Chapter - 10

LABOUR WELFARE IN PROSPECT

After having examined and analysed in the preceding chapters various functional aspects and the concept of labour welfare, its manifestation and the findings of case-studies, we shall now in this final chapter lay down the emergent image of labour welfare in prospect, as a logical conclusion in Indian perspective. The emergence of labour welfare as a new approach to industrial relations system synchronises with the socialization outlook of industrial life.

In this context, it will now be revealed that the prospect of labour welfare, both as concept and precept, is preceded and followed by a conscious concept of social welfare, and that the concept of labour welfare can be translated into practice meaningfully with the aid of an effective social welfare policy and social administration postulation. It will be also seen that in India such an approach is already discernible under the tutelage of state.

It is now evident at this end of the twentieth century that the industrial revolution imposed a clear-cut distinction between the self supporting and the dependent, which called for a mobile, disciplined and increasingly educated labour force. As a labour market flourished, from which the young and the old were gradually excluded, and as rising living standards
extended the expectation of life, and hence the number of elderly dependants, so the poverty cycle afflicting children, their parents and the aged was greatly intensified. Industrialization in its trail brought the ruin of absolute industries and the threat of recurring unemployment in capitalist countries is now a constant hangover in almost every industry. Industrialization also created the big city with its new problems of public health and public order. "The age of great cities" said Walter Bagehot, "requires strong government".  

This is the backdrop of modern industrialized society where however neither the employees nor the employers could wait for the advent of strong government. Even if that Bagehotian strong government emerged, all necessary social protection can not be extended by the state alone, though the role of state is undoubtedly crucial one in labour welfare. Employers tend to spend huge amount of money for labour welfare as business investment, and if the return is not profitably forthcoming they tend to disfavour such expenditure. It is clear that labour welfare, both as a concept and precept, can not rely on welfare capitalism. As we have already seen, it is precisely because of this that the concept of welfare state has come to stay. It is, therefore, now increasingly believed that social welfare is no longer a charitable burden on productive economy of a country, or a residual function of

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government, but a permanent and growing feature of a progres- sive economy, producing not only a gradual socialization of the national income but also an increasingly just, classless and efficient society.

If, in advanced and geographically smaller countries like the U.K., the role of voluntary organisations is of greater practical significance, its strategic importance in an under-developed and geographically bigger country like India, is still more greater. Apart from the problems of inadequate resources, the philosophy of community participation in labour welfare would drive state efforts to supplement and coordinate voluntary action in the matter. The nature of social welfare is such that unless and until the involvement of social workers along with governmental machinery are meaningfully and effectively ensured no substantial progress in the field is possible.


During the process as well as transition from rural economy to industrialization and urbanization, the social life of individuals and groups as employees changed their family life profoundly. The employees as members of society have to adapt a new way of life by reshaping their faith, beliefs and attitudes. This reshaping of human life is particularly difficult and irksome in developing economy like India, and this new way of life may give rise to a series of failures in maintaining a balance in the new pattern of work life. In advanced countries,
newer social services are constantly being devised and adopted to correct such failures which ultimately affect their work life. In underdeveloped and developing countries, such social welfare services are provided by what is called community development projects at least in agricultural section. But the problem remains acute in industrial sector with which we are concerned.

In order to adopt a definite line of action and to stop erosion of social life in industry under the impact of industrialization, it is therefore necessary, first, to formulate a general theory of social welfare policy which is likely to supplement a labour welfare policy.

The basic factors of a general theory of social welfare policy should be the following:

2. The process of so dependency as a result of industrialization.
3. Methodology of social work for locating the sense of need in the minds of the needy.
4. Tendency of interdependence of different kinds of needs and their connection with social structure.
5. Propensity of recognition of social values and structure of labour force.
Each of those basic factors should be comprehensively developed to signify the nature of inter-connection between these factors and the sense of compassion for the class of social dependency created out of industrial life.

The main objective of formulating a general principle of social welfare policy is the promotion of human welfare comprising both economic welfare and social welfare. The development of human welfare is to be considered both ethical and religious and this approach should emanate from a philosophical approach to labour welfare. As the poor and ill-organized workers are traditionally neglected and exploited by the process of economic change, a religious and philosophical fervour is necessary to instil a sense of dignity in the whole approach and thinking of welfare. Perhaps, this has been the spirit of all philanthropic work which is the bedrock of modern approach in industry.

In the formulation of the process of social welfare policy, an important element of diversion may occur. This may exhibit itself in the form of a conflict between social work as institution and functional diversionary tensions and norms of a society itself. This element of diversion in the form of conflicts is, however, often superficial originating as they are more in the expression of values, symbols than in their real deeper meaning. But the conflict might be real if the norms of the society and norms of social assistance provided
to the members of that society clash each other both from economic and political point of view. As social work is done on behalf of the society, one must endeavour in an educational way to make people change their norms according to those of society. In India, particularly, this form of social tension is noticeable which is proving as a political hangover.

It should be noted that, in case of such a conflict more importance should be given to social work as an institutionalized standard because of its international character. In a clash between the institutionalized standards of social work and the interests of the management of a factory for example, it would be advisable to have a recognized council of appeal to ascertain which one is the right.

As is well-known social welfare policy has historically been associated with the downtrodden. This is more like a social disease than a mere poverty or economic backwardness, which primarily originates in the deficiencies of industrial life.

To correct the deficiencies in industrial life, social legislation has most commonly dealt with economic aspect of industrial life and therefore is primarily concerned with labour welfare.

From this standpoint, a general theory of social welfare policy should take into consideration the following
aspects of economic and industrial policy which is based on competitive market forces intended to promote social changes through community development.

First, a competitive policy of placing entirely new opportunities at the disposal of the community should be adopted. For example, employees should be encouraged and, if necessary, should be trained to run voluntary co-operative social services organisations for the benefit of the community to which they belong.

Secondly, a policy of introducing new factors which tend to develop some sectors of life and are expected to change it entirely should be adopted. For example, a road connection with a town, a compulsory school system or a factory in an underemployed area should be opened with the co-operative endeavour of the local people. This is intended to provide a sense of self-help and self-reliance to the people for creating new avenues of social services.

Thirdly, a policy of shock-therapy for a radical change in social life may be sometimes necessary for a fundamental change of the entire environment which forces the people to reshape their whole lives. The classical example is migration which is consciously applied to people who live under impossible conditions, while elsewhere good living conditions are available. All the above policies emphasize the need for community development efforts besides state controlled welfare arrangements.
It should be noted, however, that in formulating a policy of social change, a critical question may arise as to whether social policy should be only concerned with poverty and social misery or whether should be concerned with rate of economic development. This obviously depends on the value system of the politicians and those who control them and upon the urgency of economic development itself. Closely connected with this, other problems seem to be more permanently inherent in modern society, i.e., the impersonal nature of human relations, the lack of protective small groups, individualism carried to the point of the exploitation of one individual by another, in other words, the lack of human solidarity.

It may be argued that consequent on the disintegration of joint family system the economic and financial benefits under modern social security system have provided a new concept and a method of social protection to employees as members of society.

To this it must be added that feelings of insecurity can not altogether be removed from the mind of employees simply by a legal and financial system of social security. Insecurity is much more the result of a lack of protective groups and of generally accepted patterns of behaviour which are nevertheless, inherent consequences of social change. What is of dire necessity is the existence of protective groups which can be voluntarily formed on the basis of community development process. The whole tendency of modern society has to be counter-balanced by a conscious policy in favour of small group for-
-mations bringing responsibilities for mass solidarity back to small groups. This community development process may be initiated, for instance, through modern social security system by giving responsibility for its execution to local persons who have contact with local groups. Such a policy would be very

Perspective of Social Administration as Management constraint

In India, much of the problems of labour welfare management are likely to assume perspective character of social administration and also, it is likely to affect the prevailing concept of personnel management, especially elements of administrative organisation. The contemporary studies of personnel administration and personnel management have dealt with the growth and character of bureaucracies, the communications and relationships that constitute the 'social systems' of working groups, the logical processes of decision making and various methods of administration and management. But, in future, social administration specialists would like to throw light on the evolution of social policies and the concept of social administration by showing how changes come about in the work done by local units of the social services and by clarifying the roles of those who play a part in this process.

In the contemporary studies of management the service
provided - the 'task' of the organization - is disregarded, or treated as the outcome of an economic, social or logical system that forms the principal object of the organization. But this is not a logical approach to the main problem. A more appropriate and logical approach should take into consideration the evolution of the services provided by an organization as its focal point, other elements in the administration are to be treated as factors contributing to that evolution.

It follows then, from the standpoint of social administration, the concept of administration is to be identified not as a definite activity or technique, as currently postulated, but as consisting of all the process that play a part in determining the volume, character and distribution of the service that being studied. The 'service' is the outcome of these process. The people who contributed to these process may be, by and large, divided into three groups. First, the 'providers' of the service, second, the 'controllers of service' and the third, the determiners of demand.' These groups may not consist of physically different people for example, the members of a 'self help' housing association who pool their savings to build houses for themselves with their own labour play all three parts in the process - though they may depend on money lenders, land owners, local planning authorities and suppliers of building materials who control some of the resources they require.
Traditional and conventional two-part models of administration such as the distinction of supply and demand, bureaucrats and the public, on the state and the citizen should be replaced by aforesaid three part models in which the partners are themselves the elements in the whole administrative process. A three part model also helps to establish the central and crucial role of the providers of the service. They are not simply the instruments of their governing body - an important link between the committee and its clients. They create, and continually modify the services. And for their purpose, they conduct transactions in two 'markets', the market for the resources they require and the market for the services they provide.

This formulation also helps to focus attention on the points in the structure and the phases in the process at which the interests and aspirations of these three groups have to be confronted and reconciled. In such a process, it is not the demands made on a service which ultimately shape its character but the demands that are met or made effective. The governing body responsible for a social service and advisory committees that may be attached to the service are natural channels of communication, both with controllers of resources and with those determining demand.

Now, the foregoing hypothesis about the processes of social administration have a number of implications for its structure, and it is necessary to examine these implications.
It is obvious that the selection of the social services 'clients merits far more detailed study than may ordinarily be envisaged. Admittedly, the demand for services far exceeds the supply, and a social service frequently benefits several people simultaneously. Hence the distribution of help amongst those involved in one particular case also calls for careful study. For example, in the U.K., the National Assistance Board Officer dealing with Legal Aid Assessments is serving the Law Society for whom these assessments are made, but in practice, it is found that he could not simply disregard the needs of the people whose resources he was assessing. The Home Help Organizer knows that his services may be of vital importance, not only to old people and their families, but also to hospitals, general practitioners, old peoples' homes and other social services. Thus the character and development of a social service depends heavily on the willingness of clients to use such agencies and the selection the clients make of the services available.

Regarding social services' management, it seems, that the middle and senior level officers are not empowered to make major decisions, but they have considerable discretion to allocate the resources required for the service and to control and to supervise the uses to which they are put. Their responsibilities frequently place them at junctions in the communication system linking specialists and sub-groups who have divergent interests and aspirations. They act as
'filters' selecting and interpreting information that passes up and down the hierarchy and between one agency and another. They must be capable of speaking and understanding the different professional and administrative 'languages' of those with whom they communicate and reconciling minor divergencies among them. They often prepare the plans and the memoranda relied on by more senior staff. They are sufficiently close to the field staff and to those at the top of the hierarchy to be familiar with the weakness of both, yet they must be prepared to shore up such weakness in unobtrusive ways if the service is to develop effectively.

It is therefore evident that the likely role of the directors of social services, though important, is a restricted one. They generally bear the principal responsibilities for dealing with outside interests controlling the resources required for the service. If they fail to seek and secure the support of those controlling the resources required for expansion - including potential recruits to the agencies - the services they provide are unlikely to develop, though the existing pattern of structure remains efficient. Senior officers are responsible for the agencies they direct, but recent researches show that some of the social services most important tasks are performed by staff in several different agencies. It should be understood that the term 'service' is commonly used to refer to an agency and to the work it does, and it can be peculiarly difficult for senior officers to
appreciate the distinction between these concepts. Fruitful
development of the work often "calls for the participation
of many people outside the agency, and a willingness to sub-
ordinate the interests of the agency to those of the people to
be served, otherwise the evolution of social policies may be
frustrated or wastefully distorted.

The part played by an agency's governing body varies
widely according to its constitution and traditions, and it is
difficult to generalize about it. Only in a handful of cases,
could an elected council or committee be said to have initiated
the developments for social services, but in most of the cases
this role of the governing body comes at later stage. As a
matter of fact, the governing body of a social service is only
one of the channels of communication between the public and
those providing the service, and 'the public' is itself an
abstract and largely a mythical entity.

The financing of the social services often lays with
government control and their policies in which the governing
body hardly has any effective role to play. Governing bodies'
main functions are concerned with establishing and maintaining
relationships with those who control the resources required for
their services. They also constitute a means of arbitrating
between contending interests among the providers, and the
existence of this 'Court of Appeal' may be very important.
But the most important and crucial role of governing body is
to approve, modify or reject decisions which commit the
providers to significant changes in their objectives, to
courses of action which involve risks or impinge on other
services, and to significant expenditures or redistributions
of resources. Such decisions may call for consideration of
technical evidence, but they require more than an appraisal
of facts and methods, they require a judgement about priorities,
objectives and risks.

Prospect of Labour Welfare as instrument of social change
in Indian Society;

Labour welfare understood in terms of both economic
and social welfare is capable of bringing about social change
in an economy like India through the process of modernisation
or urbanisation. But major emphasis should be on social welfare
as this type of welfare not only aims at protecting workers' worklife inside factory during his tenure of service, but also
aims at protecting his state of dependency after his retirement
or in the event of untimely disablement. Here the roles of both state and voluntary organisations are equally important.

But the term social change or more precisely speaking, the process of socio-economic change is an illusory expression.
Or it becomes a more pervasive manifestation of change. For,
purely economic change has a clear-cut definition, viz, the
raising of per capita income. But socio-economic change would imply a more equitable division of the growing national income,
a more advanced specialisation of labour, a greater mobility of labour and capital, increasing mechanisation of production and number of people employed in mechanized production and also more extended and specialised markets. But social change in terms of socio-cultural change is more difficult to define. It may mean anything or all elements of modernisation in modern industrial society. For instance, it may imply raising standard of living and material well-being, more rationality and efficiency in human life in society, people's participation in the universal culture of mankind, better human relations, more justice, love and harmony.

It is obvious that in a country like India these changes may appear as utopian, or it may assume multi-dimensional character of social transformation spreading over centuries. Furthermore, such changes cannot occur suddenly. The process of modernisation in the aforesaid senses may be revolutionary, bloody and radical in character as occurred in the U.S.S.R. But labour welfare as understood in India, in the present democratic framework, is intended to change workers' world through gradual evolutionary methods. It is precisely to arrest totalitarianism in Indian society that welfare state has assumed here the role of welfare provider to workers. Therefore, social change which may come over India via labour welfare will, of necessity, be a long-drawn-out affair.

However, labour welfare may bring about social change in India through the process of economic growth exerting its impact and emphasis on one stage of development of society to the other in the following ways:
First, assuming the present stage of development in India as witnessed in traditional society, where the social units are relatively closed villages or towns having rather loosely connected links with each other, labour welfare as an integrated system may bring about a social cohesion and unity breaking open these closed units in a homogeneous form. This paves the way for gradual modernisation.

It should be remembered that in such a traditional society human relations are direct and unsophisticated, not so much based upon functions as on an ascribed status. People do not feel the severe social control on their behaviour which is exercised by the state.

Secondly, a stage of development is reached gradually when labour welfare system invades the traditional pattern of life and introduces a more urban way of life in socio-cultural field. Industrial life, under the impact of state controlled and socially owned welfare system, becomes increasingly specialised and divided into functions, with a growing exchange of specialised products and services on the basis of a more impersonal money-economy. Human relations in industry become more functionalised, i.e., they become determined more by functional relations than by personal ties, when status becomes based upon performance. Freedom for the individual worker seems to grow as more vertical and horizontal mobility arises, and thus more possibility exists to escape the control
of the group by switching to another group. Various social patterns of behaviour consequent on sophisticated growth of life, lead to more tighter social control. The opportunity to escape control is, however, a privilege of the more qualified and efficient employees.

Thirdly, labour welfare system may bring about social change by being felt its impact on socio-psychological field in the society. In all human beings the need for security is counterbalanced by the desire for new events and vice versa. In a traditional society, however, for reasons of poverty, lack of communication and knowledge there is little scope for innovation and the experiencing of new events. This makes security a deeply rooted need of the individuals, and it is one of the main features of that type of society. In a more developing situation, part of the traditions and the small social units which grant security disappear, people are confronted with much that is new and are faced with a series of alternatives without having fixed pattern of choice. Employees reach a stage of creative innovation as a result of better security and welfare facilities which may unconsciously drive them to self defence mechanism. Psychological manifestation of this self defence is unpredictable. It may manifest itself in a reluctance and resistance to further social change. It may also go to the other extreme and create revolutionary movements.

It seems then labour welfare system may bring about social change in diverse ways. Difficult as it is to make any value judgement, the welfare system is apt to drive Indian
society either to American pattern or to the Russian pattern depending on the future course of action of government and non-government agencies, especially employers in welfare sector.

In future, there is no escape from modernisation of Indian society and labour welfare will have to play its desired role. But the question is, in which direction the role of labour welfare will be played. Possibly, there might be two ways of development of Indian approach. First, one may assume that course of development may take its own form without being intervened externally. Second, a deliberate policy of force may be adopted to direct the development to its intended goal.

Undoubtedly, a forced policy of certain pattern of development both economically and from administrative standpoint, is most efficient as we witness in communist countries. But this policy of force, after a certain stage of development, produces social apathy for further change, or even resistance to change even if it is necessary and beneficial. For example, people in India may consciously reject forced integration of caste and religion as a general policy of welfare integration system with all its adverse repercussions on labour force. A good welfare policy therefore tries to reach the goal in an indirect way. It may initiate an action, the immediate effect of which is considered to constitute merely an accepted consequence. Or it might assume a policy
of inducing change from outside to the strategic points of a community's life which depends on the correct choice of strategic points. However, one may not venture to give any definite prescription of strategic choice which is a function of circumstances and politics.

The nature and some trends of Social Welfare in India: a reference to labour-oriented social welfare

It would be relevant now to refer to the existing nature and some trends of labour oriented social welfare in India which will confirm our basic hypothesis that social welfare is both the precursor and culmination of labour welfare in the national economy of India, as mentioned before.

A study of available literature on what is understood as social welfare in India reveals that broadly speaking, there are two main types of social welfare activities. First, the pure or homogeneous social welfare, which is commonly known as social welfare proper. Within this category the following lists may be included: (i) Welfare of women and children, (ii) Welfare of the physically and mentally handicapped, (iii) Youth welfare, (iv) Welfare services in slum areas, (v) Social defence programmes, (vi) Welfare of backward classes, (vii) Welfare services for displaced persons.

Secondly, the labour oriented social welfare, the social welfare services which are functionally and directly related to labour welfare. Within this category we shall
include: (i) labour welfare, (ii) social legislation, (iii) Welfare services for Central Govt. Employees.

Logically, our study is concerned with this second category because labour-oriented social welfare comprises the basic characteristics and problems of pure or homogeneous labour welfare. As the canvas and the area of general social welfare is infinitely vast in a poor country like India, it is impossible to deal with them in the single category of labour welfare. For this purpose, we shall refer here only to the nature and some important trends of labour-oriented social welfare which is supposed to be the prospective development of the prevailing labour welfare.

In 1953, the Central Government set up a Central Social Welfare Board, and also most of the State Governments established Social Welfare departments or directorates and Social Welfare Advisory Boards. Alongside this, the government evolved a substantial programme of grants-in-aid to voluntary organisations. At the initial stage of development state aid to voluntary organisations was irregular and unsystematic. But gradually the process of coordination and aid has been regularised and by 1961, for example, more than 6,000 institutions have been brought under regular aid system.

Another noteworthy feature is the planned development of welfare service in rural areas which released a good deal of potential energy and created a feeling of hopeful
participation. In the past, and even at present, the rural social welfare function has been grossly neglected, and active community participation in labour welfare will remain unfulfilled in the absence of comprehensive rural welfare programme. According to the late Prof. Karve, in India, social welfare in the real sense can only come through community development projects.

Our social problems are many and varied. Being an underdeveloped country, India would be able to tackle them all only over a period of time. The gap that exists between actual needs of the country and available resources is very wide, and that makes a system of priorities inevitable. This explains the higher priorities that have been assigned to industry and agriculture in our development plans. If the provision allotted for social services or social welfare in the plans is not as much as one would wish it to be, it is not due to the fact that these services are considered of lesser importance. The country's resources are limited, and great care has to be exercised in the utilisation of these resources for the maximum good of the community.

In the First, Second and the Third Five Year Plans, the provision made for social services was Rs 531 crores (about 14% of the outlay), Rs 850 crores (18% of the outlay) and Rs 1,300 crores (about 19% of the outlay) respectively. Similarly, the provision made for social welfare in the three
Five Year Plans was Rs 5 crores (1% of outlay for social services), Rs 19 crores (2.2%) and Rs 31 crores (2.3%) respectively. This, however, does not include the provision made by the State Governments outside the Plans for development of social welfare activities in their respective regions. The programmes included in social welfare for which specific funds have been allotted in the Plan include schemes for the advancement of women, child welfare, youth welfare, rehabilitation of the handicapped, removal of juvenile delinquency, eradication of beggary and vagrancy, propagation of social and moral hygiene, after-care services, welfare of prisoners, research and surveys, and training of welfare personnel.

The task involved in carrying out all these programmes is stupendous and cannot be completed without the help from voluntary organisation. They have done much valuable and pioneering work in this field, and their closest possible collaboration with Government is absolutely essential. We quote here what the Report on Charitable Trusts published by the British Government in December 1952, says regarding the relation between State and voluntary action in the field of social welfare. "State action and voluntary action" the report points out, "were not the antithesis of each other, rather they sprang from the same roots, were designed to meet the same needs and had the same motivating force behind them. Indeed, historically, the State action is voluntary action crystallized and made universal. An analysis of public welfare
action at any time would reveal mixed motives, some genuinely humanitarian, some inspired by cupidity of self-aggrandizement. But neither in the historical record nor in an examination of their motives would there be discovered the making of a fundamental distinction between State action for public welfare and voluntary action for the same purpose." The Report then goes on to say: "We have endeavoured in this brief historical survey to underline our conviction that the same essential desire to improve the lot of one's fellows lies behind both voluntary and State social action." Lord Beveridge's book on the subject expresses similar ideas, and tells us how co-operation between public and voluntary social welfare organisations has been a feature of British public life.

That the pattern of development in India has been more or less the same - could be seen from the First Plan statement that the voluntary agencies must continue to shoulder the major responsibility for organising social welfare services for some time to come. The Central Social Welfare Board was set up, in August 1953, primarily to co-ordinate welfare activities in the voluntary sector.

The importance of voluntary agencies is fully recognised. They have a considerable background of experience in the organisation and conduct of welfare programmes and can react more quickly to changing social needs than can be expected of
official machinery. Also, they are more capable of bringing to their work the 'human touch' that follows from a less formal but equally effective approach. For this reason, they are at a great advantage in securing popular support for their cause and public participation in their programmes.

Therefore, it is realised, voluntary agencies can no longer be associated on a merely advisory basis but must be accepted as joint partners on an equal footing in the framing and implementation of the national plans for social welfare. While it is neither possible nor desirable to demarcate the respective roles of voluntary organisations and the State in the field of social welfare, particularly as their functions are mutually complementary, yet, broadly the official agencies should be required to deal with problems that exist on a very extensive scale and that require resources beyond the reach of voluntary agencies. The State should also be responsible for sponsoring social legislation and for meeting statutory responsibilities that flow from such legislation. Voluntary agencies should be entrusted with the actual execution of programmes in the field and for securing community support and public participation in these programmes. Voluntary organisations should be provided with special assistance by the State for undertaking welfare services in neglected areas, for conducting experimental pilot projects and for organising research and training programmes. At the same time, the importance of healthy co-operation and co-ordination between the official and
non official organisations and among voluntary agencies themselves, cannot too well be emphasised in the interest of better development of social welfare programmes in the country.

**Importance of Training Schemes:**

When social welfare programmes were first taken up as an integral part of the Five Year Plans, the various State Governments and Union Territories faced a serious paucity of trained personnel to organise and man these services. Trained hands were needed not only for the efficient running of the existing services, but also for their expansion and for the operation of new schemes. To meet this shortage of personnel, particularly in respect of field-level workers, certain Central Ministries such as the Ministry of Food and Agriculture and the Ministry of Community Development, Panchayati Raj and Co-operation have started training programmes of their own. The Central Social Welfare Board, which is exclusively in charge of welfare services for women and children and the handicapped, has experienced a woeful lack of trained personnel for operations in the rural areas. It has therefore taken advantage of the facilities offered by the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial trust for training women village level workers or gram sevikas. A few State Governments also have initiated training programmes of their own. In this field there has been a growing awareness among both governmental and non-governmental agencies of the importance of standardising and grading the training programmes for similar categories of personnel.
Educational Facilities for Children as Elements of Social Welfare

Balwadis formed an important feature in the scheme of Welfare Extension Projects. These provide children with educational care, together with incidental activities like bathing, changing of clothes, provision of indigenous toys and, wherever possible, extra meals. The Central Social Welfare Board also gave grants-in-aid to institutions to help them run Balwadis. Besides, the Ministry of Education offered financial assistance to various State Governments for starting pre-primary schools. About 630 pre-primary schools, serving about 76,000 children, had been started by the end of 1955-56.

Under various legal enactments, the Labour Departments in the States of Andhra, Bombay, Bihar, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh and in Pondicherry provided nursery schools for the children of working mothers.

In the voluntary sector the All-India Women's Conference started Kindergarten schools through its branches in Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Kerala, Delhi, Madhya Bharat, Rajasthan, Madras, Mysore, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. The Indian Council for Child Welfare and Balkan-Jibari, Bombay, also organised educational activities for children through their State Branches. The Guild of Services started organising nursery schools through its branches at Mangalore, Coimbatore, Tiruchirapalli and in North Arcot district.
Guild also conducted nurseries in the Kasturba Hospital at Triplicane, the Stanley Hospital at Royapuram, the General Hospital and the Tuberculosis Sanatorium of Tambaram with trained nursery school teachers.

**Developments During 1956-61:** Pre-primary education received considerable attention during this period. Steps taken at the Central level could be seen from the fact that the Steel Projects of Durgapur, Bhilai and primary schools for children of their employees in the project areas. The Welfare Extension projects sponsored by the Central Social Welfare Board in urban areas organised pre-primary schools. The Ministry of Education also further extended its programme. There are at present about 10,000 Balwadis, of these, about 2,500 are assisted by the Central and State Social Welfare Boards.

In Andhra Pradesh pre-Basic Classes were organised for children between the ages of 3 and 7 years by the Women's Welfare branches. Five Balwadis were established, one each at Rajpur, Bilaspur, Mandla, Burhanpur and Balaghat, in Madhya Pradesh.

Voluntary organisations like the All-India Women's Conference, Balkan-Ji-Bari and the Guild of Service continued organising pre-primary classes through their State branches. The Indian Council for Child Welfare organised nursery schools through the State Councils in Bihar, Pondicherry, Punjab and
Rajasthan. These nursery Schools and Balwadis have benefitted about 1,000 children. In 1957, the Council started a welfare project for Tribal Children at Chhindwara, Madhya Pradesh. For the benefit of children who have completed the Balwadi training, special arrangements have been made in co-operation with the Department of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, and the Block Development Administration to impart improved training in Basic schools. Annual training camps are also held for Balwadi teachers.

During the Third Plan, the existing Balwadis were to be improved and provided with trained child welfare workers (Bal Sevikas). The Third Plan provided for the setting up of six training centres for Bal Sevikas. Under "Education" Sector 8 3 crores have been allotted for child welfare and allied schemes at the Centre and about Rs.1 crore in the States, in addition to resources available under the Community Development and social Welfare programmes. Schemes for child welfare now being formulated by the Ministry of Education include improvement of existing Balwadis, opening of new Balwadis, expansion of the training programme for Bal Sevikas and a number of pilot projects for child welfare in which education, health and welfare services will be integrated. The setting up of Balwadis will continue to be an important part of the programmes undertaken for women and children in Community Development blocks and in Welfare Extension Projects.
The organisation of creches is an important service that has made considerable headway in the country. In large factories in major cities, efficiently run creches have been organised for children of working mothers. The Factories Act of 1948 made the provision of creches obligatory on factories employing 250 or more women. A number of creches have been set up in various industrial concerns under this Act. Besides these, the Central Social Welfare Board have started its own creches in rural areas. Some of the voluntary organisations like the Bhagini Samaj, Bombay, the Guild of Service and the All-India Women’s Conference, etc. have set up creches where children are also provided with recreational and nutritional services.

Between 1956 and 1961, the Indian Council for Child Welfare started nine creches in Punjab and one in Uttar Pradesh through its State Councils. These creches benefit about 500 children. The All-India Women’s Conference, through its branches, started creches in Central Calcutta, Cochin and Gwalior and other places. The National Council of Women in India has set up a Day Care Centre in Bombay.

Recreational Activities:

Developments During 1951-56: Recreational activities mentioned in this section relate to other services than those which are ordinarily provided under normal educational and
municipal schemes for children. From 1952 onwards the then Community Projects Administration started conducting recreational and cultural activities for children in the Community Development Blocks.

The Central Social Welfare Board started organising recreational and cultural activities for children in rural areas through the Welfare Extension Projects. In addition, it made grants-in-aid to voluntary organisations for promoting these activities in both rural and urban areas.

During the period, the Government of Assam provided grants for the promotion of games, cultural activities, excursions etc., to voluntary organisations. The Education Department of Punjab also organised recreational and cultural programmes for children. The Government of Bombay started a Bal Bhavan in Bombay, which provided a children's club, a children's library, film shows and a theatre for children, child art and craft centres and playgrounds. The Government of West Bengal started a Children's Home which provided recreational services for children. The Government of Madhya Pradesh started two Child Welfare Centres in Hoshangabad district which provided a playground for children. The Jammu and Kashmir Government started a recreational centre in Poonch district.

In 1954, the Indian Council for Child Welfare established a Children's Bureau in Delhi to deal with the technical aspects of child welfare. The Bureau started publishing a
monthly newsletter also. A research library and information exchange service was attached to the Bureau. It started celebrating Children's Day (on November 14 every year) and World's Children's Day.

Developments During 1956-61: During the Second Plan period, the Central Social Welfare Board sponsored the scheme of Holiday Homes for children. These homes are intended for children in the age-group of 8 to 10 years belonging to families with an annual income of less than Rs 2,400. These provide children with opportunities of enjoying healthy surroundings, nutritious food and recreation for a part of the year and also enable them to acquire experience in group living. In urban areas, children utilising these facilities generally come from orphanages and other children's homes as well as from families who cannot afford to send their children out during vacations. In rural areas, children are selected by social education organisers and Mukhya Sevikas from areas covered by Community Projects and Welfare Extension Projects of the Central Social Welfare Board.

Up to February 1961, the Central Social Welfare Board had sanctioned a sum of Rs 2,16,400 to 42 institutions which organised 80 batches consisting of 3,862 children. On an average, each Home provides accommodation for two or three batches of children, each batch consisting of about 50 children and one or two teacher-leaders. The duration of stay at each place is limited to one month.

In addition, the Board made provision for children's
play centres, recreational and cultural activities under Welfare Extension Projects, both urban and rural. The Ministry of Community Development conducted similar programmes in C.D. Blocks. Voluntary organisations providing recreational services for children have been given financial assistance by the Board.

The Ministry of Railways, too, has started Children's Holiday camps at various places for the benefit of the children of railway employees. Expenditure at these camps is kept to the minimum, and a part of it is collected from the children, the balance being met out of the Staff benefit Fund.

Recreational and cultural facilities are also provided for children of employees in the steel projects of Durgapur, Bhilai and Rourkela. The company-managed Government undertaking like the Hindusthan Machine Tools Ltd. and the Tea Board under the Ministry of Commerce and Industries provide similar recreational facilities.

Services for the Aged and Infirm:

With the disintegration of the joint family system and the urbanisation of the Indian Family, some problems which had been previously taken care of by the family are now being neglected. One such problem relates to the care of the aged and infirm. In a majority of the cases, they have been left unprotected and uncared for. They also cannot maintain themselves due to inadequate or no means of income. It is,
therefore, necessary that the community should take upon to provide for those who have been thrown out of the care of the joint family lest they may become a drain on society and may not join the ranks of the destitutes, the beggars and other vagrants on the streets. The Government and voluntary organisations should work in effective partnership and provide various securities and welfare amenities for persons falling under this group.

Position Before 1950-51: During this period, no welfare services were provided for the aged and infirm at either the Central or State level. It was only in the voluntary sector that some effort was made to provide relief to this category of people. The Friend in Need Society of Bangalore, started in 1840, was the first organisation to devote itself to the care of the aged and the destitute. The David Sassoon Infirm Asylum at Poona, started in 1865, was the next organisation to enter the field. It provided food, shelter and clothing to the aged and infirm. In 1882, Little Sisters of the Poor, Calcutta, came into existence. It started a home which provided shelter, clothing and medical aid for old people. It set up homes at Madras, Bangalore and Secunderabad also to give relief to poor old people. This was followed by Ashaklaram, Surat, in Gujarat (1912), Queen Mary’s Technical School for Disabled Indian Soldiers, Poona, in Maharashtra (1917), King George V Memorial Home Society, also in Maharashtra (1937), Grant Govan Memorial Home Society in Delhi (1940), Sewa Sadan at Lucknow in U.P. (1940) and Shremanta Sankar Mission in Assam (1950).
By 1950-51, there were about nine organisations engaged in looking after the welfare of the aged. Among the services rendered by these organisations were the running of homes, industrial training and recreational and medical facilities.

Development During 1951-56: Little information is available regarding programmes sponsored by the Central and State Governments. In the voluntary sector, a fillip was given to welfare activities for the aged and the infirm by Group Captain Leonard Cheshire, who founded a Cheshire Home in Bombay during this period. This Home provided shelter for incurables, crippled men and women, weak, frail, elderly individuals and the bed-ridden. Later on, such Homes were started at Jamshedpur, Serampore and Kalpadi.

Development During 1956-61: No steps seem to have taken during this period at the Central level for providing any services for the aged and the infirm.

Among the states, Uttar Pradesh was the first to initiate an Old age Pension Scheme. Under this scheme, which came into force on December 1, 1957, all destitute persons of 70 years of age and above who could claim domicile or residence of more than one year in the state on the date of application were entitled to old age pension. The pensions were of two kinds: (i) life pension and (ii) "limited term pensions", which terminate after a fixed period, that is, on a relative
of the pensioner attaining the age of twenty years. The
Government of Kerala was the second State to introduce the
pension scheme. Both Uttar Pradesh and Kerala have made desti-
tution a necessary condition for the award of pension. The
Tripura Administration has established an infirmary.

The needs of the aged and the infirm continued to be
catered for mainly at voluntary agencies in the country. The
existing organisations expanded their programmes and four more
Cheshire Homes were started at Delhi, Dehra Dun, Calcutta, and
Poona during the Second Plan period.

A few local bodies also started welfare schemes of
their own. The Corporation of Madras maintains a special
home for infirm and disabled persons, where about 300 persons
are fed and clothed and given free medical treatment. The
Municipality of Madurai maintains a Poor Home where the aged
and infirm are lodged, fed and looked after. The Secunderabad
Municipal Corporation extends grants to a Home for the aged
and the infirm.

The process of rapid industrialisation and urbani-
sation and the consequent disruption of the joint family
system, under which the aged and the infirm were taken care
of, has highlighted the need for providing for the care and
the maintenance of the aged and the infirm. The Governments
of Andhra Pradesh and Madras have recently introduced old age
pension schemes in their respective States. The Governments
of Punjab and Uttar Pradesh propose to start two Homes each and the Government of Rajasthan will start one Home during the Third Plan period. The Government of Maharashtra propose to provide welfare services for the aged and the infirm.

**Assessment of Existing Labour Welfare Amenities and Some Specific Suggestions for Filling Up Welfare Gaps**

The Committee on Labour Welfare pointed out that the statutory welfare amenities have not been properly and adequately provided, except in units managed by progressive employers or in the modern units where the technology of production requires maintenance of adequate welfare standards. In several cases, particularly in medium and small sized units, the standards are distinctly poor. Arrangements for drinking water and first-aid boxes and upkeep and maintenance of conservancy services are not satisfactory in these units.

Workers' organisations have been invariably critical of the situations in which the legislation has been implemented by employers and supervised by the inspectorate. In many cases, though the letter of the law may have been observed, the spirit behind it is completely missing.

Employers have not seriously challenged this contention, but have argued that these amenities (i) have caused a heavy financial burden on the industry and (ii) where provided, have either remained unutilised or are improperly utilised by the
workers. However in this context the Committee on Labour welfare said that "of the latter, there is some evidence but the former can not be an argument to deny facilities which are absolutely necessary to meet the minimum human needs in the current social milieu." Thus, there is need to extend the coverage of statutory welfare amenities, but this should be done only after proper administrative arrangements can be made to ensure implementation. It should, however be noted that what has been said above, is mainly with regard to factories, mines and plantations. It is on the basis of the findings of Labour Welfare Committee.

In respect of ports and docks, one Committee appointed by the Government of India in 1964 came to the conclusion that facilities available to the workers were inadequate and even those limited facilities were not maintained properly nor were they used by the workers with the needed care.

By and large, the attitude of the managements was helpful and they made genuine efforts to provide the Welfare amenities as required under the Rules. During the year 1967, 417 mines were required to appoint Welfare Officers and 32 to appoint additional Welfare Officers under the Mines Rules. Against this requirement, 396 Welfare Officers and 32 Additional Welfare Officers were appointed. The position regarding some other welfare amenities obligatory under the Mines Rules is given in the following table A.
### Table - A  
**Welfare Amenities in Mines** *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Mines Required to Actually provide</th>
<th>provided</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First-aid Stations</td>
<td>3,985</td>
<td>2,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-aid rooms</td>
<td>916</td>
<td>579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canteens</td>
<td>614</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creches**</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest Shelters</td>
<td>1,776</td>
<td>1,479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking Water</td>
<td>4,370</td>
<td>3,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latrines</td>
<td>4,629</td>
<td>3,066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source - Director General Mines Safety, Dhanbad.

**Figures relate to non-coal mines only.

To have a proper assessment of the implementation of statutory welfare provisions in factories, the Committee on Labour Welfare requested the State Governments to conduct special studies on a separate basis.

An idea of the working of the existing welfare facilities in different industries is given in tables I - XI.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sa. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments</th>
<th>Percentage of creches deficient in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employing women</td>
<td>Under statutory obligation</td>
<td>Employing women and not under statutory obligation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To provide creche</td>
<td>providing creche</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Coal Mines</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>82.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tea Plantations</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>91.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Percentages in col. 4 relate to factories in col. 3 and those in col. 5 relate to factories in col. 4.

* Only one of the factories surveyed in South India employed more than 50 women workers and that too did not provide a creche.

** No unit was under statutory obligation.

*** Negligible
### Table - II

Canteens

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Percentage of establishments employing more than 250 workers</th>
<th>Percentage of establishments employing more than 250 workers and having canteens</th>
<th>Percentage of establishments employing 250 or less workers but having canteens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Coal Mines</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tea Plantations*</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figures in Cols 3 and 4 relate to estates employing 150 or more workers; in Col.5 to estates employing less than 150 workers*

** Negligible.

NA- Not available.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated Percentage of Canteens which were run by</th>
<th>Percentage of establishments where article sold at</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jointly Workers</td>
<td>By workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Manage-</td>
<td>Con-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cement**</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 11.9% of canteens were run by private individuals
** Data relate to large units
*** Run by Workers' Union
++ Articles sold either at subsidised rates or on a 'no-profit no loss' basis.
+ Prices were fixed by canteen managing committees.
### Table - IV

**Drinking Water Facilities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated Percentage of establishments where drinking water arrangements existed</th>
<th>Estimated Percentage of establishments where water supply arrangement was</th>
<th>Estimated Percentage of establishments making arrangements for cool water in summer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Press</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Coal mines</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tea Plantations*</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The arrangement was to supply liquid tea in place of water and through Paniwales (Others).

+ All large factories which had special arrangements for summer months were providing refrigerated water or were keeping coolers or other such devices.
### Table - V

**Conservancy Arrangements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Providing latrines and having separate arrangements for them</th>
<th>Where latrines were</th>
<th>Providing latrines were water borne type, types</th>
<th>Providing latrines were tap water properly screened</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Providing</td>
<td>Employing women</td>
<td>Latri- Urinals</td>
<td>Latri- Urinals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles (1960-61)</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Press (1965-66)</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass (1965-66)</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar (1962)</td>
<td>92.0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning &amp; Leather Finishing (1965-66)</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tea Plantations (1961-62)</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>89.6**</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cement (1961-62)</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Figures within brackets in col.2 indicate the period to which the data given in this as well as the subsequent tables relate.

* Percentage relates to mines employing women and providing latrines/urinals

** Among the units providing urinals, none had any women worker on roll.

*** Mostly screened.
### Table - VI

**Washing Facilities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments providing washing facilities</th>
<th>Percentage distribution of establishments providing facilities according to type of facility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Water stored in receptacles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>86.0</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tea Plantations</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Relate to such arrangements as tubewells etc.

** In all the estates, taps on stand-pipes were provided.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments providing bath-rooms*</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments providing bath-rooms*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Only for men</td>
<td>Only for women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>95.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Com. Mines</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>75.0****</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Percentage relates to col. 3

** Of the sample factories providing bathing facilities, only one employed women workers and it had no separate arrangements for them.

*** Of the factories employing women and providing bathing facilities, only about 33% had provided separate bath-rooms for women workers.

**** Information relates to large units only. In all the small units providing bath-rooms (25%), they were for men only.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments having washing facilities and supplying cleansing materials*</th>
<th>Estimated percentage of establishments employing women</th>
<th>Employing women and providing separate washing facilities for them</th>
<th>Where separate facilities provided for women were not properly screened**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Percentage relates to the total number of factories in the country.

** The percentage relates to factories in col. (5)

*** Among the factories providing washing facilities and employing women workers, separate arrangements for such workers, duly screened, existed in only one factory surveyed in Southern India.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rest Shelters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employing over 150 workers and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>having rest shelters and not having canteens</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Rest Shelters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Printing Presses</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Glass</td>
<td>11.0*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sugar</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Turning and Lea- ther Finishing</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Coal Mines</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Cement</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of factories required to provide rest shelters as they employed more than 150 workers and had no canteens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>* None of the factories was under statutory obligation since they were running canteens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>** Negligible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA - Not available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table - X

State for workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Percentage of Factories Providing seats.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Printing Presses</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table - XI

Estimated Percentage of Factories Employing Labour or Welfare Officers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Percentage of factories employing 500 or more workers</th>
<th>Percentage of factories employing 500 or more workers and having Welfare Officer*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cotton Textiles</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tanning and Leather Finishing</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Coal Mines</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>87.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tea Plantations</td>
<td>72.4**</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Cement</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Percentage of factories in col.(4) relate to col.(3)
** Percentage of estates employing 300 or more workers.
These studies revealed that position in factories seems to be varied. But, generally where there is a statutory obligation, the employers are reported to provide only the minimum facilities, the quality of which is uniformly poor except in the case of the more enlightened managements.

With regard to, sanitation, washing facilities, first-aid appliances, ambulance rooms, drinking water, canteens, shelters, rest rooms and creches, the National Commission on Labour said that, "our general impression is that the compliance with the statutory welfare provisions is half-hearted and inadequate." It is thus obvious that the arrangement in respect of the above said facilities are not adequate. Moreover managements are reluctant to invest funds in the construction of standard type creches, urinals and urinals have been provided, but are not maintained well.

However, it may be observed that in some of the new factories, the standards were as good as could be expected. The observance of the spirit of the law was very much there. This does not mean that conditions in respect of welfare facilities are satisfactory. There are some centres where to secure drinking water for workers, a threat of direct action was required to bring the employer round. This shows the attitude among some older employer, is still one of indifference towards workers' wants in general.

It has also been that workers are misusing facilities provided to them. According to a report prepared by the
Directorate-General of Factory Advice Service and Labour Institutes it has been pointed out that missing tape, missing lights and misuse of furniture are some of the difficulties mentioned by the management.

To quote international experience in the area of welfare is only to indicate how far we have yet to go to reach the desired standards. In advance countries, many facilities which we seek to provide under the statutory compulsion are taken for granted as part of every day life. Moreover, workers organisations do not have to seek such facilities nor does the employer wait for a demand from them for that matter state intervention. For instance, in several countries, with their current level of affluence, transport presents no problem. But where it is, many units do provide transport facilities to workers engaged by them. About rest rooms, drinking water, etc. no legislation has been necessary anywhere.

Now some specific suggestions for filling up welfare gap may be elaborated on the basis of the recommendation of the National Commission.

(1) **Creches**

(a) The standard of creches in a majority of factories and mines needs to be improved. (b) The limit of 50 women workers, which makes the provision of creche obligatory in factories and plantations, should be brought down in accordance with a definite welfare policy. The limit should be prescribed...
taking into account local consideration or on the basis of 20 eligible children of working mothers who are to avail of this facility. Children of women workers employed by contractors should also be covered by this facility.

(2) **Canteens**

(a) Even after years of development, canteen and rest shelters have not received adequate attention from management. (b) The present employment limit for making the employer set up a canteen compulsorily should be brought down to 200 in units where there is an established demand for a canteen from a majority of workers. (c) It should be automatically obligatory on the employer to provide a canteen whenever the employment exceeds the prescribed limit. (d) The need for notifying the establishment should be done away with. (e) Establishments which operate over a wide area should consider the running of a mobile canteen. (f) Canteens should provide at least one balanced meal a day. (g) Workers should preferably run the canteens themselves on a cooperative basis. In any case, they should be associated with canteen management. (h) Wherever canteens are run on a cooperative basis, employers should give subsidies in the shape of free accommodation, fuel and light, utensils and furniture. Habitual non-compliance with statutory provisions regarding sanitation, first-aid boxes, washing and bathing facilities, facilities for storing and drying clothes, rest shelters, drinking water and seating facilities should attract penalties.
(3) **Factories**

(a) Effective steps should be taken for periodical medical examinations of factory workers so that timely diagnosis and treatment of occupational diseases will be possible. This should be a charge on the employer. In respect of non-occupational diseases, medical examination and treatment should be the responsibility of the Employer's State Insurance Corporation. (b) Standards of schooling facilities available in the welfare centres run by Government should be improved and new schools set up. Employers should provide scholarships to deserving children of the workers.

(4) **Mines**

(a) A General Miners Welfare Fund should be created to undertake welfare activities in medical, educational and recreational fields in respect of workers in all mines. (b) Finances for the Fund should be arranged by the levy of a cess based on the prices which the minerals fetch. (c) What has been said in (a) above should not delay the setting up of welfare funds for certain minerals, the proposals for which are under examination of Government. (d) Periodic medical check-up of coal miners should be a part of the activity of the coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund. Funds should be allotted more liberally for acquiring essential apparatus for detecting and curing diseases. (e) There should be no discrimination in welfare facilities between persons recruited through the Gorakhpur Labour Organisation and those selected locally. Also, workers recruited through the G.L.O. should have all the privi-
-leges which workers selected thro· other agencies have.

(5) **Plantations**

(a) The Plantations Labour Act, 1951 should be extended in a phased manner to cover as many plantations as possible, (b) Disparities of welfare within the same region, in the standard of medical facilities to plantation workers should be removed. (c) Even where detailed rules under the Plantations Labour Act, 1951 have not been laid down, non-observance of the rules should be a matter of complaint. (d) To ensure that hospitals in plantation areas are properly equipped and disparities in standards of medical facilities are reduced, the State Governments should prescribe a list of drugs, medicines and equipment for the hospitals. (e) Suitable arrangements need be made for detection and treatment of occupational diseases among plantation workers. (f) Priority should also be given to family planning programmes. (g) State Governments should ensure that facilities for education of children of plantation workers are provided by the employers.

(6) **Ports and Docks**

(a) Welfare facilities provided under the Dock Workers' (Safety, Health and Welfare) Scheme, 1961 should be strictly enforced by the Port Authorities and the Dock Labour Boards. (b) Welfare activities undertaken by the Port Trust Employees' Welfare Fund should also be extended to cover casual and contract workers. (c) Sufficient financial powers should
be delegated to the management of canteens in Ports and Docks to ensure their smooth running. (d) Canteen facilities should be provided by the Port Authorities and Dock Labour Boards to night shift workers and workers who have to perform duties mix-stream. (e) Launches should be provided to port workers who are required to work mix-stream. (f) Port authorities and Dock Labour Boards should either open schools or arrange adequate transport for workers' children where schooling is not available within a convenient distance of the housing colony.

(7) **Road Transport**

Government should persuade employers to provide jointly basic amenities to transport workers, such as canteens, and rest shelters, at places where their headquarters are located.

(8) **Adult Education.**

Special efforts are required to be taken by the State to remove illiteracy among workers in plantations and mines.

(9) **Family Planning**

(a) While many employers voluntarily provide additional incentives to workers to promote family planning, there is need for other employers to follow this example. (b) Financial assistance provided under the schemes for promoting family planning should become available to hospitals run by the
employers. (c) Employers' and workers' organisations doing family planning work should be eligible to receive direct assistance from the Government in the same manner as other voluntary organisations.

(10) Co-operatives Stores/Credit Societies

(a) Government should start fair price shops. Getting up of co-operative shops should be encouraged. Accommodation should be given by the employer. (b) In the initial stages, employers should give financial assistance to co-operative credit societies.

(11) Labour Welfare Boards

(a) Constitution of tripartite and autonomous Statutory Labour Welfare Board, as in some States, has resulted in efficient management of welfare centres and in workers taking adequate interest in the activities of such centres. Similar Boards should be set up elsewhere. (b) Trade Unions doing approved welfare work should be given subsidies by the Board.

(12) Transport to and from the Place of Work

(a) The State and the local bodies should improve the local transport services to enable the worker to reach his place of work in time. (b) Special transport services should be arranged for the convenience of night shift workers. (c) Working hours in different units situated in major industrial centres like Bombay and Calcutta should be suitably staggered
to enable the State or the local body to provide transport services.

(13) Housing

(a) Provision of Land - The State Governments and local authorities should undertake the responsibility for speedy development of land for housing and make it available in a large measure to approved construction agencies at economic cost. Effective co-ordination to control all land development, town planning and housing building activities at the State level is necessary.

(b) Housing Boards - (i) Housing Boards should be set up in States where they do not exist. The Central Government should continue to finance these Boards as at present, but on a much larger scale. (ii) A Central Housing Board should also be set up to co-ordinate the activities of the State Boards. (iii) All these Boards should be broad-based in their composition. They should represent a cross-section of the community, including labour, (iv) Housing Boards should continue charging the rent at the present scale i.e., about 7½ per cent of the cost but minus the subsidy. (v) The tenants in the tenements constructed by the Boards should be encouraged to buy over houses on hire-purchase system so that capital is recouped and becomes available for new construction.

(c) Housing Co-operatives - The State should encourage
the development of Co-operative Housing Societies among industrial workers. Both Government and the employers should advance loans to the co-operative societies or their members at concessional rate of interest.

(d) **Urban Housing** - (i) The existing subsidised Industrial Housing Schemes should continue, though its progress in the last fifteen years has not been satisfactory. (ii) Adequate fiscal and monetary incentives should be provided to employers to encourage them to build houses for their employees. (iii) Incentives for workers' housing by employers should be so designed as to keep rents within a range of 10 per cent of the workers' earnings. (iv) There should be no extension of the area of legal compulsion on employers in the matters of housing beyond what exists today. However, where legal compulsion already exists, as the mining industry in Bihar and Orissa, similar compulsion should be extended to the same industry in other States also.

(e) **Housing in Plantations** : The Plantations Labour Act 1951 should be amended suitably so as to provide houses for such plantation workers who do not reside within 5 kilometres from the periphery of the estate but who wish to be accommodated on the estate.

(f) **Rural Housing** - The existing housing schemes for backward and depressed classes, whether in rural or urban areas should continue and should be implemented expeditiously.
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(14) **Social Security**

(1) **Workmen's Compensation**

(a) All workmen, including supervisors employed in the occupations covered under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, should be eligible for compensation for work injury. Wage limit for eligibility should be removed.

(b) A scheme of Central Fund for Workmen's Compensation should be evolved. All employers who are subject to the Workmen's Compensation Act should pay to this fund a percentage of total wage as monthly contributions to cover the cost of the benefit and of administration. The fund should be controlled by the Employees' State Insurance Corporation. Periodic cash payments may be made to injured workers and their dependents by the Corporation through its local offices in the same way as payments are made at present for various benefits under the ESI Scheme. Medical care to injured workers should be provided by the Corporation. A similar arrangement in respect of mines may be made by the Welfare Commissioners who control various welfare funds for coal, mica and iron ore mines.

(c) Under the present conditions, while an able-bodied worker can claim and obtain retrenchment compensation for being surplus, an injured or disabled workman is thrown out without adequate payment because accident or disease has incapacitated him. This legal anomaly requires to be removed.

(d) A worker should be entitled to higher compensation for disablement resulting from industrial accidents.
It should be in the form of subsistence allowance in cases where the worker remains unemployed because of the disablement.

(2) **Maternity Benefit**

A scheme of Central Fund may be evolved for maternity benefit on the lines suggested for workmen’s compensation. Pending the creation of this Fund, the Maternity Benefit Act 1961 should be adopted in all States as early as possible.

(3) **Employee’s State Insurance Scheme**

(a) The recommendations made by the ESIC Review Committee should be implemented expeditiously.

(b) Full-fledged medical colleges should be started at places where there are large and well equipped ESI hospitals, either directly by the ESI Corporation or by the State with the help from the Corporation. In case, the Corporation contributes financially to the medical training, the trainees should be under an obligation to serve the ESI Scheme for a specified period which should not be less than 5 years after achieving full qualifications. The ESI hospitals should also be utilised for the training of nurses and other para-medical staff.

(c) Surplus beds, if any, in ESI hospitals may be made available for the use of the general public, on payment by the State Government.
(d) The wage limit for exemption from payment of employees' contribution should be raised to Rs 4 per day.

(e) The ESI Corporation should make a suitable contribution to the National Safety Council as part of its programme of integrated preventive and curative services.

(4) Provident Funds

(a) The Act at present does not apply to establishments employing between 10-20 persons. It should be extended to these establishments and the minimum rate of contribution therein fixed at 6½ per cent.

(b) Wherever the present rate of contribution is 6½ per cent, it should be raised to 8 per cent; and where the existing rate of contribution is 8 per cent, it should be raised to 10 per cent.

(c) Conversion of a part of provident fund into retirement-cum-family pension is desirable. In cases where the rate of contribution is raised to 10 per cent from employers and employees, a portion of the contribution should be converted into pension. Pensionary benefits should be worked out on the basis of 4 per cent to start with; the remaining 6 per cent should be paid back as provident fund accumulations.

(d) The provident fund accumulations should be invested in securities yielding higher interest as far as possible consistent with the security and safety of funds, to enable the members to get a higher rate of interest.
(5) **Lay-off and Retrenchment Compensation**

A long-term solution for the contingency of unemployment lies in adopting a scheme of unemployment insurance for all employed persons. The present provisions for retrenchment and lay-off compensation should continue during the transition period.

(6) **The Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1948**

A comprehensive statute should be enacted bringing together the various provisions of the Indian Dock Labourers Regulation, 1948 and the Dock Workers (Safety, Health and Welfare) Scheme, 1961 for safety, health and welfare of dock workers. The definition of 'dock worker' in Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1948 should be amended with a view to making it more explicit and comprehensive.

**Integrated Social Security**

The aim should be to work gradually towards a comprehensive social security plan by pooling all the social security collections into a single fund from which different agencies can draw upon for disbursing benefits according to needs. It should be possible over the next few years to evolve an integrated social security scheme which will, with some marginal addition to the current rate of contribution, take care of certain risks not covered at present. This will be limited to the benefits of (i) provident fund and retirement/family pension, and (ii) unemployment insurance.
Concluding observations:

In Indian society, as exists to-day, the concept of labour welfare is found at its ephemeral stage nor properly understood either by workers themselves or by employers. The preceding chapters, each in its own way, have revealed the prevailing notions and ideas of labour welfare in India context. But the difficulty and the tragedy of such findings is that a coherent idea of various revelations is not designed nor intended to convey to the vast millions of destitutes of working class who thrive in indescribable squalor and misery. More distressing is this wanton display of misery when one considers unwanted and unnecessary spending for managerial fringe benefits by employers which result in luxury and unproductive expenditure. Juxtaposed with this realistic situation, one may also visualise a certain reluctance on the part of employers and trade unions to consider welfare sector as investment sector. All this is too well-known in India.

In this regard, our case-studies have sought to cast new light on the entire concept of labour welfare and its manifestation in developing economy of India. As concluding observations, it is not necessary to repeat these specific findings. It is, therefore, appropriate to make certain general observations on the approach to labour welfare and the relative neglect of psychosocial aspect of welfare in India.

From the viewpoint of management it is often argued
that management has not much stake in welfare sector as it is a heavily state-subsidised and state control sector. If any stake there is, it is that of Government. Rightly or wrongly such an idea has tended to develop an apathetic approach to welfare problem which in its trail has led to productivity stagnation. As we have seen, much of the welfare concept is psychic in character which is little understood in our country. It is indirectly but functionally related to motivation, morale and productivity. Apart from government and employers, the social services initiated by voluntary organisations have crucial role to play, which is unfortunately and sadly neglected in our country. The social services may even be provided by government through autonomous bodies governed by social workers. Labour welfare system in India is commonly believed in terms of economic significance. But, more comprehensively, it is psycho-social in content in so far its impact on society is concerned. To make labour welfare a really profitable investment proposition, it is necessary to make it a socially acceptable sector from the standpoint of employee.

For this purpose, a new approach to labour welfare is urgently called for. The whole concept of provider of welfare is to be changed. The emphasis on welfare 'benefit' hitherto made is to be supplemented more increasingly with emphasis on welfare 'service'. This approach shifts the importance of welfare from 'system' or 'organisation' to the 'community' or the 'people' where involvement of social workers in the existing pattern of organisation is ensured. It should
be noted that those who receive the service also help to shape its development. But those providing the service can not shape its development unless they are adequately qualified and trained and rooted in society's cultural background. The extent to which a service is attuned to meet the most urgent needs in the most appropriate ways depends heavily on the capacity of those providing it to sense and apprise the wants of others, to foresee changes in these wants brought about by economic and social development, and to alert a wider public to these changes. In India, it is precisely here that the government machinery, its bureaucracy and welfare officers in private sector have failed. From the Community's point of view this is potentially a weak link in the system, that is, welfare benefits may be 'efficient' without being effectively attuned to the needs of the times.

On this score there is hardly any social policy in welfare sector. Nor is there any social science research worth the name which is related to the sector. The development of welfare services, as part of social services involving the community, does not proceed as a continuous equilibrium-seeking response to marginal changes in external impersonal forces as the economic theory of firm envisages or demonstrates. It is begun and driven forward by people, within the groups providing the service. Its progress is partly self-sustaining, growth promoting - and it is not uniform and continuous, but passes, like a drama, through succeeding acts of uncertain duration and differing character.
system is to be brought down from the arena of power conflict to the plane of community where social services and social workers can constitute the main purveyor of welfare services and benefits.

Closely related to the need for specific identification of welfare objectives, the significance of evolving a social policy and establishing an effective social administration is to be reckoned as a matter great practical importance.

Rapid advancement of society, economic and technological growth have been the outcome of industrialization. With this process of change, in future, two important developments will overtake the present industrial society in country like India. First, more and more ordinary labourers will join the rank of skilled technicians, and technicians will join the rank of professionals. This change is likely to lead to much erosion of the concept of labour productivity and labour welfare which may be replaced by more pervasive concept of social productivity and social welfare. This process is likely to hold the society or the community responsible for the welfare of the employees. Second, the survival of the family as a social unit will become more dependent on the labour power, health and the strength of the main bread-winner, i.e., husband or father.

In view of the dynamic character of modern industrial society, the possible consequence of this development may be
increasing insecurity in work-life in which the worker as an individual will lose much of his own economic power and stability both at home and in factory. This may manifest itself in the conflict of duality of Character - a good worker in factory and a good father at home - a demand which he must meet both ways and often he is unable to do so.

Unfortunately, almost all the known motivation studies of job behaviour undertaken by managements take into consideration the realities of work life inside factory ignoring the realities outside. A man as an individual earns money and, more so, enjoys prestigious welfare services or benefits not for the sake of money only; other non-monetary factors also count much. Various motivation studies suggest various goals, and as society advances, these goals will keep on moving, coming into conflict with the other. In future, workers' life outside the factory is likely to become a matter of increasing concern for the society and for which the present industrial organisation falls far short of providing those conditions in which this need may be satisfied. One important step to deal with this situation is to link welfare services outside factory with workers' job performance inside factory. Also, to effect higher motivation increasing welfare services may be linked up with job performance as a reward, instead of pay.

Perspectively viewed, hundred years hence in India, as has happened already in advanced countries, the rapidity of social change in society may put the family on the defensive.
While its responsibilities have grown, it has been placed in more situations of divided loyalties and conflicting values, it has been forced to choose between kinship and economic progress and it has been constantly subjected to the gales of creative instability. It is, therefore, in this context that we need to see the social services in a variety of stabilizing, preventive and protective roles. To reformulate the philosophy of social policy and to rescue it from its present inhibitions derived from a 'welfare state' ideology, is one of the major tasks of the second half of the twentieth century.

A lurking danger of future pattern of social services is that, as professionalism develops, a handful of highly paid professionals will be entitled to enormous social benefits on the basis of their salary last drawn, thus depriving vast multitude of non-professional classes of adequate social services because of paucity of funds. Undoubtedly, these type of welfare commitments are likely to create a privileged class which is the very negation of welfare state. This is a remarkable instance of social change outpacing the capacity of institutions to change.

The dwindling size of family, falling birthrate and deathrate due to better standard of living now tend to result in more old people being dependent on fewer grown-up children. Thus, the distribution of social and economic rewards is tending to get out of balance with the changed pattern of needs and dependencies. Despite all the social benefits of
future well-developed welfare system, the general effect in most economic groups may be that a higher proportion of the national income has the possibility of being received by those without dependent children.

All these and other types of likely changes in the structure and composition of the working and dependent population raise new problems in economic behaviour, in social organization and in human relationships. All these subtle psychological preoccupations can lead to situations of conflict and stress.

All these problems of society in their diverse intensity and acuteness are of practical concern to social administration, which cannot hope to understand the working of social institutions and services without understanding the needs which arise from changing ways of living. The prospect of labour welfare in developing economy of India therefore lies in postulation and visualization of social welfare in the perspective of social changes characteristic of an industrialized society.