parts of the town, and its suburbs and the adjacent villages, but the largest number is concentrated in the suburbs of Jones Ganj, Ram Ganj and Nagra, in the vicinity of the workshops.

9. *Wages.*—Wages, of course, vary considerably with the nature of the work. The average pay for unskilled labour is 12 annas a day. For skilled labour the average ranges from Rs. 15 per mensem for a press compositor to Rs. 60 per mensem for a fitter. In the Beawar Mills the average wage of a whole time worker is between Rs. 22 and Rs. 30 a month. In the Kekri cotton ginning and pressing factories the average wage is somewhat lower, but still compares favourably with the average daily

wage of an agricultural labourer, which is about four annas. In the two big railway workshops in Ajmer the average daily wage of an Indian adult workman for an eight hours day is 22 annas. It has trebled since 1914, and more than doubled since 1919. Boys (from 12 to 15 years of age) earn from three to six annas a day. For Indian adult workmen the minimum wage is seven annas a day, and the maximum Rs. 2-10 annas under the ordinary rates, and Rs. 3-4 annas under the special rates, the application of which is restricted to 20 per cent. of the men drawing the ordinary rates. There are certain grades of boilermakers, fitters and erectors, and turners who earn from Re. 1 to Rs. 11 a day. These are filled by Europeans and Anglo-Indians.

10. *Conditions of Work.*—Considerable improvement has been effected in the conditions under which employees in factories work, by enforcing the provisions of the Indian Factories Act; by introducing rules in connection with ventilation and humidification in cotton spinning and weaving mills; by insisting on adequate arrangements for water supply and sanitation; and by preventing breaches of the rules prescribing proper intervals of rest, and a maximum of 60 hours work in a week.

11. *Health.*—As regards health industrial labourers suffer generally from the same disabilities and enjoy the same facilities as other classes of workers. They live in congested and unhealthy towns and insanitary villages. The majority of them live in Ajmer and Beawar, and the municipalities of these towns have under consideration extensive schemes for improving the sanitation and water supply, if funds are available. The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company contribute towards the municipal funds, and to this extent are helping to improve the conditions under which their employees live. The employees in the Beawar Mills and the railway workshops have special medical facilities provided by their employers. The former maintain for the benefit of their workmen dispensaries at which ordinary ailments can be treated, and first aid rendered in case of accident. The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway in Ajmer maintain a very well equipped central hospital, with 41 beds for in-patients, conveniently situated near the workshops. It has a thoroughly efficient staff, and provides excellent medical and surgical facilities, including anti-rabic treatment. There are also four branch dispensaries—one in the locomotive workshops, one in the carriage and wagon workshops and two others. Railway employees and members of their families are entitled to free treatment, if they attend at the hospital or any of the dispensaries at the fixed hours, or in their houses, if they are too ill to leave them. The following figures for 1928 indicate the extent of the work which the hospital and dispensaries are doing:—

New cases	..	..	..	..	..	..	31,004
Daily average number under treatment	..	..	..	..	..	..	628·07
In-patients:—							
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	..	..	..	..	..	173	} 682
Indians	..	..	..	..	..	509	
Major operations	..	..	..	..	..	..	26
Minor operations	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,414
X-ray examinations	..	..	..	..	..	..	203
Anti-rabic patients	..	..	..	..	..	..	128

The principal diseases are enteric, colitis, malaria, tuberculosis, pneumonia and trachoma. The standard of health of railway employees, other than those living in railway quarters, is not high. The sanitation of Ajmer being what it is, a high standard could hardly be expected. One of the principal localities occupied by railway employees is the suburb of Nagra, which is a particularly unhealthy and insanitary part of the town.

12. *General Sanitary Conditions.*—Sanitary conditions in the larger and well organized factories are on the whole satisfactory, but in smaller factories sanitation frequently leaves much to be desired, owing partly to the ignorance of the operatives and partly to lack of interest on the part of the factory management.

Latrines are provided for workers according to rules laid down in the Ajmer-Merwara factory rules: they are flushed and kept clean by persons especially appointed for the purpose. The habits of the labouring classes being generally dirty, latrines are frequently found to be in a very insanitary condition, due more to the workers themselves than to lack of provision for supervision.

13. *Efficiency.*—As regards the efficiency of labour the standard in the mills and in the ginning and pressing factories is not remarkably high. But in the railway workshops in Ajmer the standard is certainly high, and with regard to general efficiency the labour employed in these would probably compare favourably with similar classes of industrial labour in other parts of India.

14. *Education.*—In the way of providing special educational facilities very little is done by employers in Ajmer-Merwara. The B. B. & C. I. Railway maintain an anglo-vernacular school for boys for the benefit of their employees in Jones Ganj, and a vernacular Primary School for girls in the same suburb. Both are aided by municipal grants and the former also by a grant from Government. The railway spend about Rs. 3,500 on the boys' school and Rs. 600 on the girls' school. The enrolment is 98 in the former and 48 in the latter. There is also a Railway European Primary School for boys with an enrolment of 43. The railway expenditure on this school is about Rs. 3,000. Technical schools for training apprentices are also maintained by them. The educational efforts of the Beawar Mills are confined to grants to some of the local schools. Apart from the railway schools in Ajmer, employees in industrial establishments in this district are dependent on the schools maintained by Government and local bodies for educational facilities.

15. *Relations between Employers and Employed.*—The labour force in Ajmer-Merwara is mostly unorganized and illiterate. Relations between employers and employed in Ajmer-Merwara are good. As a general rule employers are not inconsiderate in their treatment of their workers, and are ready to redress genuine grievances. Attempts on the part of agitators, mostly not belonging to Ajmer-Merwara, to stir up discontent have not met with much response. Labour troubles in other industrial centres have their repercussions here, but they have hitherto not seriously disturbed the relations existing between the workers and their employers in this district. Ajmer-Merwara has been free from industrial disputes for the past ten years.

One trade union has recently been registered in Ajmer—"The B. B. & C. I. Railway Workers' Federation." It has 48 office bearers and committee members, 31 of whom are employees in the carriage and wagon workshops and 13 in the locomotive workshops. Its nominal membership is large, but it is doubtful if the majority are effective members who have paid their subscriptions and take an active interest in the affairs of the union. Two branches of railway unions, registered in Bombay and Ahmedabad respectively, have also been opened in Ajmer, but they are more or less dormant and are said to have had little success in enlisting members. The trade union movement has only just begun in Ajmer-Merwara, and it is too early yet to say how it will develop. On the whole, employees in industrial establishments here are well content with their lot. It is the ambition of nearly every boy of the classes which supply labour in Ajmer to obtain employment in the railway workshops and there is keen competition for any vacancies. There is no general dissatisfaction with rates of pay and conditions of work.

The *Workmen's Compensation Act* is working well, and employees get the full advantage of the benefits provided by it. Employers have evinced no desire to evade their obligations. 12,399 persons work in factories which come within the scope of the Act. In these 146 cases of accident, to which its provisions were applicable, were reported in 1928, and compensation, aggregating Rs. 7,762-4 annas, was paid in 141 cases to the persons injured or, in the cases of fatal injury, to their dependants.

16. *Co-operative Movement.*—Some mention should also be made of the co-operative movement, which contains great possibilities for advancing the welfare of the industrial labourer as well as the agriculturist. Fifty-two societies with a membership of about 1,000 have up to now been formed in this district among persons of the labouring class. The majority of these are in Beawar, their members being employees in the three big mills there. Their principal object is to encourage thrift, and there is ample scope for development in this direction. The industrial labourer no less than the agriculturist suffers from the evil effects of his own improvidence and the tyranny of his social customs. He spends large sums, altogether disproportionate to his income, on marriage and other ceremonies and consequently gets into the hands of the bania, and is saddled with a burden of debt. If the Co-operative movement can help him to escape from his own disastrous habits and customs, it will open up an avenue of progress at least not less promising than the avenue which trade unionism can provide by protecting him from unfavourable conditions of employment.

17. *Welfare Work.*—Except by the B. B. and C. I. Railway Workshops, Ajmer, very little is attempted for the welfare of the employees by the factories or other agencies in Ajmer-Merwara. The facilities for recreation provided by the railway company in Ajmer and the amenities which the railway institute offers (i.e., libraries, reading rooms, band and cinema shows) are provided for their European and Anglo-Indian employees only. It is, however, understood that the railway have given monetary assistance to a few recreation clubs started by their Indian employees. For the latter there is also an Indian Co-operative Association, at which they are able to purchase supplies at reasonable rates, and which thus exercises a moderating effect on prices generally, as its competition prevents profiteers from unduly forcing up prices of foodstuffs. Special sheds have also been erected for the operatives to take their meals in at meal times.

### Mr. W. H. ABEL, INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES.

#### *Labour in Factories in Ajmer-Merwara.*

As shown in the latest report the total number of persons employed in all factories in Ajmer-Merwara is 14,871, of which 13,252 are men, 1,388 women and 231 children (between 12 and 15 years of age). Eighty-five per cent. of these workers are employed throughout the year, and 15 per cent. for four to six months only—the latter being engaged on seasonal work in cotton ginning factories.

Of the total number, 2,097 are employed in textile mills, 10,353 in railway workshops, 2,277 in cotton ginning factories and 144 in other factories.

Of the total number of women and children, 1,185 women and 103 children are employed in cotton ginning factories, while 203 women and 85 children are employed in textile mills.

#### I.—Recruitment.

3. (i) Recruitment in factories is usually carried out by a labour contractor.

Recruitment is also made by personal acquaintance, most of the permanent workers such as engineers, mechanics and other skilled workers appear to have friends or relations looking for an improvement on their job, and references regarding ability and certificates not being of great value, changes of service frequently occur. Unskilled and casual labour is recruited through the labour contractor, and mostly paid by him at the end of the day. There is, however, no guarantee given by the contractor that work will be forthcoming the following day, as it all depends on the amount of work that will be available.

(ii) Labour force generally being illiterate would look with suspicion on any change that might be contemplated in the present system.

#### III.—Housing.

16.—(i) Quarters are generally provided for the permanent staff such as managers, clerks, engineers, etc. The factories employing a limited number of workmen or those carrying on business operations during a part of the year have evidently no intention to house their labour. Two of the textile mills in Beawar and the Bombay-Baroda and Central India Railway Workshops, Ajmer, have, however, made a provision on a restricted scale for the accommodation of their operatives at a reasonable rent. The dwellings provided by Krishna Mills, Beawar, are mostly constructed in corrugated iron sheeting and lack in ventilation and sanitation. The quarters of the Edward Mills, Beawar, on the other hand, are of a somewhat improved type. The housing conditions of the Bombay-Baroda and Central India Railway Workshops, Ajmer, in so far as the accommodation is provided, are on the whole satisfactory in relation to drainage, water supply and sanitation.

(ii) There are no Government factories in the province.

(iii) The bulk of the labouring classes in Beawar and Ajmer employed in the cotton ginning and pressing factories live in quarters provided by the private landlords.

#### IV.—Health.

23. Health of workers in all factories appears to be generally good, but in the absence of statistics it is not possible to say what percentage stay away from work owing to sickness. Factory records merely show absentees, a big proportion of which are on holiday. Well organized factories such as textile mills and railway workshops are well ventilated and healthy to work in, as also most of the cotton ginning factories, which are situated in large open spaces; in smaller factories especially those situated in congested city areas, there is still room for improvement.

24. (i) Medical facilities for the workers and their families are provided in the case of bigger mills and factories.

(ii) Government dispensaries treat the workers and their families free of charge, and most of the factory workers depend upon Government dispensaries.

26. (a) (i) Latrines are provided for workpeople in factories according to rules laid down in the Ajmer-Merwara Factory Rules, except in such circumstances where the factories are open to the country on three sides. Although latrines are provided, it is only in big mills and towns where they are made use of.

(ii) The water supply throughout the province is satisfactory. Good rains throughout the province during the year 1928 provided a plentiful supply of water for drinking. Drinking water is supplied to the operatives free of charge.

(iii) *Bathing and Washing.*—No special arrangements have been made by the factories in this behalf.

28. (ii) Special rules for the control of temperature and humidity in the cotton spinning and weaving mills came into force only last year. There are only five cotton spinning and weaving mills in which artificial humidity is being used at present, affecting about 2,097 operatives. The rules are still in an experimental stage, and it is yet too early to report with regard to their suitability or otherwise.

29. (i) Up to this time no occupational disease has been reported or has come to my notice.

## VII.—Safety.

43. *Railways*.—Regulations with regard to the workers' safety are shown in rules made under the Indian Factories Act, and are based on the workshop rules existing in Europe, altered where necessary to meet local conditions. An abstract of the principal rules relating to general safety is posted up at the entrance of all factories in English and in the language of the majority of workers. Apart from this, every year a circular letter is issued to all factories bringing to their notice the chief requirements relating to safety measures, and to other requirements of the factory law relating to hours of work, etc. In this circular a special reference is made with regard to the guarding of the dangerous machines, and any other matter of importance which requires careful attention, when these regulations are persistently violated prosecutions are instituted against the offenders.

44.—A reference to annual reports on the working of the Indian Factories Act in Ajmer-Merwara, will show that accidents have increased considerably during the past five years.

45. The increase in the number of accidents referred to in the preceding paragraph is attributable to the following causes :—

(a) More accurate reporting of accidents by factory owners, due to some extent to the strict administration of factory law.

(b) Operatives are themselves becoming acquainted with the fact that accidents should be reported and they frequently report themselves to the factory inspector's office.

(c) The introduction of the Workmen's Compensation Act has also had an effect on accident reporting as the injured persons think that by reporting accidents they might get compensation.

(d) Ignorance of the workers and a belief in fate rather than carefulness is also responsible for many accidents. After frequent demonstrations of how to handle a particular machine, workers with apparently full knowledge of the dangers, still take frightful and unnecessary risks.

(e) Frequent instances of serious accidents are reported where workers remove safety guards in order to clear a jam or fault, and use their hands or feet to put the fault right. This is to a great extent due to ignorance, but much also is due to carelessness and disregard of known dangers.

(f) Investigations into the causes of serious and fatal accidents to workers on dangerous duties, such as maintaining of pulleys in order, oiling of bearings, etc., show that underpaid and unskilled workers are put on jobs of which they have no experience; there is no definitely laid down standard of a skilled worker, and it is therefore impossible to bring home to the employer his responsibility in this respect.

49. (i) During the year 1928, 77 inspections were made, resulting in one prosecution to enforce factory regulations.

The bigger and well-organized mills do consider it their duty to work to factory rules, and make an effort to do so.

## IX.—Hours.

### A.—Factories.

55. Factory law permits working 11 hours a day, but not exceeding 60 hours a week. In perennial factories other than railway workshops is taken full advantage of.

56. Factories work for six days a week, and the seventh day, which is a Sunday, or a substituted day, is observed as a complete holiday.

57. So far as workers are concerned, they have welcomed the 60-hours week since the change has not been accompanied by the reduction in wages.

59. A further reduction in the maximum hours per week is, I think, not advisable, especially in the case of seasonal factories in which punctuality and consistent work are not noticeable amongst factory workers, few factories have yet adopted the





**XIII.—Industrial Efficiency of Workers.**

112. The efficiency of the highly paid workers has increased slightly during the past five years, but in the case of labouring classes no improvement has been noticed. In fact the efficiency of these workers has not kept pace with the advent of modern machinery in factories. In my opinion health is one of the chief factors governing the efficiency of the workers, and unless the labouring classes are well fed by an increase in their wages, it is not possible to effect any improvement in this behalf.

113. I am of opinion that the foreign worker has proved to be more efficient than an Indian worker.

**XVII.—Administration.**

138. The average workman has little knowledge of factory legislation ; although copies of the abstracts of the Indian Factories Act and the rules made thereunder both in English and in the language of the majority of workers are posted up in every factory, yet it is doubtful if the worker ever makes an effort to get to know what the posters really mean.

139. (i) In this province which is one of the four provinces under my jurisdiction, namely, Punjab, Delhi, North-West Frontier Province and Ajmer-Merwara, the Factory Inspection staff consists of one full-time Inspector, one Industrial Surveyor under the control of Director of Industries, Punjab, stationed at Delhi, who is notified as additional Inspector of Factories under certain sections of the Indian Factories Act for Ajmer-Merwara.

The number of factories in this province at present is 40 and the staff is adequate.

It may be noted here that the local Government in the case of Punjab have decided to appoint one full-time Inspector with effect from 1st April, 1930, withdrawing the powers conferred upon the five Industrial Surveyors in the Punjab. Thus from April next there will be one Chief Inspector and one Inspector in the Punjab.

Should the Ajmer-Merwara Government follow the Punjab's lead in this respect, inspection of factories in Ajmer-Merwara will be much more efficient, as the big textile mills require considerably more attention from a fully qualified Inspector than can be given at present. The newly appointed Inspector for the Punjab will be an experienced technical officer, whereas the Additional Factory Inspector, Delhi, is notified for certain sections of the Act only.

(ii) Rigour and efficiency of administration of factory law depends on frequent inspections, instructions, prosecutions and finally on their results.

(iii) During the year 1928 only one case under the factory law was instituted against the occupier of a factory, and the same resulted in the conviction of the occupier.

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Miss J. E. COPELAND, M.A., CHURCH OF SCOTLAND MISSION HOUSE,  
AJMER.

**I.—Recruitment.**

1. There is practically no migration. The chief industrial centres are Ajmer, Beawar, Kekri. Most of the labourers particularly the women labourers, are residents of these centres, or they come in from neighbouring villages.

2. Some labourers live in their villages and walk to and from work daily. Others move into town, but go out to their villages on holidays.

3. There should be some organized system of recruiting labour. The need is specially urgent in the matter of getting boys into suitable employment when they leave school, and in the matter of securing a better system of apprenticeship and training, either within the area or beyond.

7. There is considerable unemployment. The B. B. & C. I. Railway, which is the largest employer of labour in the area, is reducing its staff of workmen.

**III.—Housing.**

The B. B. & C. I. Railway have quarters for their employees, but not in sufficient numbers. There is indeed great shortage of houses for working people in Ajmer. In Beawar the Edward Mills and the Krishna Mills have some workmen's houses, but no adequate provision.

#### IV.—Health.

23. Registration of births and deaths is not effectively carried out, so reliable statistics are not available. Working conditions are on the whole satisfactory in the bigger concerns. Where there are home industries as "tying and dyeing" and "gota weaving" in Ajmer, the conditions are not good, because of the low rates of pay, the bad sanitary arrangements of the city, and the small size and bad ventilation of most of the workers' houses.

It is, however, a welcome sign of progress that local Vaidhy has just published a book on the "Increased Mortality in Beawar, its Causes and Cure."

24. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway have good medical arrangements, a hospital, dispensaries, child welfare centre. There are also good Government and mission hospitals, numerous private dispensaries, a maternity home, child welfare centres and a supply of trained midwives.

In Beawar there is a Government hospital, with male and female departments. Private Vaidhys (five) also practise in the city. But these facilities are far from the mill area. There is urgent need for more medical provision in Beawar, and this should be near the mills. Two of the mills engage the services of Vaidhys, but these are not always at the works. The third large mill keeps first aid appliances in the mill. There should be a Government dispensary in the mill area contributed to by the millowners. There should also be a trained midwife whose special duty it would be to look after maternity cases among the wives of the millhands and among the women labourers. This midwife should be supported by the three large mills, and her services should be made available free to the labourers. It would also be very desirable to have a trained health or welfare worker who would look after the women's interests in other than maternity cases.

25. Such facilities as exist are made use of.

26. Sanitary arrangements in the larger factories are fairly satisfactory. The B.B. & C.I. Railway employ no women and the silk factory only a few. Drinking water arrangements are good in the city, but sanitary arrangements are bad. In Beawar, where most of the women labourers of this district are employed, separate latrine and bathing arrangements should be provided in another part of the compound from the men's.

In one of the mills the drinking water is too far away from the work buildings.

28. The question of humidification in the Beawar Cotton Mills is engaging the attention of the inspecting officers.

#### V.—Welfare.

32. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway provide two schools for workers' children, one European school and one Indian. The railway also organizes an annual sports day and a Christmas tree for the children. Apart from this no definite welfare work is being done among the railway Indian employees or in the mills and ginning factories of Beawar and Kekri. Some years ago, a beginning was made in the Beawar Mills with a monthly visit to each of the three large concerns of a lady social worker, who held a meeting for the women labourers. This attempt at welfare work should be resumed, and progress made along these lines: In Ajmer, sports, recreation and amusements are catered for by many agencies. The various churches and missions, also, have many strong effective and helpful contacts with the railway employees, but more could be done if the employers helped directly by organization providing opportunities, lending halls, etc. The W.C. Temperance Union and other temperance societies, by occasional meetings, public or other lantern lectures, and other propaganda are also helping to raise the standard of life and efficiency among the labourers, but here more also could be done if the employers co-operated directly. In two of the Beawar Mills there are shelters set aside for the infants of women labourers, but except the building, no other arrangements are made by the millowners. These shelters should be utilized for creches with a competent woman in charge. Each of the three larger mills should have such a creche, with full time though not necessarily highly paid workers, and one trained health or welfare worker should organize and supervise all three and look after the wider interests of the women labourers.

36. In Ajmer, the B.B. & C.I. Railway provides for the education of workers' children in two schools, one for European, the other for Indian children. In Beawar, the mills contribute to schools in the city, but these schools are not attended by workers' children, who are almost entirely illiterate. In Kekri, no provision for education is made by the ginning factories, and the workers and their children are almost entirely illiterate.

**VI.—Education.**

40. In Ajmer, there are Government (higher education only) municipal, mission and other private schools. These are for children not in employment. There are some privately-run night schools for boys or young adults at work during the day.

41. Facilities for industrial and vocational training are quite inadequate. The principal method in use is to put a new worker alongside an experienced man or woman. The method as practised seems to have many defects.

**VII.—Safety.**

46. In all the Beawar mills safety propaganda consists only in the expectation that old workers should warn employees as they work beside them.

48. First aid appliances are kept, and two of the Beawar mills employ Vaidhys who, however, are not usually or always at the works.

50. Women are not employed in any of the more dangerous operations in the Beawar cotton mills or Kekri ginning factories.

**IX.—Hours.**

55. Women workers in Kekri and Beawar work 10 hours per day, 60 hours per week.

56. Sunday is the usual off-day, except in Jain factories, where the 8th and 14th are observed as holidays. When a festival falls upon a working day in any week the workers must work on Sunday to make up for the holiday on account of the festival.

60. In the mills, workers seem to take their meals at any time, and there seemed a lack of concentrated effort. The working hours should be reduced to nine or eight per day.

**X.—Special Questions relating to Women, young Adults and Children.**

82. Infants play around in the factory and mill compounds, but are forbidden to go near dangerous places. More thorough arrangements are necessary and creches should be established in the Beawar mills, and perhaps also in Kekri during the busy cold weather season.

84. There are few children employed in the larger concerns.

86. Facilities for apprenticeship are totally inadequate even in the large B.B. & C.I. Railway workshops, and in other industries are non-existent in the true sense of the word "apprentice."

**LIEUTENANT-COLONEL G. M. MILLAR, O.B.E., I.M.S., CHIEF MEDICAL OFFICER IN RAJPUTANA AND CIVIL SURGEON, AJMER-MERWARA.**

23. *General Health Conditions of Workers.*—No separate returns of mortality, birth rate and infant mortality are maintained for workers in Ajmer-Merwara, but judging from the general appearance of the workers I consider that the general standard of health is good.

Working conditions on the whole are satisfactory. Out of a total of approximately 15,000 workers, about 12,000 are employed by four concerns, the B.B. & C.I. Railway workshops at Ajmer, the Edward Mills Co., the Krishna Mills Co., and the Maha Lakshmi Mills Co., the last three cotton mills at Beawar. The conditions at the railway workshops are excellent, and those at the three mills mentioned are very good.

The dietary of Europeans and Anglo-Indians calls for no comment, while that of Indian workers is the same as that used by the ordinary inhabitants of Ajmer-Merwara, the principal constituent of which is barley, to which is added a little maize and gram and occasionally wheat.

The physique of Indian workers is in general well up to the standard of this district, and does not seem to me to be adversely affected by working conditions.

No statistics are available to show whether there is any disturbance of the sex ratio, or to indicate the relation between housing and mortality.

24. *Extent of Medical facilities provided.*—The B.B. & C.I. railway maintain a large up-to-date hospital in Ajmer for their employees and families as well as four out-door dispensaries.

With this exception no hospitals or dispensaries are maintained by employers.

Factories exist at Ajmer, Beawar and Kekri, at which places Government controlled medical institutions are situated, to which workers have free access.

In Ajmer there is a mission hospital for women controlled by the Scotch Mission. In Beawar a lady sub-assistant surgeon is on the staff of the dispensary.

A maternity home at Ajmer, in which dais are trained, is maintained under the Lady Chelmsford League.

25. *Extent to which medical facilities are utilized.*—In general these facilities are utilized freely, and women on the whole now come freely to medical institutions.

26. *Sanitary Arrangements.*—Latrines in general in work places are sufficient and well kept, and the supply of water for drinking, bathing and washing is good and sufficient.

27. *Extent and Nature of Official Supervision.*—The Civil Surgeon is a Joint Inspector of Factories for the purpose of supervizing the sanitation of factories and the inspection of children employed in them.

There are four certifying surgeons, two at Ajmer, one at Beawar and one at Kekri, who examine and issue certificates to all children employed in factories.

In the railway workshops at Ajmer no person is allowed to work till he has been declared fit by one of the railway medical officers.

A large area in Ajmer is controlled by the B.B. & C.I. Railway, the health supervision of which is efficiently controlled by the railway medical officers and their sanitary staff.

There are no special plantations in Ajmer-Merwara.

28. *Suitability of existing Factories and Mines Acts and Rules.*—I consider the existing Acts and rules satisfactory and suitable for this area. The temperature in factories is not excessive considering the normal atmospheric temperatures which are prevalent.

Owing to the general dryness of the atmosphere throughout the greater part of the year humidifiers have to be employed in cotton mills. Those in use at present seem satisfactory, while the introduction of live steam to any room where the temperature exceeds 85° F. has been prohibited. The conditions at present prevailing do not seem to be injurious to the health of the workers.

29. *Disease.*—Industrial diseases have not occurred recently. In the past a few cases of lead-poisoning occurred in the railway workshops at Ajmer.

Cholera occurs, but epidemics are practically never severe. Malaria is endemic, but usually is not severe; hookworm and leprosy are not common. Dysentery is prevalent. No other tropical disease is sufficiently prevalent to call for comment.

In Ajmer city tuberculosis is very prevalent.

30 and 31. There is no provision for sickness insurance or maternity benefits.

43. *First Aid and Medical Relief.*—In the railway workshops at Ajmer the arrangements are very well organized and highly efficient. At Beawar a few drugs and dressings are available in the larger mills. It would, I think, be possible to arrange for instruction in first-aid to some of the workers in these mills.

84. *Suitability of Regulations affecting Children.*—These appear to me satisfactory. The great majority of children employed in the factories are strong and healthy. The minimum age of twelve and the maximum age of fifteen are suitable for this area.

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Mr. E. C. GIBSON, I.C.S., COMMISSIONER FOR WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION, AJMER-MERWARA.

## VIII.

### *Workmen's Compensation.*

51. During the four years subsequent to the year in which the Workmen's Compensation Act was brought into force (1924), the number of accidents reported from factories and coming within the purview of the Act, the number of cases in which compensation was paid, and the amount paid was as shown below. The figures are

taken from the Annual Report on the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, which is compiled by the Inspector of Factories, Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara :—

Year.	Number of accidents coming within the purview of the Workmen's Compensation Act.	Number of cases in which compensation was paid.	Total amount of compensation paid.
1925 .. .. .	284	281	Rs. a. p. 3,009 9 6
1926 .. .. .	459	458	3,924 1 0
1927 .. .. .	134	134	3,385 0 0
1928 .. .. .	146	141	7,762 4 0

Very few cases come before the Commissioner under the Workmen's Compensation Act. The number of such cases, which have been dealt with since the Act came into force, is 27 up to and including 1928. Of these cases 22 were merely for the registration of agreements; four related to claims for compensation contested by employers, and one to distribution of compensation to dependents of a workman fatally injured. Most of these cases came from the three big mills in Beawar. Naturally, the largest number of accidents occur in the railway workshops, but until recently cases of compensation to employees of these workshops have been dealt with by the District Magistrate, Abu, and not by the Commissioner, Ajmer.

(iii) *Effects on Industry.*—In the Statement of Objects and Reasons drawn up when the Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in 1922, some of the advantages that might be expected to result from this legislation were described as follows :—

“ An additional advantage of legislation of this type is that by increasing the importance for the employer of adequate safety devices, it reduces the number of accidents to workmen in a manner that cannot be achieved by official inspection. Further, the encouragement given to employers to provide adequate medical treatment for their workmen should mitigate the effects of such accidents as do occur. The benefits so conferred on the workman added to the increased sense of security which he will enjoy, should render industrial life more attractive, and thus increase the available supply of labour. At the same time a corresponding increase in the efficiency of the average workman may be expected.”

The Act has only been in force for five years, but the beneficial results anticipated are in process of achievement. It is probable that some workers, who fall below the higher standard of physical fitness which is now demanded by some employers, find it more difficult to obtain employment in the larger industrial establishments such as the railway workshops where, I believe, stricter medical examination before employment is now insisted on. On the other hand a system, under which only persons who are physically fit can obtain employment, must tend to increase the efficiency of labour in industrial undertakings.

So far as this district is concerned, the available supply of industrial labour is at present greater than the demand. In Ajmer this is partly due to the fact that the railway workshops are reducing the number of their employees. In Merwara I believe that a certain number of men have recently gone to Ahmedabad to seek employments in the mills there, because they are not able to get employment in the Beawar mills. This is partly due to the fact that as recruitment for the army in Merwara has recently been discontinued, military service, which formerly attracted considerable numbers of the rural population of this sub-division, is no longer open to them.

(iv) Insurance companies provide facilities for covering employers' liabilities under the Act and some, at any rate, of the mill and factory owners in this district do cover their liability by insurance. The value of this is presumably greater from the point of view of the employer than of the worker, though the latter must also benefit indirectly, since his chances of recovering compensation due to him under the Act are not prejudiced by the reluctance or inability of his employer to pay it, and any temptation to withhold compensation is removed when liability is transferred from an employer to an insurance company. No case, however, in which an employer has tried to evade or been unable to meet his obligations under the Act has come to my notice in Ajmer-Merwara.

(9) The scope of the Act is at present confined to industries which are more or less organized, and the classes of workmen benefited by the Act are, generally speaking those whose occupations are hazardous. Some system of compulsory insurance would probably be necessary if the provisions of the Act were extended to workers in unorganized industries. The difficulties and expense of administering such a scheme would, however, be very great.

52. Logically there seems to be no strong argument against the extension of the Act to unorganized industries and non-hazardous employments. It is very doubtful, however, if such extension of the Act could be made practically effective without a system of compulsory insurance, and whether the difficulties of enforcing any such system of compulsory insurance could be satisfactorily overcome.

53. I have not heard of any dissatisfaction on the part either of employers or workmen in this district with the provisions of the Act. No doubt they are capable of improvement in some respects. I think that they are perhaps most open to criticism as regards the *scales of compensation* payable to workmen on lower pay. Compensation for injuries received by such workmen are often, in my opinion, somewhat unequal and inadequate. I may quote as an instance the last case with which I have dealt. This was the case of a workman who, as the result of an accident while employed on his regular work, received injuries which necessitated the amputation of the four fingers on his right hand. His pay being Rs. 12 a month, the compensation to which he was entitled under the Act was Rs. 126. This amount seems to be hardly commensurate with the extent of the disablement. With only the thumb left he has practically lost the use of his right hand. Similarly, if a workman drawing Rs. 10 a month loses any finger other than the index finger he is, in accordance with the provisions of Section 4 (1) (c) (i) read with Schedule I of the Act, entitled to receive compensation amounting to Rs. 21.

The *waiting period* of 10 days provided for in Section 4 (1) (d) of the Act also, no doubt, causes a certain amount of hardship to workmen by reducing the amount of compensation payable to them. It is probably, however, undesirable to reduce the period, and I believe that the method of "dating back" for purposes of compensation has serious disadvantages. I understand that the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway pay their employees full pay for the first 10 days (or shorter period) of disablement. If this example were followed by other employers of labour, the hardship would be removed.

Owing to the habitual improvidence of the Indian labouring classes the system of paying compensation in a lump sum is not very satisfactory. In principle a system of *recurring payments* would certainly be preferable, but here, too, the practical difficulties would be great, one of the principal obstacles being the fact that much of the labour employed in factories is migratory.

As far as this district is concerned I think that the present machinery for administering the Act works on the whole satisfactorily.

**CHECKED**  
**2003-04**