

THE Servant of India

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TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

THE protest of the Chinese Government at Peking against the landing of British troops on Chinese soil as constituting a violation of Article 10 of the League Covenant raises important issues relating to India's position in the League. The Chinese Government at Peking is the one which the Powers and the League recognise. Ordered by the British Government, Indian troops have been despatched to China. As a Member of the League, India cannot enter into hostilities against another Member without submitting the case either to arbitration or to enquiry by the League Council. Under Article 11, India has the right to bring to the attention of the League Assembly or the Council the present circumstances affecting Indo-Chinese relation. This is not a 'domestic' question of the British Empire and India's position in the League will be better defined if the Indian Assembly informs the League Council through a resolution the existing relation between India and China.

AN important recommendation made by the Joint Parliamentary Committee on the Government of India Bill was that the principles of land revenue administration should, as soon as

Delayed Land Revenue Legislation.

possible, be embodied in legislation. Seven years have passed since this recommendation was made; but, as could be seen from an official reply in the Assembly last week, we are practically where we were. Land revenue legislation is, no doubt, pending in some provinces; but nowhere has the necessary Act been yet placed on the statute book. Madras and Berar seem to be the only provinces which have given legislative shape to their proposals and submitted them for the sanction of the Central Government. But the latter seems to be still considering the question. Government machinery is notoriously slow to move; nevertheless the delay that has taken place in this matter appears to us to be inexcusably long. The subject matter of the proposed legislation is such as vitally affects the lives of the masses and one should have thought the Government of India would have taken particular care to prevent any unnecessary delay. It is to be hoped that when the Statutory Commission comes out, it will carefully go into all such cases of delay.

THE proceedings of the Maternity and Child Welfare Conference at Delhi deserve the attention of all social workers. They show the nature and volume of the work that still remains to be done by way of removing the many evils and improving the conditions that are responsible for the poor health of Indian mothers and the huge figure of infant mortality in this country. The problem is a complex of poverty, ignorance, absence of adequate or efficient medical aid and ruinous social practices such as child-marriage. The inter-relation between these various factors should be realised and an organised campaign conducted so as to attack the evil at the root and rouse the conscience of the people and make them realise their duties by the unborn generation. The general mentality of both Indian men and women in regard to marriage and questions of race-culture has to be changed through education, propaganda and practical steps of social reform. The inclusion of scientific training in maternity and child welfare work in the curriculum of studies for women will also help to produce a new generation of mothers and prepare women workers in sufficient numbers to tackle the problem among the masses. But for substantial progress along these lines, there is, we need

hardly add, need for a closer co-operation between official and non-official workers in the field and a better understanding of each others' difficulties than has characterised their relations in the past.

Dr. HUTTON, the Deputy Commissioner of the Naga Hills, read an important paper before the last session of the Indian Anthropology and Administration. Science Congress dwelling largely on the necessity of anthropological knowledge for administrators who have to deal with the aborigines. We fully agree with Dr. Hutton when he urges far greater sympathy in all matters affecting the aborigines. Very often, the reformer's zeal blinds him to the fact that even the aborigines have a point of view and a system of thought and belief which even, if illogical and unscientific, are not less powerful to direct their conduct in a certain manner on that account. Sympathy, for which Dr. Hutton pleads, will not only reduce the chances of misunderstanding, but check the harsh impatience of the reformer to 'civilize' the aborigines after his own image. All this is true. But we do not think that we shall help the aborigines in any real sense by isolating them from the main currents of the advanced communities of the province by raising walls around them. Our admiration for the primitive simplicity and picturesque customs of the aborigines may easily degenerate into an excuse for perpetuating their present miserable condition. What the aborigines are suffering from is not excessive administration, but maladministration or lack of administration. The value of certain aspects of human civilization has been proved beyond dispute. A sanitary surrounding, sufficient nourishing food and a certain minimum of secular education are among these and in trying to secure these for the aborigines no administrator need feel any doubt as to their beneficent results. There can be no more disastrous policy to follow regarding the millions of aborigines in India than a policy of *laissez faire*.

THE Bombay excise administration report for 1925-26 which was recently issued makes most disappointing reading and shows what a wide divergence exists between the Government's professions and practice. Total prohibition has been officially declared to be the goal of their excise policy; but as for practical action to bring it nearer, precious little seems to have been done. No doubt the rationing policy is being pursued; but it was initiated long before they committed themselves to prohibition. Moreover, there is no guarantee that it will be continued without interruption. The bogey of illicit distillation is a convenient cover for retracing any forward steps in the direction desired by public opinion. As we said recently, it has been utilised in Punjab for opening as many as 143 new shops during one year, and who knows it may not be similarly availed of in Bombay for discontinuing the rationing policy. In any case, some utterances of the last Minister do not make us hopeful that it will be continued; but we shall hope that with a prohibitionist like Dr. R. P. Paranjpye in charge of the Excise portfolio, the Government will not be so reactionary as to abandon the rationing policy. But even so, the fact remains that since proclaiming to the world their allegiance to prohibition, the Bombay Government have not in the least gone out of their way to hasten its advent. Their excise policy is an interesting study in diplomacy

and when they declared in favour of prohibition, public opinion believed, rightly as later events show, that they merely wanted to do lip service to it.

Even were the rationing policy itself properly worked, it would have appreciably helped in reducing consumption; but apparently a desire to give it an honest trial is lacking. In the first place, a year in which there was abnormal consumption was chosen as the basic year for basing future rations, the plan being to go on reducing the ration annually by 10 p. c. in Bombay and 5 p. c. in the mofussil. The result has been that though at the time of the preparation of the report rationing had been in force for four years, in no single district was the rationed quantity reached! During 1925-26 the ration was 1,883,804 gallons out of which only 1,405,437 was consumed. In other words, the ration is so liberal that it will be some years more before the drinking population will experience any pinch. Almost since the inauguration of the rationing policy, public opinion has tried to impress on Government the necessity of restricting the ration as much as possible; but their representations have uniformly fallen on deaf ears. There is of course a fall of over 26 lakhs in the excise revenue; but with their face turned towards prohibition, they must be prepared for the gradual extinction of this source of income.

The report tries to explain away the gap between the ration and actual consumption as follows:- "As a matter of fact the ration is not worked up to, because the licensees find they can cover their profit by charging very high prices on smaller sales and always hoping that something, a wedding or an epidemic or other unusual market for their liquor will arise, they do not reduce their prices." The explanation is more amusing than convincing. Firstly, we find it difficult to believe that had it been possible to do so, the licensees would have hesitated to sell away more liquor than they actually did; and secondly, unless the licensees in Bombay are a particularly virtuous class, we have yet to come across a business man who has consciously decided to set a limit on his profits.

The working of excise advisory committees also leaves a good deal to be desired. They have since been reorganised; but their working during the year under report was anything but satisfactory. A large number of them were not convened even once during the year; and such of them as met and ventured to make any recommendations found most of them quietly ignored. Out of the total of 94 recommendations, only 33 were wholly carried into effect and 20 partly! They could succeed in closing only three country liquor shops in the whole presidency. No wonder they have ceased to excite any public interest.

The rationing policy does not apparently apply to Sind, what is aimed at there being merely "a reduction of consumption largely by the levy of higher fees and rates." Its geographical conditions and the fact that it is surrounded by Indian States make the prevention of smuggling a matter of extreme difficulty. The Commissioner in Sind gives the following certificate to the Khairpur State which is an integral part of Sind:- "The administration in Khairpur is *chaotic* and *utterly corrupt*, and though the Adviser is attempting to introduce Excise reforms, it is doubtful whether he will be able to do so effectively. Let us hope the next report will tell us what success has attended the Adviser's efforts in introducing these reforms.

LAND ACQUISITION.

THE Bill which Mr. N. C. Kelkar introduced in the Legislative Assembly on Tuesday of last week seeks to regulate the working of an important principle, viz. that of compulsory acquisition of land for public purposes. While the principle itself is recognised on all hands to be sound, its practical administration is surrounded with many difficulties, which come to a head when wholesale expropriation is attempted. On such occasions the very principle mentioned by Mr. Kelkar that public purposes have "a superior claim over private need or sentiment" is questioned, giving rise to a wholly irrational battle-cry of *जान* or *जमान* (land or life), as was the case in the Mulshi Peta agitation. Even in cases where extensive disturbance does not take place, serious individual complaints arise, for which under the present law there is no adequate remedy. We are as yet unable to appreciate fully the provisions in Mr. Kelkar's Bill, not having studied the measure in detail, but there is no doubt that it furnishes a very valuable basis for discussion as to the nature of the remedy to be applied, and we hope that when the Bill is circulated for eliciting opinions, the public will give it their earnest consideration and help in fashioning a measure which, while maintaining the principle unimpaired, will minimise the loss and suffering unnecessarily inflicted on the owners of land at present.

In applying the law the first question that arises is one of determining whether the purpose for which land is to be taken is a public purpose. At present the local Government has full discretion in the matter. A mere declaration by it that a particular land is needed for a particular purpose is regarded as conclusive evidence that the land is needed for a public purpose, and there is no means provided to the owner of the land to challenge this decision. It may be, however, particularly when land is acquired for companies, that powers of compulsory purchase are invoked for purposes of doubtful public utility, and yet the persons who are deprived of their land have no redress whatsoever. Again, more land may be taken than is really required for the particular undertaking, and yet superfluous land may not be restored to the owner if he wants it. Nor is any obligation usually laid upon the authorities or promoters of commercial undertakings to utilise the land compulsorily taken for a specific purpose within a certain period. The safeguard that is usually provided against such abuses is that the necessary authority to take land is obtained from the legislature which, before conferring the necessary powers, satisfies itself that it is a bona fide public purpose, limits the quantity of land which may be taken to such an amount as is reasonably necessary for the particular undertaking, and stipulates that the undertaking shall be completed within a certain time and makes other provisions of a like nature. In England, for instance, generally, though not in-

variably, Parliament's permission is obtained before land is taken. When land is required for Government itself, a bill is introduced in Parliament authorising the compulsory purchase of specific land. When local authorities or commercial companies or individuals desire to acquire land compulsorily, they also apply to Parliament for powers of compulsory purchase. It would be useful to inquire in what proportion of cases Parliament intervenes and to what extent the intervention is effective. Mr. Kelkar's Bill proposes, in clause 6, sub-clause 3, to secure the same kind of Parliamentary control over land acquisition. It also gives the right of pre-emption, in the case of the superfluous land acquired, to the owner, in case he would like to have it back, or to the person whose land immediately adjoins the land which is proposed to be sold as being no longer required.

Then the difficulty is about compensation. In reality a person is entitled to be paid by way of compensation the full value of the land taken from him and some proportion in addition in recompense for disturbance. In calculating the value of the land not only its present worth but future potentialities must be taken into consideration. Similarly, if by taking a portion of the land, the remaining portion becomes less valuable, the owner is entitled to be reimbursed for the loss he thus sustains; that is to say, he is entitled to compensation for damage caused by "severance" of a portion of the land and also by "injurious affection" of the remainder, to use legal terms. In actual practice, however, the owner is dismissed with very small compensation. The machinery for determining the amount of compensation is this: the Collector makes the award, which is binding, unless set aside by a Civil Court on a regular suit by the aggrieved party. This has been found by experience to be an unsuitable method of assessing compensation. It is an unequal fight between the owner and the Collector, in which the Collector by reason of his superior resources almost always wins. As Mr. Kelkar pointed out in the speech he made when introducing the Bill, Sir Norman Macleod, a high authority in these matters, has pronounced that a Court of law is an unsuitable forum for determining the amount of compensation. In England the intervention of Parliament checks this evil also as it checks other evils. But Mr. Kelkar proposes a different method; viz. the institution, in all disputed cases, of Arbitration Boards whose decision is to be final without a right of appeal therefrom to a court of justice.

This seems a novel method, but as Mr. Kelkar states, it is more or less a reversion to the methods that were in force prior to 1894, when the present Land Acquisition Act was passed. The earliest Act on this subject is Act VI of 1857. This Act left the assessment of compensation to the sole judgment of arbitrators against whose decision there was no appeal, except on the ground of corruption or misconduct. "The law contained, moreover, no statement of the principles which

should guide the arbitrators in their awards and imposed on them no obligation to give any reasons for their findings." Under this regime of "unqualified arbitration," as the Home Member put it in his speech in introducing the Bill which eventuated in the present Act, the public money was absolutely thrown away. The Act of 1857 was amended in 1870, when the principle of arbitration was circumscribed. It was then provided that the amount of compensation should be determined in disputed cases by selected judicial officers, assisted by two assessors, one to be appointed by the Land Acquisition Officer or the Collector, and the other by the owner; the law prescribed the considerations to be taken into account in assessing compensation; if the judge and one or both of the assessors agreed as to the amount of compensation, their decision was final; if the judge and the assessors disagreed, the opinion of the former was to prevail, subject to an appeal which lay usually to the High Court. In the present Act, however, there is no element whatever of arbitration. Arbitration, which reigned supreme prior to 1870, was considerably emasculated in 1870 and altogether excluded in 1894. The present Act vests the power of determining the amount of compensation in the hands of the Collector, subject only to a right of appeal by either side by the institution of a suit in a court of law. This brief history of the evolution of the land acquisition acts in this country will perhaps enable the readers to have a proper perspective of the Bill which Mr. Kelkar has introduced. We only wish by means of this article to bring the subject before the minds of our readers and leave it there for the present with a mere expression of hope that out of the present Bill a really suitable measure will be hammered which will do justice to private interests while subserving the public interests.

JOINT RESPONSIBILITY.

IT will be remembered that the Joint Parliamentary Committee on the Government of India Bill had recommended that there should be joint ministerial responsibility in the provinces. In this connection it observed as follows:—"In these circumstances they think that it should be recognised from the commencement that Ministers may be expected to act together. They probably would do so: and in the opinion of the Committee it is better that they should; and therefore that the fact should be recognised on the face of the Bill" (Italics ours). Thus what they wanted done from the commencement of the Reforms has not come to pass even after the lapse of seven years! Madras is the only province which has worked dyarchy on the basis of joint ministerial responsibility from the very commencement and can be said to have faithfully carried out the recommendation in question. The only other province where the principle of joint responsibility is in force now is C. P.; but there too it is being enforced only six years after the Reforms were inaugurated.

The first two Ministers in U. P.,—Messrs. Chintamani and Jagat Narayan—were apparently bound to each other by some sort of collective responsibility, but whether this was by private arrangement between them or was officially recognised as such by the Governor is more than we can say. In Bombay, as is well known, Sir George Lloyd, as he then was, being none too friendly to dyarchy, never encouraged the Ministers to act jointly, as intended by the Committee. It is true that the Reforms Act never enjoined this duty upon him in so many words and even the Instrument of Instructions to Governors failed to make explicit mention of this as being one of the essential functions of the Governor. All the same, the spirit of the Act was clear and in so far as any Governor failed to promote joint action on the part of his Ministers, he was merely carrying out, not the spirit, but the letter of the law. It is said Lord Lloyd even went so far as to get himself fortified by the highest legal opinion on the subject!

Lord Lytton deserves praise if he had this principle of joint responsibility in mind when he set up the Chakravarty-Guznavi regime in working resurrected dyarchy in Bengal. We hope the new Ministry will be able to successfully weather the storm that some disgruntled Muslims are trying to raise against it. And the best way to overpower the opposition is, we think, for the two Ministers to pull together as one team rigidly adhering to the principle of joint responsibility. For, as was recently pointed out by the *Statesman*, joint responsibility makes for stability of Ministries. It has also the advantage of assuaging communalistic bitterness by bringing prominent people of the different communities together and making them work together. Especially at a time like the present when communal feeling is running very high, the enforcement of joint responsibility as a basis for the formation of Ministries should have been insisted upon in all provinces. But it seems to have been done only in two or three. Discussing the situation in Bengal a few days ago, our contemporary the *Leader* of Allahabad observed as follows:—"Under the existing constitution the Governor has been given large autocratic powers. But he will hesitate in exercising these if he has to deal not with individual Ministers, but with a Ministry. The position of Ministers, who do not accept joint responsibility, must necessarily be weaker than of those who have accepted it, not only in the Council, but also in their relations with the Governor, and their utility and power of initiative and independent action must necessarily suffer. Separate ministerial responsibility is against the very spirit of the Reforms and those who have accepted office without stipulating for joint responsibility have violated the same and deserve to be strongly condemned. Such men evidently do not desire to make the best use of the Reforms."

All this points to the extreme necessity of joint ministerial responsibility being enforced at the

earliest possible opportunity. To borrow the Muddiman Committee's words, it is "of the very essence of the present Constitution" and as such the general expectation was that with the commencement of the third reformed triennium, joint responsibility would be the rule rather than the exception. But, thanks to bureaucratic reactionism, this expectation has not been fulfilled. If the Reforms are eventually adjudged a failure, a great part of the blame must go to the Government which has shown a lamentable lack of sympathetic understanding even in essential things.

TRADE UNIONS IN INDIA.

V—WELFARE WORK.

It will be useful now to consider the efforts made by employers to start some welfare activities for their employees and the attitude which the trade unions take towards them. Welfare work covers all the efforts which employers make for the benefit of their employees over and above the minimum standards of working conditions fixed by the Factory Act and over and above the provisions of the social legislation providing against accidents, old age, unemployment and sickness. It is clear that either the Factory Act or the social insurance legislation can only fix minimum standards which even ordinary employers can follow. But some employers for various motives exceed these standards. What is done in excess of the minimum standards is welfare work.

The motives which actuate employers to undertake work of this kind are various. In those places where labour is scarce the obvious motive is to attract it. Even if labour at a particular place may not be scarce, the employer who offers somewhat better conditions than another expects to secure the better class of workers. Apart from the advantage in the selection of the employees, employers who undertake welfare work do it with the conviction that better conditions of work mean more efficient work. Some employers undertake welfare work to keep their workers contented and to keep them away from joining unions and to avoid difficulties arising from strikes. There may also be some employers who undertake welfare work, being convinced of the inadequacy of the minimum standards fixed by legislation as a fair reward for the worker's share in the work of production.

Welfare work may take the form of providing more space, more light, better ventilation, more suitable temperature, better water supply and better conveniences than are required by the Factory Act. It may also take the shape of making provision for a place for dining and for fresh food, baths, a creche or a school for children, medical help and first aid appliances—things which are not touched by the present Factory Act in the country. Some employers also provide housing and open-air and indoor games and other means of recreation

and physical exercise. Provision of sickness benefits, holidays with pay, maternity benefits—mother's allowances, either on contributory or non-contributory basis, managed either by joint committees of representatives of workers and employers or by the latter alone and profit-sharing plans form part of some welfare work schemes. Joint committees or workshop committees are established by some for the consideration of grievances of workers and for establishing a closer touch between the management and men.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to give descriptions of the various schemes at present conducted at different places and factories in India. It is sufficient to state that the movement has been started in India and though it has not attained the proportions which it has attained in America, and although the present depression in trade is not favourable to its extension, it is certain that welfare work has come to stay.

The value of welfare work in attracting labour, or as a means of increasing the efficiency of labour, depends upon its being done on a sufficiently large scale. Especially if the object of the employers is to avoid strikes, they must remember that the workers can easily calculate the financial value of what they secure from welfare work and what they stand to gain by an addition to their wage. It is wrong for the employers to depend upon the ignorance of the workers and upon their intellectual inability to make a comparative calculation. The real value of welfare work consists in setting up higher standards of working conditions, which, by becoming general, may lead to the ultimate raising of the minimum standards fixed by law.

Under the present system of industrial management, where the interests of employers and the employees conflict with each other on many occasions, it is but natural that all efforts made by the employers even with the best of motives should be looked upon with some suspicion by the employees.

Moreover, as at least some employers start welfare work in order to keep away their employees from their trade unions, the natural suspicion which already exists in the minds of the trade unionists about such activities is still further strengthened. When the trade unions, besides their ordinary work, themselves undertake the work of helping their members in giving them medical help, in providing against sickness, unemployment and old age, they also come into competition with the employers and there is rivalry between the two parties.

The trade unions first stand for an adequate wage. They know that the amount spent on welfare work can never be so large as to be a full compensation for an inadequate wage. The trade union leaders also feel that all workers may not easily grasp this point and may be taken in by the apparent attractions of the welfare activities. They are anxious that the workers should be kept away from these attractions. Even supposing that the amount spent on welfare work is large enough, the

trade unionists feel that, perhaps, the employers also have the same feeling that these are mere concessions and not to be regarded as rightful dues as wages. This is confirmed by the fact that some employers have reduced the amounts spent on their welfare work during the present industrial depression without even giving notice to their employees. Trade unionists, therefore, do not value these concessions very much. If these concessions are given as a counter attraction to the workers, or if they come into competition with what unions do for their members, even the opposition of the unions to the welfare work is justified.

Moreover, the trade unions can never afford to forget what may happen during a period of strike or lock-out. If the workers are dependent upon the employers for housing, education of the children, medical help, sickness, maternity benefits and for all such matters, the unions will be greatly weakened in their fight with the employers. Some employers may not take advantage of this state of dependence of their workers during strikes or lock-outs. But instances are not wanting of employers having asked the workers to vacate their rooms and of having stopped all other welfare work during strikes and lock-outs. From the point of view of the workers, therefore, welfare work by employers is a source of weakness out-weighing the benefit which the workers may enjoy from it. The workers want these activities to be undertaken by the State or by any other public bodies or by their own unions. This is a perfectly justifiable attitude and the workers and their unions cannot be blamed for it.

There is one more reason why the trade unions do not approve of welfare work by employers. A trade union includes among its members employees of many employers. If some of the members enjoy substantial benefits over others, the solidarity of the organisation suffers to that extent. The trade unionists, therefore, want conditions to be standardised. When welfare work is standardised, workers will not oppose it. British workers not only did not object but approved of the establishment of the Welfare Fund under the English Mines Act of 1920. But those employers who seek to secure an advantage over their rivals cannot approve of such standardisation. From the point of view of those employers who are actuated in their welfare work by the motives of either real benevolence or justice, such general adoption of welfare work is a clear advantage. If trade unions are to approve of welfare work it must be undertaken with clean motives and not in a spirit of rivalry or competition among employers, nor in a spirit of hostility to trade unions.

(Concluded.)

N. M. JOSHI.

OUR PARLIAMENTARY LETTER.

(SPECIAL TO THE SERVANT OF INDIA AND THE WEEK.)

Delhi, 4th February.

IN spite of the adjurations so liberally proffered by Mr. Horniman to the elected members of the

Indian Legislature to execute once again a walk-out from the Assembly, the latter body has not yet ceased to function. Not to speak of the Nationalists and Independents, even the Swarajists do not seem eager to follow Mr. Horniman's advice. What is worse, they do not even consider it. At none of their numerous party meetings was the subject mooted; if anyone would be so fool-hardy as to raise it, he would receive short shrift at the hands of the Leader and the Deputy Leader. Sir Atal Chatterjee once said as a member of Government, "However much the political situation in India may worsen in the future, of one thing the Government of India feels confident, that Pandit Motilal Nehru will never again disobey the law and court imprisonment". So one may say, whatever else the Swaraj party may do in future, it can never be persuaded once again to walk out. They tried that strategy once and they have had quite enough of it. A dramatic exodus thus being out of the question, they must devise some other cry which will take the popular imagination by storm. Hence their Deputy Leader, Mr. Srinivasa Aiyangar's declaration about the formation of a National Convention, to which the Assembly as constituted by law is to be made subordinate. It is possible to attach an exaggerated importance to this pronouncement; all that it really signifies is that the Swarajists are immovably determined to stick to their seats in the Assembly. This is all to the good. Once they are in, you may depend upon it that they will do nothing very much out of the way, though they may talk differently; because, after all, it must be remembered that they have a constituency to please.

That the Swaraj party is in a chastened mood was shown clearly in the debate that ensued on the 3rd inst. on the resolution relating to the release of Bengal *detenus*, the only subject of first-rate importance discussed this week. The resolution as moved covered very wide ground, embracing Regulation III of 1818 and similar other regulations and all other repressive measures. It asked that all such measures should be expunged from the statute book and all the victims thereof should be either set at liberty or put on their trial. Pandit Motilal Nehru proposed an amendment, which was eventually passed as a substantive resolution, restricting the scope of the original proposition to the Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Act and to the persons proceeded against thereunder. The debate even on the issue thus narrowed down ranged over a wide field and took up the whole day and was indeed brought to a close without men like Messrs. Jinnah and Jayakar, both of whom rose twice to speak, being given an opportunity to express their views. There is hardly anything to report, however; for the debate ran on usual lines, popular representatives maintaining that they abhorred anarchical crimes equally with Government, but that they could never support or acquiesce in the power of indefinite detention without trial which the Government possess.

under the Act and employed in no niggardly fashion, while official representatives kept on continuously performing the confidence trick telling the benches opposite that they knew not how to avert anarchy and put it down and should therefore trust Government to deal with it as best they could. Many changes were rung on this, but that was really all that was said on either side. It ought to be mentioned, however, that non-official members had easily the better of Government in argument. Government's main contention is that on account of the widespread intimidation practised, no evidence can be produced in a court of law. Pandit Motilal went into all the cases cited by the Home Member and proved that in not a single one of them was there ever a question of terrorising witnesses. The plea, therefore, of keeping men in custody without a trial would not answer. This citation of cases and their refutation took place in the Assembly nearly two years ago when a similar resolution was discussed and yet, on the present occasion too, the Home Member paraded the very same instances without trying to meet the point that the Swarajist leader had made. The *detenus* have been in custody for 27 months without being brought to justice, even under the special form of trial provided by the Criminal Law Amendment Act, specially adopted for the purpose—a point of very great consequence urged in a forcible speech by Pandit Hirday Nath Kunzru—and one does not know how long they will remain in confinement. The lobby correspondent of the *Pioneer* had stated that an important pronouncement by the Home Member was expected on the subject of detention and for that reason Sir Alexander Muddiman's speech was followed with close interest by everyone and not the least by Swarajist members; but his speech only contained the offer, which Mr. Goswami in this debate definitely asserted Lord Lytton had made, viz. that if the *detenus* would promise (without thereby involving a reflection on their past career) not to commit outrages in future, their release would be considered by Government. That an undertaking as to future conduct will not be construed as an implied confession as to the past is not a small gain, but still the Government's promise is indefinite. It is remarkable, however, that the Swarajist members were not in a mood to disdain the offer as utterly unworthy of consideration, and the speeches of the prominent members were tuned to a lower key than usual. Thus ended what the Home Member called a thrice-told tale, but anyhow the Home Member did not come off with flying colours in the telling of it.

Last Tuesday (1st inst.) was the day for non-official bills, and as many as a dozen bills were introduced on that occasion. Some of them are of considerable importance, but it is not necessary to refer to them at present, because all of them excepting two were introduced only formally without a word of explanation as to their purpose and because they will be taken into consideration next week.

The exceptions are two: Mr. N. C. Kelkar's bill to amend the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and Dr. Gour's bill to repeal the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1908. They were explained briefly by their respective movers and will not come on for discussion so early. The latter bill reproduces, with certain modifications, the clauses of the bill which Dr. Gour introduced in 1925 and which was passed by the Assembly, but thrown out by the upper Chamber. Mr. Kelkar's bill seeks to mitigate the hardships caused to one whose land is compulsorily acquired by Government for public purposes. The measure is no doubt suggested by the Hydro-Electric Works at Mulshi Peta which involved compulsory expropriation of many farmers and led to a bitter and prolonged agitation. The Bill fully recognises the need for acquiring land compulsorily for public purposes on occasion—a recognition which was not in evidence when the Mulshi Peta agitation was on, but provides machinery, first, for determining whether the declared purpose is in fact one of public utility and, secondly, for assessing the compensation to which the owner of the land in question is entitled. Some of the provisions in the Bill are modelled on the Government of India's own Act of 1870, which was subsequently amended in a retrograde sense in 1894, and on British Acts and some of them are novel. It is, on the whole, a carefully drafted bill which one may be sure will receive, when it is circulated for eliciting public opinion as Mr. Kelkar intends to do, close scrutiny at the hands of the public. Mr. Kelkar deserves sincere congratulations upon this constructive effort, as he himself called it; for it means, one may take it, a definite break with the policy which he pretended to follow not so long ago, viz. one of contemptuous indifference to all lesser measures than the grant forthwith of complete Swaraj.

REVIEWS.

DESERTS OF NEJD

IN UNKNOWN ARABIA. By MAJOR R. E. CHEESMAN. (Macmillan & Co. Ltd., London.) 1926. 10 x 6½. pp. 447. 25s.

THE exploration of the Arabian Peninsula proceeds apace. Before the War, the whole of the Peninsula was under Turkish rule, with the exception of Yemen (over which the Turks asserted a nominal suzerainty), the British settlement of Aden and its undefined hinterland and some of the districts on the coast of the Arabian Sea or the Persian Gulf, where British influence had been asserted as a corollary to the British occupation of India. Turks' rule left practical autonomy to the tribes and interfered little with their lives. The only portion which was in effective occupation was the Hedjaz, with the two holy cities of Arabia, which were linked up by railway with Constantinople and Europe.

During the War the dream of a united Arab nation was dangled before the Arabs, and various inconsistent promises were made to different leaders of the Arab people. The Sharif family of Mecca were installed in the Hedjaz, a scion of the

family was given Transjordania, and another the principality of Iraq. The most powerful chief, the one who really counted in Central Arabia, was Ibn Saud, with whom also amicable relations were established. Since then, Ibn Saud has swept away the Shariffian family from the Hedjaz and with the exception of the precarious hold of the Amir Abdullah in Transjordania, the whole of Arabia is now under the sway of Ibn Saud, Sultan of Nejd and its dependencies—British influence in the coastal districts remaining as it was, or strengthened on account of the Allied victory.

The British have established excellent relations with Ibn Saud and it is the policy of their statesmen to use these friendly relations to further geographical and scientific exploration in the unexplored portions of Arabia. Palgrave and Philby have already been among the notable explorers, and Major Cheesman has now added a detailed and graphic account of the Oases of Hufuf and Jabrin, on the borders of the great Jafura desert in Central Arabia. Major Cheesman is an ornithologist and naturalist, and the whole object of his journey was purely scientific. He had no political objects; but we can forgive the American who smiled when he heard this, and Ibn Saud who gave valid reasons why Major Cheesman could not go just then to Riyadh, the capital of the Sultan of the Ikhwan. All through the 19th century there was unceasing rivalry between the Russians and the British for scientific exploration in Central Asia. The explorers may have been scientific, but the results of their exploration were available for furthering political aims.

Major Cheesman was well equipped for his task. He took with him the necessary simple survey instruments including a theodolite and he was able to fix the longitude and latitude of the two Oases which he actually visited. He was able to enquire into the trade and caravan routes from the port of Qair (opposite to the island of Bahrain in the Persian Gulf) into the interior of Central Arabia. He studied the geographical and hydrographical features of the country. The question of water, (rainfall, rivers, wells, and underground springs) is the question of questions with regard to communications and settlements in a desert country and even the study of bird, animal and vegetable life must take account of the water facilities in the desert. He was able to enquire into the position of little known tribes like Al-Murra and Awamir. In the area which he visited, he fixed the boundaries of the sandy desert and was able to locate correctly places of ancient fame, like Pliny's *Carrhae* (modern Qair) and the haunts of modern tribes. He brought away with him many meteorological, geological, botanical, and zoological data, as well as a series of beautiful photographs, which are reproduced in this volume. His knowledge of Islam was very superficial, but we must not expect everything from a naturalist.

His journey was undertaken in the cold weather of 1923-24. Life in the Hufuf Oasis, with its date palm groves and lucerne crops, and its strings of donkeys which connect the Oasis with the coast, could not have been very exciting, except on the arrival of a Ford car across the desert sands. Ibn Saud apparently keeps several cars at Riyadh where they can be used on the hard sandstone tracts once they have arrived. But over the soft sandy dunes they have to be dragged by camels. A big Crossley touring car is said to have required forty camels to tow it. A Citroen caterpillar car has been ordered by the Sultan, which can negotiate the sandy deserts.

The Wahabis or (as they are known among themselves) the Ikhwan (brethren) have been welded together into a well organised military force by the genius of Ibn Saud. He allows no fighting between the tribes under his control and keeps the peace of Arabia efficiently. "The trade routes traversing hundreds of miles of the interior" says Major Cheesman, "are as safe for the traveller as an English country road." The bond is religious; but the organization has become social and political, with a tendency to puritanism. Alcohol and tobacco are strictly forbidden. Enlistment in the army is voluntary. The Ikhwan are only called up for active service when needed. In times of peace they return to their tents, and as they receive no Government pay, they are no burden to the State. Ibn Saud himself came to Hufuf in January 1924, and Major Cheesman describes his first interview with him, and Major Cheesman wore Arab clothes when the Sultan congratulated him on his disguise. The Sultan smiled as he rose to receive him, and seated him on his left. Several rounds of coffee were served by a black negro. His son Faisal, whom Major Cheesman has taken to the London Zoo as a boy five years ago, was also introduced. The Sultan asked for news about the general election in England, and whether the reparations question had been settled between France and England. As it appeared, he knew more about these things than Major Cheesman. There were at the Court several young heirs of the families of conquered tribal chiefs, who seemed to be well treated. Next day Major Cheesman saw the Sultan again and some days later showed him his collection of birds and mammals. At length he arranged for permission to go to the Jabrin Oasis in the South and a little timely rain facilitated his journey.

The 120 miles journey to Jabrin along the edge of the great Jafura Desert was uneventful, except from the point of view of the naturalist, who considered the meeting with desert wheat ears, desert larks, or swallows (in February) as a great event. They crossed a gravel plain north of Wadi Sabbe in which some interesting geological enquiries were made. They reached Jabrin in a week, on February 17th, and left on the 23rd on the return journey to Hufuf. They had some sport in the way of coursing, for the traveller brought with him a desert hound of the Saluki breed and tried him with success against some desert hare. By March 1st the party was back in Hufuf. By this time the Sultan had left Hufuf, and as permission to visit Riyadh had not been obtained, Major Cheesman left Hufuf early in March and returned to England with the stallion which Ibn Saud had presented to him, and the collections of birds, animals, and specimens which he had got together.

Perhaps the most interesting chapters in the book are the last ones, dealing respectively with desert and protective colours in birds and animals, and drinking water problems in arid regions. In the desert almost every specimen of bird, beast, reptile, and insect is arranged in beautiful shades of pale creams and buffs, matching well with the surroundings. The birds that have desert colouring to a remarkable degree are those that nest on the ground. Major Cheesman does not consider that a period of motion has any effect on the colouring, but long periods of rest such as a mother bird must experience in hatching her eggs, produce a "sub-specific desire" to become as little prominent as possible to her enemies, and this "sub-specific desire" produces the protective colour in that sub-species. This would also account for hen-birds usually having more sombre colours than

cocks of the same species. The exceptions are in cases like those of the painted snipe, where the male takes the duty of incubation, and the female is arrayed in brighter colours than the male.

As regards water problems, some forms of desert fauna have solved the difficulty of dry surroundings by dispensing with the actual drinking of water and obtaining moisture for themselves in other ways. The sand dunes absorb any moisture (scanty rain or dew) and retain it at a short distance below the surface. The moist layer feeds the roots of desert plants, which usually have fleshy and succulent leaves, and sometimes a milky fluid in their stems. Not only dew but mist and fog might feed this kind of specialised flora. The vegetable kingdom in its turn would pass on the moisture to the fauna. The desert lark tours through waterless areas only during the period of dew. The ostrich probably collects dew from bushes. The oryx (a desert antelope) depends almost entirely on dew, or the moisture contained in the plants which it eats, as also the desert rodents.

Major Cheesman has written a fascinating account of his travel and exploration in an unknown region of Arabia.

A. YUSUF ALL

RURAL ECONOMICS.

WEALTH AND WELFARE OF THE BENGAL DELTA. By S. G. PANANDIKAR. (Calcutta University.) 1926. 9½ × 6¼, pp. 364. Rs. 5.

STUDENTS of rural economics of Bengal have long felt the paucity of careful and scientific writings on the different economic aspects of daily life. This hiatus has been fulfilled by Dr. S. G. Panandikar's "Wealth and Welfare of the Bengal Delta," which is a thesis approved for the Degree of Doctor of Science in the University of London. With the view of carefully presenting rural economic conditions the author wisely marked out his field and has throughout the book shown great self-restraint in making any all-India generalisations. In the first chapter there is an examination of the physical characteristics of the Delta which comprises the districts of Mymensing, Dacca, Bogra, Pabna, Faridpur, Bakarganj, Tippera, and Noakhali. The author arrives at the conclusion that the natural resources and conditions which vitally affect the production of wealth are very favourable. Chapters two and three contain a careful analysis of the agricultural and industrial wealth of the Delta. That the author has made a first-hand study and personal investigation of economic conditions is clearly shown by his minute observations on the agricultural, commercial and industrial life of the people. He rightly argues "that as the factory system will take many years to be established in the Delta, the strengthening of the cottage industries has to be accomplished in the meantime, so that a high degree of organisation and skilled artisans would be readily available for sound and rapid development of factories". The means to bring about this desirable object are discussed on page 265 *et seq.* We heartily endorse his suggestions for the starting of industrial schools for the proper education of the workers, the proper organisation of capital, raw materials, and the managerial side of the cottage industries and the use of improved appliances.

The next chapter discusses the aspect of the Land and Revenue systems and traces their effects on the people of the Bengal Delta. His interpretation of the important problem of the Permanent Settlement of Land is profound. It is

not blighted to any extent by prejudices against the landed interests. The bitter frost of antiquarianism which usually mars the literature on this subject is not to be met with. Chapter VI is an examination of the present standard of living of the people. On page 151 the author enumerates the increased comforts of the people, but his main conclusion is "that they do not compare favourably with the people of Italy, but they are much better off than their brethren in other parts of India." The people of the Delta are immune from malaria and plague, but cholera makes severe depredations. The state of the houses, the condition of clothing, the nature of food and the simple amusements of the rural folk are also vividly described. Though there are no vast inequalities of income, the agricultural population is much better off than its non-agricultural counterpart. Defects in the economic organisation are dealt with in the 7th and 8th chapters. The indebtedness of the peasantry, the feeble efforts of the co-operative credit movement, the *barga* system of cultivating land i. e. payment of produce rent, the illegal exactions as *salami*, *abwabs* and fines of the landlord's agents—who however are on the decrease,—the subdivision and fragmentation of land, the waste of female labour, the laziness of the cultivators, the migration of the intelligent few to the towns, the evils of sub-infeudation, the bewildering variety of tenures resulting out of the *jumba* system, the other causes for the interpolation of tenures, the low standard of living of the non-agricultural population, lack of other occupations than agriculture, the neglect of local administration, and the paucity of the resources of the local administrative units are carefully pointed out.

Chapters 9 to 12 deal with the remedies to the various problems pointed out. With his characteristic thoroughness the author takes up the different remedies advocated hitherto and subjects them to a searching examination before he accepts or discards them. So far as the problem of population is concerned, he rapidly surveys the possibilities of practicable eugenics, migration, irrigation, extension of cultivable area and considers them as "impracticable, undesirable or inadequate". He recommends intensive cultivation, voluntary restraint in married life, and effective organisation of the cottage industries and the starting of leather factories in Dacca, Mymensingh, and Pabna. So far as the agrarian problem is considered, he advocates the residential landlord system, paying full attention to the external and internal improvements of the farm and the agricultural industry. The cultivation of trees in waste areas, for fuel purposes, the improvement of agricultural methods and co-operation with the Agricultural Department of the Government, are the duties he outlines for the landlords. These should be helped by trained and honest agents in the management of their estates. The intervention of the Government to check illegal practices of landlords and their agents till the time of organisation of peasant unions, which would result as soon as they are sufficiently educated, the compulsory use of printed rent-receipt forms, the extension of occupancy rights to under-tenants, the reduction of the evils arising out of the *barga* system, the reduction of tenures, the starting of co-operative societies, the formation of a land mortgage bank, the creation of rural leaders, the remedying of the defects of the local administrative units, proper financial provision for these local self-governing units, the instituting of proper land-records staff for making land survey and keeping a record of rights, free primary educa-

tional system, practical agricultural education, medical relief, and good veterinary treatment for the qualitative improvement of cattle, the eradication of water hyacinth, the use of improved seeds, the cultivation of new crops as the potato, the sugarcane, the employment of the ryots' spare time in subsidiary industries such as weaving, the starting of more cattle farms, the adoption of scientific agriculture, the use of manures and the co-operation of agricultural associations in the matter of improved seed farms are some of the remedies advocated for the improvement of the agricultural wealth, health and happiness of the people.

An examination of the existing conditions and the remedies which are being worked out warrant him to infer that the present economic evolution is slowly tending to approximate the conditions of life of the people of the Delta to those of the Western countries. It is not only true, then, that their remedies would be applicable to our conditions, but the plea to develop a separate Indian Political Economy is based on false and inexact premises. The author hopes that from a study of the economic history of the western countries practicable remedies can be devised for increasing the material prosperity of the people. In addition to this, some of the miseries of the transition can be avoided by such an intelligent procedure.

The book is an excellent survey of high value. Throughout, the descriptions are detailed and the processes of reasoning are clear and interesting and not unduly technical. Every bookshelf on rural economy of India ought to possess a copy of this book and it need not be stated that the Royal Commission on Agriculture would endorse a good many of his intelligent suggestions elaborated in such minute detail without obtrusive opinions, any heaviness, or repulsive abstractness. It would be useful for the student, the research scholar, and the statesman. A useful index and a critical bibliography at the end heighten the value of the book and add materially to its usefulness. We have to congratulate the Calcutta University for making such encyclopaedic information available at such a low price as five rupees.

B. RAMACHANDRA RAU.

VISHNU PURAN.

VISHNU PURAN—A SUMMARY. By Rev. J. M. MACFIE, M. A. (The Christian Literature Society for India, Madras.) 1926. 8½ × 5½. pp. 258. Rs. 2-8.

THIS summary (with introduction and notes) is well worth reading. A non-Hindu would very easily be able to know one of the best and most authoritative Purans. The learned author has taken pretty good care to bring out what is best and also what is "worst" (absurd, grotesque) in this Puran. He appreciates the holy character of a real devotee (भक्त) of Vishnu. He has a good word to say about Rama, the son of Dasharatha. A good nice summary of the Sankhya system of Philosophy and a lucid account of the six books in the Puran are also given.

Turning now from Caesar sober to Caesar biassed, I find that the poor Vishnu Puran is hard hit by the author, unwittingly or otherwise. He does not probably know that a Puran as such is no history, that it records traditions and current rituals, manners and customs, that it is never cited as an authority by a rational thinker. The blemishes of inconsistency, of grotesque exaggeration, &c. should and ought to have been taken at their true value.

But I cannot understand the author's misunderstanding "Pantheism" of the Puran. Pantheism is in the first place a misnomer. Leaving this aside and taking it even at its Christian value, I find that the term is persistently misunderstood by our non-Hindu friends. The evolver and the thing evolved being one and the same would be a very bitter pill for a devout Christian to swallow. But to a sane Hindu, there is no incongruity here. He sees and therefore knows that a spider is the evolver of his web as well as the web itself. It is high time for religious non-Hindus to know that the sober Hindu religion is purely monotheistic. The author himself seems to be aware of this, but complains against the *previous history* of Vishnu! Does the Supreme Being have any history? I am not aware of a previous history of the Christian God.

Again, why cavil at incarnations? Every living, and therefore vigorous, social organism has to pass through epoch-making actions and reactions brought on by over-fed or over-weak organs of society. A Cæsar, a Luther, a Bacon, a Napoleon, a Shiwajee, a Mussolini are correlative checks arresting the mischievous growth of exaggerated sentiments and thoughts. The leaders of this evolution carrying on the wave of Reform are deservedly called *great*, nay to a Hindu they are the incarnations of the Supreme Being. The ten Hindu incarnations may be considered to be the corrective assets of Reform. The Matsya, Kurma &c. are the indicators of the several stages of the onward marching evolution, tracing the growth in structure and function of the soul from fish to the perfect man. Even the great Buddha, a non-Vedic reformer, is pointed as an incarnation for the simple reason that he preached an uncompromising war against mechanical formularies and propagated ethical principles of a higher type. Well! Gopal Krishna's "wild oats" are no doubt repugnant to a modern Hindu and hence he looks upon Vasudeo Krishna as the type of perfect wisdom.

Lastly, transmigration is a necessity to an honest Hindu believer. He knows he is a finite-being. He knows he is full of animated passions. At the same time he hopes to be blessed if he walks in thought, speech and action, along the right path. The orderly progressive march of nature and events compels him to admit the existence of a benevolent Providence and yet he knows he would have to pass through the gates of death many a time before he is perfectly purified by his own कर्म (action).

There is nothing ridiculous in this. Life, its trials and tribulations are ordained for purification. A Christian may hope to pass from finite to Infinity at one jump (by what logic I do not know), but a Hindu sees no hope of achieving this impossible feat.

In spite of all the short-comings of the book under review, it gives a general idea of the traditional currents of thought and aspirations of the Hindus.

C. G. BHANU.

SOUTH INDIAN LIFE.

A BOOK OF SOUTH INDIA. By J. CHARTRES MOLONY. (Methuen & Co. Ltd, London.) 1926. 7½ × 5. pp. 252. 7s. 6d.

MR. J. CHARTRES MOLONY enjoyed his stay in India and he wants to tell the world about it. In the present instance the world he has in view is the English youths at the British Universities.

After the introduction of the Montford Reforms, the Indian Civil Service became unpopular amongst the students at the British Universities. "The Service was losing its attraction". Whitehall could scarcely subscribe to this view. On the other hand it was very anxious that the famous "steel-frame" should be kept continually strengthened by proper replacements of worn-out parts. It was quite disconcerting to see the interest in the Indian Civil Service wane day by day and something had to be done to revive it. Lord Meston was chosen to manage "the job" and he set about to advertise the Indian Empire in a thorough and business-like manner.

Part of this campaign seems to be the publication of books dealing with India written by those who served in India. One such book we think, is "A book of South India." One peculiarity of such books is that the authors relate their experiences, in a more or less autobiographical manner. An English youth, on reading the book, may well say "what a pleasant thing it is to join the Indian Civil Service".

Mr. Molony has written an excellent book. In a short preface he says: "I have striven to avoid alike aggressive superiority and effusive sympathy. The general people of South India, the particular persons whom I have named, I have taken very much as I found them. I do not think that the accidents of race, religion, social position, have ever influenced, much or at all, my likes and dislikes." Even a casual reading of the book will bear this out. There is a ring of sincerity throughout and even though we may not agree with Mr. Molony in all that he says, we are sure to respect his views. The book is interesting, and more particularly the chapters on Madras; First and Last Things; Caste and Indian Religions; Administration of a city; certain personages of importance; and South Indian Culture. To quote isolated passages is not to do justice to Mr. Molony.

The book is written in a friendly spirit. Nothing is condemned because it is Indian or Eastern, and nothing is praised because it is English. The humble clerk in his office, "whose power of sustained and accurate work was well nigh incredible" receives a due share of Mr. Molony's kindly notice, as much as Sir C. P. Ramaswami Iyer, who is "more likely to impress the discriminating few than to win the favour of the multitude" receives his meed of admiration from the author. That "brilliantly able man" and "a political philosopher" Lord Pentland; "the Nestor amongst the Municipal Councillors", Sir P. Theagaraja Chetty; T. Rangachari "the great lawyer" Mr. Yakub Hassan, "the general grievance monger" against British Government; the great linguist A. C. Parthasarathi Naidu; the "very diligent and fair-minded" Muhammad Usman; G. A. Natesan who "wrote better than he spoke"; the witty, good humoured and sincere Mrs. Besant; Sir Sivaramswami, "kindly", "courteous" and "Honourable"; Sir Rajagopalachariar, "one of the ablest of Civil Servants"; the witty, efficient and incorrigible optimist, T. Vijayaraghavachari of Wembley fame and a number of other notable persons are described by the author in vivid pen sketches.

The book is well written in an easy graceful style. The sketch map of South India inside the cover is a great help to many. We knew of "Molony's Mixture" (page 143); but "Molony's literary mixture" is certainly a more welcome and stimulating tonic.

S. G. SASTRY.

ENGLISH POLITICAL ECONOMY.

A SHORT HISTORY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY IN ENGLAND. By L. L. PRICE, M. A. (Methuen & Co. London). 7¼ x 5. pp. 201. 5s.

THE fact that this work has run into its twelfth edition attests its wide popularity. It has indeed been long familiar to students of economics in British Universities, though it is less in vogue amongst Indian students than it deserves to be.

The book takes note of every English economist beginning from Adam Smith and ending with Arnold Toynbee. While every economist has been mentioned, special attention has been given only to those masters whose work has marked a distinct stage in the evolution of economic thought, emphasizing what was individual and characteristic in the contribution of each, and bringing out its relation to later developments of economic theory.

The first edition of the book saw the light of day in 1890 and excluded from consideration the work of the writers then living on the ground that their labours had yet to be completed and Thorold Rogers was omitted because he had only been just recently dead when this book was being written and could not well be dealt with in a hurry. One mis-es in the present edition this fulfilment of the implied promise that this work of so original a thinker as Thorold Rogers would receive the place it deserved in a book of this kind, especially as sufficient time has passed since his death for a correct estimate of the value of his work to be attempted.

When another edition of this book is called for, as it well might be in the near future, it may be hoped that the author might be induced to make good this omission and also include in his illuminating survey some of the old oaks that have just recently fallen like Marshall and Edgeworth.

G. B. J.

SHORT NOTICES.

THE FACTS OF INDUSTRY. (Macmillan & Co. Ltd., London.) 1926. 8½ x 5¼. pp. 62. 1s.

THIS excellent little brochure has been published with an eminently practical end in view. A strong Committee of business men and economists has gone into the question of how a much greater knowledge of the facts of industry would help a nation. Economics has so far been only a qualitative science—a science indicating broad tendencies rather than forecasting accurate results. In matters economic it is difficult to experiment and difficult also to obtain accurate statistical information. There has been, however, of recent years a considerable growth both in the accuracy and the volume of the statistical information. A section in this book dealing with the American collection of industrial statistics shows how in that country private and public authorities have cooperated to collect a mass of useful and detailed statistics bearing on industrial conditions. The case for publicity, as the committee call it, is put forward here on three distinct grounds: (i) That such publicity will help to better the relations between employers and wage-earners in industry. (ii) That it will help appreciably to lessen the intensity of depression and boom periods in an industrial cycle; (iii) That it will lead to a better distribution of national resources of capital in different investments. The case on all these counts is a very strong one and the committee have little

difficulty in proving it. The chief merit of the report, however, lies in the detailed recommendations that the committee make as to the ways in which the industries and the various Government departments can cooperate to bring about a better statistical service in the U. K. The information available about Indian industries is very meagre indeed. It is only on rare occasions—as when, an industry applies for protection—that statistics in detail are produced. But even then, the statistics are neither continuous, nor, it would seem, very accurate. It is to be hoped that the publication of this authoritative report will dispel the natural aversion of our industrialists to a publication of the facts of industry.

D. R. GADGIL.

THE AMERICAN LABOUR YEAR BOOK, 1926.

(Labour Research Department of the Rand School of Social Science, New York) 7¼ × 5. pp. 571-

THIS is one of the few very useful annual publications regarding the labour movement in the world. It is a mine of information and statistics on the various aspects of the subject. Naturally it deals more in detail about American conditions, but the part devoted to the outside world is not quite negligible. It describes the world economic situation in brief and gives full particulars regarding America. The present position of the Trade Union Organisations, National and International, in America, is fully dealt with and the book gives a brief survey of the situation in every country in the world. Labour Politics, Labour Legislation, Labour disputes, Workers' Education and Health, the Co-operative Movement, including Banking and Stores, are given their due place. There is a chapter on the Public Ownership of Industries. The volume also contains a bibliography of recent publications on labour. It can be asserted without hesitation that for a student of labour questions in the world the book is indispensable.

N. M. J.

The Servants of India Society's Fire Relief Fund.

(3rd January to 7th February 1927.)

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Total... Rs. 2,292

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BOOKS RECEIVED.

- MARX, LENIN, AND THE SCIENCE OF REVOLUTION. By EASTMAN. (George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London.) 1926. 7½ × 5. pp. 267. 7s. 6d.
- CHAMPIONS OF PEACE. By HERR SPAUL. (George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London.) 1926. 7½ × 5. pp. 112. 3s. 6d.
- THE INDUSTRY AND TRADE OF JAPAN. By S. UYEHARA. (P. S. King & Son, Ltd., London.) 1926. 8½ × 5½. pp. 326. 15s.
- INTERNATIONAL YEAR-BOOK OF AGRICULTURAL LEGISLATION, XV year—1925. (International Institute of Agriculture, Rome.) 1926. 9½ × 6½. pp. 1104. 12s. 6d.
- GREEK REFUGEE SETTLEMENT. (League of Nations, Information Section, Geneva.) 1926. 9 × 6. pp. 216. 2s. 6d.
- GENERAL STATUTORY RULES AND ORDERS. Vol. I, part, I. (Third Edition.) (Government of India, Central Publication Branch, Calcutta.) 1926. Rs. 6-8-0.

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