

NEWS AND NOTES

HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY

Ladies and gentlemen, the previous speaker has covered a very wide field. Properly speaking, Human Relations in Industry are an application of human relations' principles in any industrial set-up or pattern. The subject of industrial relations being wider, is not synonymous with human relations in industry which is concerned with relations within a specific organisation. It is true that industrial relations happen within, and extend beyond the border of the factory. In that regard, human relations in industry also can be looked into as industrial relations in their wider applications and practices; but so far as the problem of human relations within industry is concerned, I believe, it is only a problem of personnel management. How to manage men properly and humanly? How to coordinate their relations and activities so that a satisfactory functioning of the industrial institution can be achieved alongside with the personality development of workers?—This is the specific issue and field of human relations in industry.

Once upon a time, industries were organised into small units. Mr. Mehta has well pointed out how in cottage industries of earlier times, there were personal relations established between the management and the workers. But with the emergence of industrialization, such relations disappeared. We may say that today human relations in industry are impersonalized and dehumanized. Industrialization has gone on alongside with impersonalization and dehu-

manization. Man is now generally considered as a "worker". The worker is seldom considered a man. The emphasis is on how much we can get out of him not on what he needs physically, psychologically, morally, socially and so on. This has led to a very unsatisfactory and most unfortunate situation in the industrial world. But thanks to development in Sociology, Psychology, Politics and other social sciences, our view of man and his needs are changing. The status of the worker is undergoing a perceptible transformation for the better. But still, managerial groups in India are annoyingly slow in recognizing this change and according this new status to their workers. The entire attitude of the management has to be changed. If industries have to thrive, human relations in industry have to be properly established.

I know a very big manager who was very strict. I do not want to name him. He is a very influential businessman and known to everybody in the industrial field. This big and rich man made it a point to go round his factories every day and visit every department, and whomsoever he met he used to say: "Look here, you are not doing what is assigned to you. If you continue doing this, you will be dismissed." Evidently, somebody had told this manager that men had to be goaded on to do their work. The more you whip them the more is their speed. His motto was "*Never compliment, ever criticise*". I am sure, this gentleman had not learnt

personnel relations or human relations in industry or what is the same thing, the Science of Personnel Management. This attitude created amongst the workers lack of interest in the factory. Everybody hated the management and worked under sufferance. Now, this is an extreme case, but illustrates, more or less, the general outlook and situation in our country as far as the managements are concerned. There are a few managerial groups full of understanding, sympathy and vision. But they are so few as to justify the axiom: "One swallow maketh not a summer".

Now, if the gentleman I have illustrated had known how to manage men and keep human relations in industry, he would have patted his worker on the back and said: "Hello! Good morning! How are you? Are your children fine? Do you find your work interesting? Have you any difficulties?" These are questions and enquiries which convey the goodwill of the management. Where such goodwill permeates the entire organisation, everyone feels adjusted and satisfied and behaves in a dignified manner. To tell you frankly, in our industries there is complete absence of human relations. Yet, we speak of wider issues, that is, industrial relations, strikes and so on. Bad industrial relations which plague our society are only the reflections of bad personnel management. How can we solve wider issues without first settling smaller ones which are really at the root of the problem? Establish good human relations within your own industrial organization, I guarantee, industrial relations will not be such an insoluble problem as it is. Industry is a social institution. We have to accept social responsibilities. This is consistent with efficient management. That is my

first point. And the second point I am going to urge is that industry as a social institution must further accept responsibilities to help workers overcome some of the disabilities and handicaps which affect them. There are several handicaps associated with industries in India—long hours of work, bad working conditions, unemployment, low wages, risks and hazards, congestion, slums and so on. There is also the problem of fatigue. It must be realized that the worker can no longer be worked under unendurable conditions for long hours. You have to create good and satisfactory conditions of work. Perhaps, all these handicaps, to a very large extent, can be removed by a scientifically planned and conducted welfare programme.

If I go on extending the subject to industrial relations, I can argue points on strikes, arbitrations, arrests and so on. But I shall be content to speak on human relation in industry. I believe that we have not properly paid attention to the human aspect of the management problem. Work is a man's calling. A man should be called to it by inner affinities. Then only is his work his calling. And an industrial occupation means very much to the worker. It affects his family status. It determines his circle of friends and defines his social situation. It reacts on his physical health. It moulds his thinking and influences his mind in subtle ways. Therefore, we should take into consideration all these factors, and plan human relations in industry in such a way that industrial occupations ennoble men instead of degrading them.

—A speech by Dr. M. V. Moorthy at a Symposium on Human Relations in Industry organised by the All-India Manufacturers' Organisation, Bombay.

PRISONS CAN BE A SOCIAL SERVICE

What is Our Attitude? You know probably that, by an amendment in the Social Services Consolidation Act, wives of men who have been imprisoned for more than six months are classed as widows if they are over fifty or if they have a child in their care and may receive a pension while their husbands remain in gaol. Is there any general significance in this move? It's hard to tell but at least it coincided roughly with a growing public consciousness of the existence of prisons in our midst. Mostly we forget about them unless a gaol break, a strike or riot hits the headlines. When the disturbance is quelled we forget about it in the comfortable assumption that God's in His Heaven; all's well with the world. But is all well?

Ideas about Punishment.—Let us look at some of the reasons why people go to prison or are punished for breaking the law. In earlier times, in the Middle Ages for instance, there were practically no gaols but there was plenty of punishment. A wrongdoer was generally subjected to corporal punishment to exorcise the devil which had taken possession of him. Later the attitude to the punishment was one of public vengeance and demand for retribution for the crime against society. At the same time there was an idea that an offender could expiate his crime by paying for it in pain and suffering. This belief persists strongly in countries which have a mystic conception of the State. Nazi Germany is a good example. But I don't think we have altogether given up the notion ourselves. A man cannot be tried for the same offence twice and, besides, as far as the law is concerned, a sentence once served eliminates, so to speak, the crime for which it was imposed. However with the increasing efficiency of the

C. I. B. methods a criminal record is taken into account when a sentence is imposed on a man found guilty. This is probably a break with the old philosophy and will come up again later.

You are probably wondering why no mention has been made so far, of the fact that a man may be sent to prison to be reformed. Logically this reason comes last because it is the most recent and we are still trying to evolve ways of effecting that reformation, rooting out at the same time the old beliefs in and demands for retribution.

The Buildings.—The Quaker influence in England and America was largely responsible for a change in the form of prison punishment. Large buildings were erected to house the criminals, who were solitarily confined,—and silently—in separate cells. There, it was thought, they would have opportunity to think over their misdeeds and realise the error of their ways. It didn't work.

Large numbers, and it is still happening today, came back again and again to serve other sentences for similar or different offences. Now the interesting thing is that most of the prisons in Australia are built architecturally on the same lines as these old bastille type of institutions. What is more, prisoners spend on an average fourteen hours out of the twenty-four alone in cells. One might easily be pardoned for saying solitary confinement is still the main form of punishment meted out. Why? Do we still believe in the wholesome effect of contemplation? It is unlikely. The reason seems to be that administratively it is easier to run a gaol if the prisoners are safely locked up.

Well, what is it like to be shut up for fourteen hours at a time for months on an end? Some cells have stretchers or iron bedsteads, some have palliasses, and blankets are provided but seldom are they washed or cleaned between changes in occupants of the cell. Sometimes there is a stool in the cell or even a table. A feature in Australian prisons is the sanitary bucket which is emptied by the prisoner himself each morning. In fact there are few prisons in the English-speaking world where the sewer is connected to cells. It is here in the cell, in most Australian gaols, that the prisoner eats all his meals alone. Community dining has been introduced only in some prison farms.

While he is out of his cell the prisoner, if he is lucky, has a job to do either about the gaol or in one of the workshops. Those on farms are the busiest. However, only about one ninth of the gaol population in New South Wales and one fifth in Queensland are on farms. For the rest the cry is one of deadening routine and soul-destroying boredom.

Reforms in Prison Methods.—Many people think that any suggestion of prison is based on sentimental eye-wash. It might be; but let us look at some facts. An offender is put into prison to protect the rest of the community. Does imprisonment have this effect? Temporarily only. If a prison were a deterrent you wouldn't expect that many would repeat the offence. You may be pleased that the man who burgled your house, hit you on the head or snatched your hand-bag got a stretch but when he comes out of an ordinary crowded city gaol the chances are more than fifty-fifty that he'll do it again. Reconviction of men from bit gaols where no planned reformatory treatment is attempted occurs in about 70

per cent. of cases. Even in specialised institutions like the English Borstals about 30 per cent. to 40 per cent. of the young men are reconvicted within five years. Reform and rehabilitation are difficult problems. We're not succeeding very well either in protecting ourselves or in our humane responsibility to people who are out of tune with normal society because of poverty, economic disturbance of the country, unhappy family life, mental ill-health or a deprived childhood.

All this is not to say that no one has ever thought of treatment other than simple incarceration. The Borstal has already been mentioned. It is for young men who are persistent offenders. Only one of these institutions is "closed". The others are much like large country estates built in the first place by the first offenders to be committed. This fact is almost a keystone—the places gather a typical English moss of tradition of good behaviour, industry, endeavour to learn to work and get on with others. The pressure is continually in this direction and it shows not perfect but better results. Big experiments are going on in England now with this kind of open institution and different kinds of offenders are having similar treatment to that described. It is too early to assess results on the basis of reconviction because a period of five years must pass before you can be reasonably sure that the offender is a better adjusted person than when he first went to gaol. As for our own prison farms which are open institutions it seems fairly certain that the effect of treatment of this kind has better results than simple imprisonment although no official figures are published in prison reports.

Sing Sing.—Experiments have been going on with a variety of different kinds of

treatment in closed institutions in America nearly all this century. In Sing Sing, of which, if we believe Hollywood, it is hard to believe any good, a trial was made in 1915 with a self-governing organisation amongst the prisoners. In this body the lifers and long-termers were found to take the responsible roles! The Welfare League, as it was called, was responsible for education, re-employment, relief of relatives sport, internal discipline and some other aspects of the life by means of separate departments responsible to the parliament, democratically elected. Reconviction figures for the period soon after the League's establishment are not available but it is interesting to note that the emergency cases—results of brawls amongst prisoners—were reduced from 378 in the previous year to eighty-six in the first ten months of the League's work. The success is attributed to the fact that the men were kept active and out of their cells longer in order to cover the jobs. They developed some *esprit de corps* and gained a little experience in responsibility.

Diagnose the Trouble.—Later on different and more scientific experiments were started in other prisons. The most notable tendency is the attempt to diagnose the prisoner's trouble—it may be social, moral, mental or physical. This requires a fairly well equipped reception centre with staff qualified in medicine, psychiatry, psychology and social work. Of course the diagnosis is not much use unless treatment according to recommendations can be carried out by staff that understands them and

has an optimistic attitude to the treatability of the disease—criminal behaviour. This is the stumbling block in most countries. To treat prisoners as individuals, each with a separate rehabilitation plan, mean a big goal staff with varied equipment for trade or work, training, libraries and recreation facilities.

You and I have to pay taxes for this and unless we know what's behind it all we'll squeal. There are not very many reforms that can be carried out in Australia without first of all an extensive building programme and that is not likely to come about while law-abiding citizens are without houses. However a hopeful sign appeared recently in New South Wales when the Cabinet approved the implementation of the Comptroller's report, which included many sweeping reforms, amongst them classification on personal grounds before treatment starts. So far as treatment itself is concerned the widening of recreational and educational facilities will presumably modify the dull routine and long hours of confinement.

What does it all mean? Are we coddling the offender? Many people used to think so but their numbers seem to be decreasing under the now more or less constant pressure of rational groups who believe that we should not leave those who are obviously unable to keep going in their proper place in the world of their own inadequate devices but should, on the contrary, help them to get back on the road or find an easier track whatever the reason for their failure might be.—*Social Services Journal*, February, 1949.

U. S. AIDS THE DEAF TO HELP THEMSELVES

Men and women disabled by deafness or impaired hearing find help in the United States under a program of rehabilitation

financed by the federal and state governments.

In the last five years, 17,587 of these

handicapped civilians have been especially trained and placed in jobs in virtually every type of trade and occupation, reports the U. S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation (OVR). The OVR coordinates the program for civilians throughout the nation. Veterans, with hearing disabilities acquired in service, are taken care of by the Veterans Administration.

To develop and stimulate maximum rehabilitation opportunities, the OVR cooperates with a number of special organizations such as the American Hearing Society, National Association of the Deaf, National Fraternal Society of the Deaf, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

Eligibility for Aid.—Men and women of working age with substantial hearing handicaps are eligible for aid under this program. To qualify for help they must have a reasonably good chance of becoming employable or of getting a more suitable job through such assistance.

At 88 centers in 33 States, the handicapped persons obtain complete services. These include ear examinations, hearing tests, try-out of electrical hearing aids and training in their use, lip-reading instruction, speech correction, and training in the use of residual hearing.

Medical, surgical, and psychiatric treatment, hospital care, and artificial hearing devices to increase the ability to work also are provided.

Training for clients is obtained on a contract basis from established educational institutions. These include universities, public and private vocational and trade

schools, correspondence schools, and institutions with extension courses. Private tutors also may be obtained for special training.

Additional services include maintenance and transportation during rehabilitation, and providing necessary occupational tools, equipment, and licences.

Individuals who are not able to pay for these services are helped with public funds. Counsel and guidance to help the individual select and obtain a suitable job are given free.

Special Course for the Unschooled.—This year, a new type of service is being added. A special intensive adjustment and training course will be given for illiterate or unschooled deaf men and women.

Michael J. Shortley, Director of OVR has announced that this training will be offered for a month this summer at the Michigan School for the Deaf. Rehabilitation agencies of all other States are being invited to send their clients.

This new training will stress several activities that the illiterate deaf persons must master to lead a normal life, such as understanding directions, using transportation facilities, handling money, telling time, and attending to personal hygiene. Community relationships and responsibilities, employer-employee relationships, basic materials, and tools and processes will also be emphasized.

The aim of the course will be to release these people from the isolation and dependence of a non-communicative existence, Mr. Shortley notes. They may then continue "development through paid employment and association with educated deaf people."

U. S. COOPERATES IN WORLD ATTACK ON CANCER

Private and governmental agencies in the United States are cooperating with those of other countries in a program of scientific research and public education against a rising tide of cancer. Dr. Leonard Scheele, Surgeon General of the U. S. Public Health Service (USPHS), says cancer "occupies a high place among the medical problems that can only be solved by coordinating the efforts of medical scientists everywhere."

In the United States alone, cancer is expected to kill 200,000 persons this year. During the last 25 years, it has advanced from seventh to second place—behind heart disease—as the leading cause of death in the United States.

The U. S. Congress created the National Cancer Institute in 1937 to direct the Government's over-all cancer drive. It cooperates with agencies of the 48 States, usually the Boards of Health, and with private organizations in cancer research and education. It conducts a trainee program and extends aid to medical schools. One of its basic purposes is to coordinate cancer research in the United States with that of other countries.

Research Objective.—The research objective of the Institute, as of other agencies, is to find the cause of cancer and better methods of prevention or cure. It also seeks to cut the death toll by stimulating early diagnosis and treatment through education of practising physicians and the public.

Funds appropriated by Congress for the Institute's work have increased from less than \$1,000,000 in 1946 to \$14,000,000 for the present fiscal year, ending June 30. Its program is planned by its National Advisory Cancer Council, composed of six experts and headed by the U. S. Surgeon General.

The Institute, situated at Bethesda, Maryland, employs a staff of 250 experts in one of the World's largest cancer research laboratories. The major part of the Institute's research expenditures, however, goes into grants to universities, hospitals and private laboratories both in the United States and abroad.

Grants Made to Other Countries.—During the last year alone the Institute has made grants totalling \$90,760 for research in other countries. They have gone to institutions and individuals in Brazil, Canada, Denmark, England, France and Palestine. Making these grants, Dr. Scheele says, "constitutes a move by the National Cancer Institute and its National Advisory Council to assist in the mobilization of an international attack on cancer."

The largest and best-known private organization fighting cancer in the United States is the American Cancer Society, established in 1913. While supporting cancer research since 1945, its major contribution has been public education. The Society estimates that the lives of 65,000 of the 200,000 Americans expected to die of cancer this year could be saved through early diagnosis and treatment.

To this end, the Society has helped set up 190 cancer detection centres, 400 cancer treatment clinics, and 35 diagnostic clinics throughout the United States. Many more must be established, experts agree, to meet the cancer threat. The goal for cancer treatment clinics alone is one for every 50,000 persons.

Nation-Wide Campaign conducted.—During April 1949, proclaimed Cancer Control Month by President Truman, the Society conducted a nation-wide campaign to raise \$ 14,50,000 for its work. The na-

tional drive was directed by Charles F. Kettering, noted industrialist and scientist, assisted by Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby, newspaperwoman and wartime director of the U. S. Women's Army Corps. The drive was supported by American labour, industry, agriculture, educational and publicity groups.

Contributing to the research work against cancer is the Damon Runyon Cancer fund founded to honor the American writer who died of the disease in 1946. Many Americans have contributed to this fund. Milton Berle, well-known comedian, recently raised more than \$1,000,000, in contribution to the fund during a 16-hour television broadcast.

Many Private Bodies Interested.—There are in the United States at least a score of privately financed organizations interested in cancer research. Many belong to the American Association for Cancer Research which holds a scientific conference every year. Last year the Association and the international group, the Union Internationale Contre Le Cancer, jointly sponsored the Fourth International Cancer Research congress in St. Louis, Missouri.

In addition to other literature on cancer,

the NCI and the American Cancer Society publish journals reporting the latest findings. They are distributed both in the United States and abroad. Close contact also is maintained with the United Nations World Health Organisation in the world-fight against cancer.

Atomic Energy Utilized.—New forces are constantly being thrown into the fight against the disease. A newcomer is the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, which is providing free radioactive isotopes for cancer research, giving research grants to schools and hospitals, and building laboratory facilities for atomic research in cancer.

While much has been done, much more must be done before cancer can be conquered, the National Cancer Institute emphasizes. It says:

"The release of atomic energy came only after many individuals from many different parts of this country—as well as many countries of the world—made research contributions. Finding the cause and prevention or cure of cancer is a still vaster problem. The wholehearted cooperation of all individuals and organizations working in the field will lessen the time before the answer is found."

MEASURES TO MAKE BEGGARS USEFUL AND SELF-RELIANT CITIZENS. BEGGAR RELIEF WORK IN BANGALORE CITY.

Having found it necessary and expedient to prohibit persons from resorting to begging as a means of livelihood, the Government of Mysore have introduced Act No. XXXIII of 1944 for the prohibition of Beggary in the State.

The Act and the Rules framed under it provide not only for the prohibition of Beggary in the State but also for the opening

of Receiving and Relief Centres for beggars.

Government were pleased to direct in February 1946 that the provisions of the Act for the prohibition of beggary in the State be made applicable to the City of Bangalore. It is therefore an offence now to beg in the City of Bangalore.

A Central Beggar Relief Committee helps in implementing the provisions of the Act.

The Hon'ble the Minister for Education, Sri D. H. Chandrasekhariah, is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Committee at present and the work of Beggar Relief is being carried on under his direction.

Towards the Beggar Relief Scheme public donations amounting to nearly a lakh of rupees have been received. The Bangalore City Municipality is contributing an annual grant of Rs. 3,000 for meeting part of the expenses of the Beggar Colony. A number of other Municipalities in the State have also come forward to help the scheme with their grants. But the Government are shouldering the major portion of the cost of the relief work.

The new colony for the use of beggars has been built on a high level on the bank of the river Vrushabhavati on the Bangalore-Magadi Road at a distance of six miles from the City. Four big dormitories equipped with light, water and sanitary fittings have been constructed for the occupation of beggars. Administrative sanction has been obtained for the construction of a dozen more dormitories, as and when necessary. A hospital with provision for beds has been constructed and it is found to be useful both to the Colony and to the surrounding villages. Quarters for the Superintendent, Doctor and other members of the Staff have been provided in the Colony.

To begin with, the Beggars' Colony was located in Sri Giddanna's Choultry next to the Municipal Swimming Pool and a good deal of preliminary work connected with the Beggar Relief was done there. The arresting of beggars commenced for the first time on 28th October, 1946. About 3,100 beggars so far been rounded up in the City and brought to the Receiving Centre. After a detailed enquiry, the Receiving Officer has released 1,622 with admonitions, and 1,166 persons have been released

by the Court. About 141 persons have been detained for permanent relief of whom sixty beggars have been repatriated outside the State.

The procedure connected with the treatment of beggars is simple. The beggars are arrested by the Police Officers when they are found to be begging and soon after they are produced before the Superintendent who is the Receiving Officer. A regular detailed enquiry is held by him. The name of the beggar, his parentage, place of birth, means of living, reasons for begging, and names of persons legally entitled to maintain the beggar will be ascertained at the enquiry. The Receiving Officer has discretion to release with or without sureties such of them as will undertake to give up begging. Those who are not released are produced before the City Magistrate, Bangalore, for enquiry. The Court has discretion to release the first offenders with or without surety. But if the same beggar comes up before the Court a second time, he will not be let off unless surety is furnished. Detention in the Relief Centre is ordered in the case of those who are not released if they are Mysoreans by birth or domicile, and orders of repatriation are passed in respect of non-Mysoreans who will then be sent out of the State.

The Department of Beggar Relief owns a motor van for conveying beggars from the City to the Colony and for taking them to the Court for trial and also to the Railway Station for repatriating non-Mysoreans.

Relief is given to those persons who are detained in the Relief Centre until they are discharged by Court or released on parole by the Superintendent on the surety of a relative or friend who undertakes to take care of the beggar and promises not to allow him to resort to begging again.

Comprehensive rules have been framed for regulating the work in the Receiving and Relief Centres. As soon as a beggar is received in the Relief Centre, he is given a shave, a disinfectant bath and fresh clothes. Soap and soapnut powder are provided to each beggar to keep his clothes and person neat and tidy. Each beggar gets a mat, a bed-sheet, a pillow and a blanket for his bedding. Besides, a Khaki baniyan, dhoti of 7 yards, Khadi cap and a towel are supplied for his wear. Young boys are allowed to wear *chaddis* (shorts) in place of dhotis. Women beggars are each given a saree of 8 yards, a petticoat and a towel. In addition, they get coconut oil and combs to dress their hair. The diet consists of 16 ozs. of food for each beggar per day. It consists of 10 ozs. of ragi flour and 6 ozs. of rice. The principal meals are served at 11 A.M. and at 6 P.M. daily.

Beggars are given medical help in the Colony itself. Each beggar is examined by the doctor daily and state of health is noted in a Health Register. His weight is taken once a fortnight and the variations are noted. Most of the beggars who come to the colony are found to be badly in need of medical aid. Those suffering from cont-

agious diseases are isolated and sent to the respective hospitals for treatment.

The present Beggars' Colony was opened by His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore on 1st July, 1948.

The able-bodied beggars are receiving training in mat-weaving, and envelope-making for the present. It is proposed to introduce spinning and other cottage industries. There is also a proposal to introduce agriculture and horticulture to engage the beggars. Arrangements are being made to impart primary education to all the beggars and a building is ready for the purpose. The Adult Literacy Council have opened a school in the Colony. Prayers are held both in the morning and evening before the inmates take their food. Every effort is being made to reform the beggar to become a useful and self-reliant citizen.

Whatever may be the causes of beggary, it is undoubtedly a menace to society. In a civilised society there should be no place for begging. It is indeed a big problem and its ultimate success would depend on the willing and hearty cooperation of the public.

—*Mysore Information Bulletin*, January 31, 1949.

PSYCHOLOGISTS IN AMERICAN FACTORIES

Industrial engineers and administrators in the United States have, in recent years, become increasingly aware of the relationship between production problems and problems of human behaviour. Quite commonly to-day, American businessmen call upon people trained in the understanding of human relations problems affecting employees. Large business organisations, which have had progressive personnel programs for some time, are extending them to a

variety of new areas in the field of human relations. Many firms employ specialists with psychological and sociological training, who are as much a part of a company's service to employees as the maintenance of dispensary.

Like many another step in scientific progress, one of the most significant early discoveries in industrial psychology grew out of an experiment that failed in its fundamental purpose. This fruitful failure

occurred when engineers at Western Electric, America's largest manufacturer of electrical and communications equipment, sought to measure the effect of factory illumination upon production. Science, they reasoned, could predict with satisfying accuracy how quickly machines could turn raw materials into finished products under varying conditions. Why not apply similar thinking to the effect of varying conditions upon human behaviour in running the machines, thus solving one of the troublesome unknowns in the equation of industrial production?

Initially, three different illumination experiments were conducted in three different departments at the company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago, Illinois. The general test procedure in each department, however, was the same. After conducting a preliminary production period to determine a base rate against which future production changes might be compared, the light intensity in the three departments was changed at given intervals and the production rates were carefully tabulated. The investigators felt that changes in light intensity would be reflected in the production rates of the workers. But it did not work that way; the workers' output rose and fell apparently without any relation to the amount of illumination involved.

Puzzled by this finding, the engineers performed the experiment twice again, taking utmost care to control all variables. Periodic physical examinations of workers were made. The amount of sleep preceding each work day was correlated with quality and quantity of production. Lighting conditions were changed radically. Rates continued to improve throughout these experiments without positive relationship to light intensity. Only when illumination was reduced to

"moonlit" intensity did workers complain that they could not see their work and production fell.

During the later stages of the experiment, Elton Mayo, a professor of industrial research at Harvard University in Massachusetts, joined the investigation. The experiments were carefully screened and re-assessed. It was apparent that in spite of their scrupulous attempts to eliminate variables, the engineers had missed a key influence on workers' behaviour. As Mayo and a colleague named F. J. Roethlisberger went back over the work, they discovered that this key influence was the attitude of the workers towards their participation in the experiment. In summing up their feelings, Roethlisberger described what the engineers had missed. "What all the experiments had dramatically and conclusively demonstrated," he wrote, "was the importance of employee attitudes and sentiments. It was clear that the response of workers to what was happening about them was dependent upon the significance these events had for them. In most work situations the meaning of a change is likely to be as important, if not more so, than the change itself. Whether or not a person is going to give his services wholeheartedly to a group effort depends in good part, on the way he feels about his job, his fellow workers, and his supervisors—the meaning for him of what is happening about him."

What, in analytical terms, was the meaning the experiment had for these workers? To answer this question, the experimenters, led by Mayo, dropped the purely quantitative earlier methods of measurement and went at the task of interviewing the workers who took part in the experiments. Basically, they found that previous to the experiment, the workers had the more or less standardized relation of

factory workers to their jobs; but later, as participants in an experiment, they were involved in a novel and exciting project. They achieved a special status as individuals whose opinions were sought by leading scientists and for whom each day's work had a special significance.

For Elton Mayo, the ramifications of the Hawthorne experiments stretched from engineering to anthropology. For Western Electric, they suggested a new approach to personnel relations. Both have worked toward applying what was learned at Hawthorne to concrete and industrial problems.

One of the most interesting revelations of the Hawthorne findings for Mayo, who had previously considered social relations as fundamentally those of one individual to another, was their indication that considerable stress should be placed on group relations in industry. A worker was primarily a member of a department or production team from which he derived most of his work standards and through which he dealt with his employers. The relation of the individual to the team and, in turn, the team to the job or the supervisor emerged in Mayo's later work as the crucial factor in industrial relations.

Changes in social attitudes and group standards, Mayo holds, have not kept pace with the radical changes in workers' environments in the past half century. The status and prestige, for example, of a craftsman of 50 years ago, both in the factory and in the community, often depended upon his excellence in practising a trade which might not change during his lifetime. His descendants, however, while inheriting many of his social attitudes, are faced with a very different set of problems. Their success depends not so much upon mastering a static set of skills as upon their ability to charge and adapt. When a worker

is not able to adapt his inherited social attitudes to his modern environment, a variety of emotional maladjustments may result.

Armed with these concepts, the industrial relations specialists at Western Electric adapted what was learned during the Hawthorne experiments to the needs of employees in a new type of program known as personnel counseling. Personnel counselors are specially trained people who are assigned to a specific department or a group of people. They are available to anyone in their group or department in the assigned work area. Much of their initial time is spent in getting to know both employees and the work they do. The counselor is as interested in workers' problems as citizens or family-heads as in those arising directly from their jobs. Counselors do not offer advice or take up an employee's problems with supervisors. The emphasis during a talk with a counselor is, instead, upon the worker thinking through his problems for himself.

Although personnel counseling is still in the process of development at Western Electric, its underlying concepts and principles have already been widely adapted to the needs of personnel departments in stores, insurance companies, and many other types of business. For the psychologists, however, personnel counseling is but a limited application of what they know of human behaviour, particularly group behaviour. Under the directorship of the late Kurt Lewin, a brilliant psychologist who fled from Hitler's Germany to the United States, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology developed its now famous Research Center for Group Dynamics to study political and industrial group behaviour. Lewin undertook what he called "action research", in which maximum social utility,

as much as theoretical significance, was the guiding precept. He focussed his attention on the new kind of group relations deriving from the changing industrial scene in the United States. He insisted that practical men—union leaders, business men, and social workers—be involved in his research.

One of his students, Alfred J. Marrow, has combined in his own career the union of scholarly and practical endeavour which Lewin stressed at the Research Center. As president of a garment factory, the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, Dr. Marrow deals with the problems of a typical, medium-sized American business. With the aid of colleagues from the Research Center, Marrow has investigated many of the problems which contribute to and detract from the high morale and high productivity of the workers at his Marion, Virginia factory. At the same time, as a faculty member of the New School for Research in New York City and adviser to the Research Center for Group Dynamics, he maintains his contact with psychology on its more theoretical plane.

At Marrow's Virginia factory, the psychologists have done much to relate worker adjustment to production efficiency. One major problem, for example, which, like most American employers, he faced continually is that of employees who take a job and then leave within a short time. Study has disclosed that such behaviour is only occasionally due to the fact that the employee genuinely does not like the work and goes in search of more congenial employment. More frequently, such early quitting is a reaction against the feeling of discouragement and the fear of failure which often attends the learning of a new skill. To overcome this, great pains are taken at Harwood to explain to the new employee the learning problems he will

face and how they may be solved. He is acquainted with the plant and the people with whom he will work.

One of the most difficult periods for the new employee, the psychologists discovered, was his initial training. Workers became discouraged as they worked toward production goals set for the entire training period. To offset this reaction to the task of learning, experienced workers, collaborating with supervisors, broke down the overall training goals into a series of small, short-term goals adapted to individual capacities. A fear of failure is thus supplanted by a feeling of success as each daily or weekly standard of production is achieved. Practical results at the factory have been very gratifying. Leaving during the initial training period has been greatly reduced. New workers striving for short-term goals are trained in shorter periods than were possible under old methods of training.

Learning, of course, is not confined to new employees. All American businesses are sensitive to consumer buying tastes, and none is more affected by changes in fashions and public taste than the garment industry. New garments and new styles mean new production methods. Workers who have learned to produce one item are naturally reluctant to become trainees again. But changeovers, if they are to be efficiently made, require the full co-operation of all the workers involved.

To cope with this problem, many programs have been tried at the Harwood factory. The most promising is called the "group decision" method of setting up new practices. Workers to be affected by a production change are assembled and the new garment is described. The management explains in details why the change is necessary. When all the questions of the production staff have been answered, the

group leader asks the group how they think the change should be made. Experienced workers are appointed to make the new garment experimentally in order to arrive at production rates and methods. From their work the re-training program and the new rates of payment are evolved. Because the workers understand management's problems as well as their own, differences of opinion concerning rates of payment are amicably settled. On several occasions the rate proposals arrived at independently by workers have been identical to those of management. Although considerable working time is consumed by this procedure, Marrow finds that decisions thus reached are accepted wholeheartedly.

A key to success of Marrow's group decision method has been his continual education of supervisors' in the basic principles of human relations. Whenever necessary, supervisors' meetings are held to stress the importance of psychologically sound procedures in dealing with people. At

these meetings the problems of individual supervisors are dramatized by having two or more members of the group act out real-life situations. One supervisor, for example, may be concerned about a machine operator who is chronically late. Instead of discussing, in general terms, a means of correcting this behaviour without losing the co-operation of the operator, two of the group are chosen to act out the way they would approach the worker. When their little drama is finished, the group criticises the approach of the actor-supervisor. The critics then show what they would have done. Usually when this process is repeated several times, a solution emerges which the group can adopt as a standard procedure in future cases. As in the case of establishing the re-training program, the people actually involved in the problem are successfully applying techniques which not many years ago were confined to the realm of experimental psychology.

—JOHN JACOBS

CARE OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS IN POLAND.

The inhuman German policy of ruthless extermination of human life in Poland took a cruel toll of Polish children. One million, nine hundred thousand Polish children were destroyed by the Germans. This mass murder accounts for the present day decline of child population in ratio to adult population as compared with pre-war years. Prior to the war, children and youth constituted 42% of the population; today they number 33%. More than 1,500,000 children lost one or both parents, while others were seized for forced labour. All children were deprived of schooling and the basic necessities of life. Since the Germans did not respect the right of the Polish people to

a decent way of life, they naturally did not admit the right of Polish children to grow up as human beings and so deprived them of most of the experiences that are a child's birthright. Among the experiences from which the Germans excluded large numbers of Polish children were the learning of a personal moral code; a knowledge of the meaning of truth; the all-important feeling of belonging—of knowing the security that comes with being loved. Hundreds of thousands were left behind to fare for themselves when their parents were sent to concentration camps or into Germany for forced labour. Others, about 200,000 of them, were taken to Germany. The very

young ones whose physical characteristics were what the Germans designated as the "Aryan type", were removed to Germany and there brought up as Germans. The older ones were taken for forced labour. At the same time, the Germans spread among children as well as adults vulgar literature and pornography in the theatre, films and radio.

These emotional deprivations, plus migration, undernourishment and traumatic nervous shocks left deep scars on Polish children.

It is clear, therefore, that after liberation Poland faced a tremendous task of child care. Two million, seven hundred thousand children needed partial aid (three times as many as before the war) and 300,000 needed institutional care. However, after the liberation there were only 413 institutions that could be utilized immediately, and these could house a mere 22,000 children at the most.

The task of instilling life values in an entire generation of children cannot and must not be underestimated. And there were the 1,500,000 orphans and half orphans who needed help.

The Ministry of Labour and Public Welfare initially handled all such work, but later on children between the ages of 3-18 were placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. The vastness of the task facing the Ministry of Education becomes apparent when it is realized that 6¹/₂ million children are under its jurisdiction. The Ministry of Education conducts its welfare activities through the regular school administrative organs. Each school circuit has its child welfare section.

Reuniting Children with Their Families.—An intricate problem that Poland faced was that of finding and reuniting with their families, children who had been re-

moved to Germany by the Nazis. Some had been taken from their homes at a very early age—with all signs of their origin erased by the Germans. Social services concerned with reuniting families had therefore to work in Germany as well as Poland. The services in Poland tried to obtain all possible pertinent information; the Plenipotentiary of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare attempted to locate children in Germany and, if found, to return them to their homes. The Red Cross was and continues to be particularly helpful in locating these lost children. Up to the present, about 22,000 children have been returned to Poland, of these 20,000 from the Eastern Zone of Germany and 2,000 from the Western Zone. Thus, most of the Polish children from the Soviet Zone of occupation have been given back to Poland, while most of the Polish children from the Western Zones are still being held by the Germans.

Supplementary Feeding and Summer Vacations.—The two programs which include the greatest number of children and juveniles are the supplementary feedings and summer vacations. Supplementary feeding is part of the program at schools, kindergartens and education and recreation centers (Swietlice). One million, four hundred and ninety three thousand children and juveniles are fed today as compared with 830,000 before the war.

The plan behind the summer vacations program is to enable all Polish children to spend their vacations in resorts. Seven hundred eighty four thousand and five hundred children attended summer camps, half day camps and playgrounds in 1947. The figure jumped to one million in 1948, and about 780,000 of this number attended summer camps in various resorts operated by Government and voluntary agencies.

These figures, as are shown in the table below, represent great gains over pre-war years. (Please note that today's population is 23,930,000 as compared with the pre-war 35,100,000).

Year	No. of Camps, Half-Day Camps and Playgrounds	No. of Children
1931	1,242	124,900
1932	1,247	127,100
1933	1,321	154,300
1934	1,981	170,800
1935	3,222	260,800
1936	4,249	345,600
1937	6,624	453,600
1945	1,386	175,500
1946	8,954	750,000
1947	9,340	784,500

Summer vacation facilities are provided by voluntary agencies, trade unions and youth organizations. The Ministry of Education co-ordinates all the programs, exercises supervision over them and subsidizes them. The above mentioned agencies bear 26% of the total cost of maintenance of all facilities, the government contributes 50.8% and parents' fees total 13.6%. The rest (9.6%) is covered by local governments and donations from abroad.

The fees that parents pay vary in accordance with the income of the family and the size of the family. All children going to and from camps are entitled to a 75% reduction on railroad tickets. The children are given a thorough medical examination before entering the camps. Every camp has a doctor and nurse on the premises or within easy reach. All children attending camps carry accident and death insurance.

Swietlice.—Town and city life creates many leisure time problems for young people. An interesting service which attempts to help young people solve these problems is known

as *Swietlice* (Education and Recreation Centers). They are open to all children and are particularly beneficial to those whose mothers work. Children may do their homework here under the supervision of specially trained social workers and there are many opportunities and facilities open for recreation. Games, discussions and entertainment provided at the *Swietlice* make the streets and attendants petty pilfering and vagabondage much less attractive to teen-age youth. A meal is also served at the *Swietlice*. Approximately 86,000 children throughout Poland attend these *Swietlice*. They are run by parents' associations and such voluntary agencies as the Workers Friends of Children Society, the Peasant Friends of Children Society, the Red Cross, the Central Committee of Social Welfare and Caritas. They are subsidized by the government and supervised by the Ministry of Education. The *Swietlice* consist for the most part of only one room. Similar to them in concept, but much larger and better equipped are the "Jordan" gardens and playgrounds. Each Jordan garden and playground has facilities for several hundred children, and when open air play is not possible, there are suitably equipped buildings. Fifty-three are once more operating on a full time basis, and 125 new ones are being built.

Care of Weak Children.—Special rest homes for weak children are among the innovations that have appeared in Poland since the war's end. Four thousand seven hundred such children are housed in the 55 centers that exist in Polish sea and mountain resorts today. The children continue with their studies while they are in the rest homes so that no lags occur in their educational programs. Twenty-two rest homes are run by the government and the rest by various voluntary agencies.

Care of Orphans.—The previously mentioned welfare sections of the school circuits have placed 73,000 children in foster homes. The foster parents receive financial help from the government, plus guidance from the teachers and social workers who supervise the home conditions. If the supervisor discovers that a foster home is inadequate he removes small children to Children's Homes and older children (generally) to boarding schools.

There are now 701 Children's Homes with a total of 46,500 children; and 282 of these Homes have been established only since the war's end. The government operates 136 of these, 92 are run by local governments, and the remainder by social service and religious associations. Sixty-two, out of the above 701 Homes, are special institutions maintained for deaf, dumb, blind, mentally deficient and delinquent children. Government Homes are maintained by government funds, while Homes maintained by local government and voluntary agencies since liberation have been receiving from the central government a uniform sum per pupil for maintenance.

Many fundamental changes which extend far beyond the mere change of name have occurred in the character of Homes for orphans. Pre-war Homes for orphans resembled military barracks for the most part. Children of the same age and sex were housed together, and they led a military

kind of life. They all did the same thing at the same time; there was a common bedroom which afforded privacy to no child; they did their homework together in large halls. Today's policy, however, aims at making life in the Children's Homes as close to family life as possible. For instance children of both sexes and various ages are grouped together in one home; children wear individual dress, not the pre-war uniform. Today, regimentation has been abandoned in favour of a free and varied life which helps the children to learn self-dependence, initiative, resourcefulness and responsibility.

A clear change has been made from pre-war closed Homes, isolated from the world—often even maintaining their own schools—to open Homes—in close, living contact with schools, youth organizations and adults. Thus, orphan children are no longer cut off from the rest of society, but participate freely and normally in life outside of the home.

Orphans, youngsters from rural areas and poor families, who before the war had no access to secondary schools, are now provided for in boarding schools and dormitories. At present, there are 839 such establishments attended by over 52,000 young people, and 620 of those are operated by the government.

—*Social Welfare in Poland, March 1949.*

MENTAL HEALTH INSTITUTE IN U.S.

A National Institute of Mental Health has been established in the United States. As part of the system of research institutes of the U. S. Public Health Service, it will co-ordinate public and private mental health activities throughout the nation.

The new institute also will work closely with the World Federation of Mental Health in the global program to eliminate the known causes of mental illness and to find new means of curing the mentally ill.

Dr. Leonard A. Scheele, Surgeon of the

United States, points out that mental illness is responsible for the hospitalization of thousands of patients and for the partial incapacitation of many others. It is also, he says, a basic cause of many of mankind's great social problems—delinquency, crime, divorce and alcoholism.

Aims of the Institute.—The broad aims of the new mental-health organization are to gain more knowledge of the cause, prevention and control of mental illness, to train research and other personnel in greater numbers and to help develop community mental-health programs. The institute is supported by Federal Government funds.

The institute will co-ordinate Federal-state-local mental-health programs, including those already in progress. It also will train workers in the methods of research and treatment and make cash grants for experimental work by universities and individual scientists.

Funds will be granted to the various states for state and community mental-health programs. The Federal Government will provide \$ 2 for every \$ 1 spent by the states for research.

The main research clinic of the new institute is under construction at Bethesda, Maryland just north of Washington, D. C., near the other national health institutes.

Advantages of the Location.—Scheele

says that by close proximity to other health clinics, "the mental health program will be able to take full advantage of the extensive investigations being made into other diseases as well as the programs of basic research in the various laboratories and organizations of the National Institutes of Health." The solution to human illness, he says, "requires the co-operative skills of many scientific disciplines."

The American public is showing a greater interest than ever before in mental health, Dr. Howard A. Rusk, associate editor of the *New York Times*, indicates in an article. Rusk notes that in the last two years community mental-health services have been established in 27 additional states and territories. As a result, all states and territories now have such services on the community level. During the last year, 36 new clinics were established in 36 states, and 67 clinics in 26 states were expanded.

Under the national Mental Health Act passed by the U. S. Congress in 1946, research projects have been carried out to study the causes, diagnostic methods and treatment procedures for all types of mental diseases and diseases of the nervous system, including multiple sclerosis, epilepsy and cerebral palsy. In addition, many individuals have been trained in psychiatry, social work and psychiatric nursing, to make the benefits of modern methods of treating mental illnesses more widely available.

LABOUR WELFARE

Welfare implies faring well. We say that one is faring well when he enjoys good health and reasonable amenities of life. These are: nourishing food, comfortable clothing, decent living place and facilities to appreciate the arts of life. Everyone knows, that all these follow a good income.

Now, labour welfare mean generally the assurance of these amenities to our working population. The provision of these constitutes the minimum conditions of good living.

It is well-known that our workers dwell amidst horrible circumstances of squalor and congestion. Not only is infant mor-

tality highest amongst the workers but the span of life of the average worker is very short. The health of our workers is very poor due to various causes. Yet they normally work a minimum of eight hours per day, earning about Rs. 80 all-told per month. Further, hardly one per cent of them is able to read and write. Altogether it is a fair statement to make that our worker's life is a brief and unrelieved biography of poverty, leisureless work, ignorance, superstition and exploitation. Their environment and condition of life are such that they perpetuate their handicaps in their children with the consequence that the same wretched situation has continued through generations.

It may be asked; who is to be blamed for this state of affairs? I shall not embark on the futile quest of the culprit. We are, every adult one of us, directly or indirectly responsible for this situation and hence, should help bring about socially desirable conditions of living to our workers. It appears that certain hardships are inherent in modern large-scale industrial enterprises. When a person works in a modern factory, he works in highly artificial conditions of noise, light, temperature, dust, smoke and so on. These definitely affect his health and mental outlook. Also, since he works with a complex power-driven machine, the worker is liable to get hurt, sometimes fatally. Since man's bodily mechanism has limited capacities for adjustment, adjustments have to be made in the environment itself to meet the human needs of the workers. Such adjustments constitute a part of the welfare activities, and this is legitimately a function of the management. There are also other needs of the workers to be satisfied, such as, need for water and washing, first-aid, shelter and rest, lunch and several other

conveniences. Most of these are prescribed by the Factories Act of 1948 which pays more detailed attention to welfare measures than similar acts in any other country. This is so because most of the managements in our country were slow in recognising and providing for the needs of the labourers. And Government, therefore, had to enforce these regulations. The Factories Act also prescribes the appointment of welfare officers in every factory wherein 500 or more workers are ordinarily employed; and wherein more than 50 women workers are employed, it further prescribes the maintenance of a Creche.

Most of these regulations are reasonable and the Government has done well in legislating along these lines. It may be said that when these provisions are enforced, the welfare needs of the workers in their work places will have to be taken care of. Not only in factories, but in mines and other industries as far as possible similar measures are being planned to minimise the employment hazards of workers and also to provide human amenities. And for these the burden is rightly placed on the management. Also the Workman's Compensation Act and the Women's Maternity Benefits Act further take care of the workers' need for assistance.

When we come to the scope and extent of labour welfare activities, we enter into a very interesting but highly controversial field. What is the limit of labour welfare activity? Does it end by the taking care of the needs of labourers in their work places, or does it extend beyond the borders of the plant? The worker is a social being. He has his wife and children, and may be, old parents, for whom he has to have a house of his own. After the day's work he returns to his house for rest, peace and recreation. There are the complex

economic, social and cultural needs of the family to be satisfied. Perhaps, household articles have to be bought. Where shall he go? Should the manager of the factory provide markets for his buying? Perhaps, the worker is ill, or his wife is sick, or may be, his child or parents. Again, should the management have a hospital for the care of the worker and his family? The worker's children need to go to a school. Is it management's function to maintain a school? Sometimes the worker finds it hard to find even a home. In that case should the owner of the factory build houses for his houseless workers? These are some of the questions which it is difficult to answer. Yet the welfare of the worker is closely involved in all these considerations. If the working conditions of the factory are excellent and yet the home conditions are miserable, the worker's morale and efficiency are bound to break down. How can the labourer work with concentration when his wife is ill, and needs medical attention? Can he be happy at his job when he had no sleep yesterday because his house was leaking?

Home conditions and work in the factory are intimately related. Therefore attention to the worker's handicaps and needs *only within the factory* is but a part of labour welfare. If the worker's welfare has to be fully planned, his complete life, as also that of his immediate relations has to be taken into account. Living is a total phenomenon. Continuous influences appear and reappear in all its spheres. Persons are like plants which, despite water and good soil, wither away when remote breezes and stars do not bring their timely blessings.

It is now generally conceded that labour welfare measures, to be adequate and comprehensive, should also consist of housing,

medical attention, recreation, education and economic security of the worker and his family. Clearly, the provision of these by the employer cannot be legislatively enforced. Yet, a few big industrial groups have undertaken of their own accord, the housing of a part of their labour force, and have also introduced medical and hospital care, recreation programmes, schools and other educational and cultural activities, and economic security schemes like savings fund, co-operative enterprises, bonus and provident fund schemes and so on. Some of these maintain considerable labour welfare personnel. Such comprehensive welfare schemes keep labour contented, in good spirit and health, reduce absenteeism and turnover, and improve productive efficiency. But a plan of welfare comprising the economic security schemes, education, recreation, medical attention and housing of workers—and all these well related to the maintenance of good working conditions,—is very costly. But if the plan is worked with vision, understanding and leadership, it will yield such beneficial results as will reduce the ultimate costs of production for industry, apart from the good citizens it will create. It will also definitely bring about better industrial relations. In the long run, labour welfare is a sound investment for all.

Many employers in our country are unable to undertake comprehensive welfare programmes of which I am talking. Even the amenities that are provided for within the factory are done grudgingly. Sometimes, they cannot afford to introduce an elaborate programme. More often, they lack knowledge, leadership and foresight to do it. Some even evade obligations to workers for want of the sense of social justice. The good ones are so few that their welfare activities touch but a bare few of the

labouring population.

But who should bear the cost and responsibility of labour welfare? There can be but one answer to this. Those who benefit by the programme should bear the cost, and since the entire society is benefited by labour welfare, the costs of it should be charged to the account of society. Even to-day, where the employers sponsor welfare schemes, they shift a part of the costs on to the consumers and to the workers. To the consumer they transfer it in the shape of high prices; and to the labourers in the shape of wage cuts, or by keeping the level of wage down. Thus a part of labour welfare costs are borne involuntarily by the employees and by the public. Welfare is really a type of addition to the wage; and more welfare measures mean more real wages. It has a tendency to keep down nominal wages. But, as far as the public is concerned, I feel that if by paying higher prices to articles produced, the welfare of the workers is assured, we should not grudge paying higher prices. National welfare is bound up with labour welfare and it is worth making some sacrifices for it. The employers should similarly realize their responsibility to the nation, and in the light of their capacity to make the sacrifice, they should bear their share of the cost of labour welfare. When the costs are well distributed, nobody would be complaining.

But there are several dangers and disadvantages involved in ill-conceived plans of labour welfare. By doing everything for the worker we take away his self-reliance, and make him more and more dependant on the employer. This is the greatest psychological disadvantage of all employer-financed welfare measures. In the West, particularly in the U. S. A., workers frown on the welfare activities of their employers.

They would like to be self-dependant, dwell in their own homes, play their own games, have their own medical assistance, and send their children to any school they like. They would feel humiliated by some of the welfare measures by which our workers would be pleased. Thus for instance, if free cloth is given to workers, or free milk provided to their children, or free schools built by the employer, the workers in the U. S. A. would feel insulted. They would like all these to be embodied in their wage packets, rather. This shows how much independent minded they are. The workers prefer to have their welfare taken care of by themselves through their unions. This, I feel, is the right approach to labour welfare. And our labour unions should bestow more attention to this problem.

But the creation of this attitude in the minds of our workers will take a long time. Moreover, the conditions in our country are different from those obtaining in the U. S. A. In view of the very low incomes which our workers earn and the lack of leadership amongst them, it is absolutely necessary to institute well-organised labour welfare activities, but the objective and technique employed should be to make the workers self-reliant in course of time; so much so that they would be able to run their own welfare activities instead of being dependant on the employers or the Government. Any other attitude or objective or technique adopted would perpetuate the disability of our workers, and therefore, is treacherous to their cause and progress. Till such time as the workers are not able to take care of themselves, labour welfare will be a necessary burden of the industries and the Government. Where the employer is unable to provide all the amenities needed, the Government and the public bodies

should take up the planning. And here is a field for our labour unions to make their contribution by uniting with others, irrespective of their political ideologies.

The success of labour welfare depends on proper leadership and attitude. Welfare administration is a scientific process and needs qualified personnel. Programmes have to be conceived in relation to the needs of the workers and all the activities have to be carefully integrated. Participation of the workers has to be secured in all the activities and as far as possible they should be made to feel that it is a pro-

gramme of the workers run for the workers by the workers. Then there will be a real functioning of Industrial Democracy. Along side of welfare planning, wages have to be raised to enable workers to participate more fully in the activities. Social work means helping the handicapped individual help himself; and welfare is best administered where workers help themselves to overcome their limitations and organise to achieve the best good of themselves and of all.

—*Radio Talk by Dr. M. V. Moorthy.*

By permission of Station Director, A. I. R., Bombay.

NON-PROFIT NATIONAL AGENCY HELPS PREVENT BLINDNESS

Mary had always had weak eyes. By the time she was ready to start school in the United States, it was obvious she would not be able to keep pace with children having normal vision. However, Mary was fortunate. There was a school in her community with a "sight-saving" class.

There, Mary found special lighting, books with extra-large type, pencils with thick black lead, and many other things to help her see and learn. Yet, in oral recitation, singing, and other activities she was able to join in with the normal children. Now Mary is growing up like all the other children in her community.

Forty years ago, before the formation of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, Mary would not have done as well—there were no "sight-saving" classes then. Today, there are 635 such classes in all sections of the United States. The Society hopes that eventually there will be enough special classes for all children with defective vision.

Encouraging teachers and school authorities to set up "sight-saving" classes is one of the many, activities of the Society,

a non-profit, voluntary agency supported by membership fees and contributions. Its aims are to learn the causes of blindness or impaired vision, to advocate measures that will eliminate such causes, and to spread knowledge concerning the care and use of the eyes.

One of the Society's first undertakings in 1908 was a successful drive to have prophylactic drops put into the eyes of babies at birth to prevent blindness caused by ophthalmia neonatorum. At that time, this disease was responsible for 28 percent of all blindness among pupils in American schools for the blind. The Society's campaign of public education brought about laws making use of the eye drops mandatory. As a result, the number of babies losing their sight from this disease has been reduced 90 percent.

Today, the Society is campaigning to reduce eye hazards in industry. It also is urging that the eyes of pre-school children be carefully tested and is sponsoring research in the causes and treatment of eye diseases.

The success of the Society in the United States led to the formation of an International Association for the Prevention of Blindness in 1929. This organization suspended its activities during the war but now is at work again. It recently was

recognised as a non-governmental affiliate of the United Nations World Health Organization. The American Society is helping the other American republics develop sight-saving programs.

YOUNG CHILDREN NEED GUIDANCE TOO.

In the modern elementary school the teacher is vitally concerned about the needs and the problems of her pupils. She knows that learning is largely determined by the child's interests, motives, capacities, maturity, and readiness. She recognises that the child is a person with assets, liabilities, and potentialities that must be studied, understood, and guided. Child study is indeed the key to a successful guidance program.

Some children are rebellious, unhappy, submissive, over-aggressive, destructive, fearful, and negativistic. At one time these emotionally and socially maladjusted children were considered inherently "bad". This theory has been long discarded by educators. Undesirable pupil behaviour has an underlying cause or causes. Anti-social conduct, failure, introversion, indifference, insecurity, delinquency may be caused by disabilities, conflicts, and frustrations. Among these negative factors are: malnutrition, defective speech, impaired eyesight, faulty motor co-ordination, a broken home, a sarcastic teacher, an over-indulgent parent, reading disability, and unwholesome environmental influences. In other words, a maladjusted child has a problem that he can not solve. Instead of mastering the problem, he has become its slave.

Therapy (and many of our children are in dire need of it) must be based upon the causes which produce symptoms of a mal-adjusted child. To discover such causes

relationship in child behaviour is most important. Once this relationship has been clearly established much can be done to help the maladjusted child. To discover such causes and to suggest ways of overcoming them is the function of guidance. In this program the classroom teacher is the key person.

In introducing any program, objectives must be clearly formulated and communicated to the entire staff. Perhaps the major objective of a guidance program is gaining the confidence and the friendship of those children whom we are seeking to help. The classroom teacher is in a unique position to understand the basic needs of children—physical needs, a sense of security, recognition, need for affection, and new experiences.

Discovering minor adjustments at an early age so that major maladjustments can be possibly averted in the future is another significant aim of a good guidance program. Why wait until the child enters junior high school in order to get the benefit of guidance if the maladjustment manifested itself in the second grade of the elementary school? Effective guidance should be a program of prevention and should be applied as soon as the symptoms of maladjustment appear.

The question is often asked: which children need guidance? A suggested list follows:

1. Those non-participating in school activities
2. Those displaying anti-social and negative traits of social behaviour
3. Those lacking in self-confidence
4. Those invariably seeking the center of attraction
5. Those doing school work far below their abilities and capacities
6. Those showing irrational or excessive fears and anxieties
7. Those indulging in excessive day-dreaming
8. Those being irritable and temperamental without apparent cause
9. Those feeling a sense of rejection at school or at home or at both places
10. Those belittling their own achievements and over-emphasizing their shortcomings
11. Those manifesting moods of being very unhappy and depressed
12. Those showing traits of being over-shy, timid, and introspective.

One fruitful guidance technique in the elementary school is the interview. Here is an opportunity for the teacher to find out the possible cause for the child's maladjustment, to help the child understand himself better by talking things over, to evaluate the child's feelings and attitudes, and to develop with the co-operation of the child a plan of action resulting in better personality adjustment.

During the interview the most important principle is the establishment of a friendly, informal feeling between the child and the interviewer. The interviewer should have objectivity, sympathy, understanding, and a sincere interest in the child's problems and needs. Looking for causes for the child's maladjustment, the interviewer, in the role

of an interested friend rather than that of a judge, can do much in establishing rapport between himself and the child. This attitude increases the child's confidence.

Tactfully and sympathetically, the interviewer should ascertain as much as possible during the interview about the attitudes and feelings of the child. The child should be encouraged: (1) to tell about his activities outside-of-school hours; (2) to talk about his hobbies and special interests; (3) to describe his friends and why he has chosen them; (4) to indicate his interests and dislikes at school; and (5) to discuss his problems, needs, and difficulties. As the result of the interview the child should feel that he has a friend who is interested and is willing to help. Let him feel that he can come to you to talk over his problems.

Descriptive records should not be made during interviews, but after the child has left the room. The purpose of the particular interview, the information obtained and the results of the interview should be indicated. Suggestions made during the interview, any plan of action to be undertaken, plans for future interviews with the particular child, should also be included in this descriptive record.

By means of the interview, an attempt may be made to give maladjusted children a measure of security, recognition, belongingness, and affection denied many of them in their daily lives. Understanding children and assisting them to meet their basic needs are the primary objectives of a worthwhile guidance program in the elementary school. The all-important goal is each child's adjustment to all phases of living—physical, emotional, and intellectual.

By Edward Dangler from *Understanding The child*. April, 1949.

INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE: ITS RELIGIOUS ASPECT

"Everybody has forgotten religion, that is why everything is going wrong everywhere," was the lament of an illiterate Indian worker dissatisfied with his working conditions as well as with affairs of his trade union. A world under the grip of a philosophy of hedonism cannot but be divided against itself, and such a division must create more and more emotional stresses amongst individuals and nations. The industrial worker cannot escape his share of them, and the industrial psychologist is fighting heroically against them with objective methods of experimental science, but is not succeeding half as well as an Indian saint working subjectively through a religious philosophy of life.

Mahatma Gandhi was the founder and father of the Ahmedabad Textile Union. He picked up a rotting mass of the humblest and most depressed humanity and remodelled it in a shapely cast of human dignity. He taught a down-trodden people to stand erect again. This union has to-day a membership of 65,000 textile workers, and has an annual income of $2\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees. The association maintains about 20 centres which cater to the intellectual and social needs of its members by setting up libraries and reading rooms and facilities for physical culture and recreation. It conducts 6 day-schools and 2 night-schools, and one nursery school. Scholarships are made available to working-class students receiving education in secondary schools. The association also runs a well-equipped dispensary with an average annual of 75,747. A programme of opening ante-natal and post-natal clinics, and medical examinations of the workers and their dependents is making satisfactory progress. The association has its own press and publishes a fortnightly maga-

zine. The affairs of the association are governed by boards composed of the elected representatives from amongst its members. These boards are reconstituted every two years, and they have to maintain a paid staff of 236 persons to carry on their work.

How did the Mahatma achieve so much from so little? One hears a lot of talk about freedom now-a-days. Political freedom is most in the air but hardly any spiritual freedom. You cannot talk to a labour leader without hearing a sermon from him on the freedom from want, but what a human being wants most is inner peace. The industrial physician's panacea for increasing production is freedom from illness, but mental and religious attitudes have so much to do with bodily health. There is however one freedom which covers all other freedoms—freedom from self. The Mahatma succeeded with the industrial worker of Ahmedabad, because he taught him to strive for the freedom. He needed lieutenants for his work. He looked for only one qualification in them. They must be reformers who want to reform themselves before others. He placed before them a higher philosophy of life, a religious creed of truth, non-violence and service, and he succeeded because he lived it in his own life with them and for them.

The East dreams, the West acts; the East is passive and other-worldly, the West is dynamic and practical. Such are the slogans which a type of occidental thought developed through objective methods of experimental science fling against oriental philosophies of subjective methods. Upto a point there is truth in the slogans, but there is fallacy too. What motivates each end is the search for happiness in life on this **earth** and not in any other life elsewhere, and

one of the main instruments of research the oriental mind uses is meditation. But meditation is not an end in itself. It is an attempt at integration of mind and its functions in order to evolve action on a higher plane and of a higher type to make life fuller and richer with a more lasting happiness, freed from the fears, frustrations and maladjustments of modern civilization based on a hedonistic philosophy of life.

Nor is meditation the only instrument of oriental research for attainment of happiness. There are at least four such main ones, and they are adapted to the different natures and temperaments of men. Any one or combination of them can lead a person to attain his natural goal of happiness in this world, and the instruments that Mahatma Gandhi used whereby he achieved so much from so little, are Karma-Yoga,—realisation through work and duty, and Bhakti-Yoga,—realisation through devotion and prayer. He woke up a vegetating mass of humanity into action by placing before it a religious ideal to live and die for. He gave the industrial worker of Ahmedabad inner peace if not material prosperity. This worker is an exact prototype of the industrial worker anywhere else in India,—illiterate and ignorant, eating the same unbalanced diet, and living in unhealthy slums. But all the same he is imbued (thanks to Mahatma Gandhi) with a bit more of the spiritual idealism, the abiding heritage of his land. Whereas most of the trade unions of the land have a shifting membership and a changing leadership torn with party politics and personal jealousies, the Ahmedabad Textile Union is steady and progressive with a religious concern for amelioration of the condition of its members. To-day illegal strikes are the order of the day all over the country, but they are an unknown quantity to this union. Its members have given up liquors and it is not often that they quarrel

with their employers; and when they do fight, they do so non-violently, and to teach their employers a bit of religion; and once started there is no going back and there are no blacklegs.

The West has its own methods of experimental science, and the East cannot help admiring, appreciating and even imitating them, for amongst the four main paths advocated by oriental philosophy for realising a man's own divinity, one is "Gnyana-Yoga",—realisation through knowledge. But what confounds the East is the absence in the western methods of any serious attempt at an approach to the concept of the wholeness of life. The four main paths of oriental research are known as Yogas and Yogas mean methods of union. So when science picks up a particular function of the body or of the mind and studies it apart from all the rest, oriental thought trained to look out for unity amongst diversity cannot help asking, to what purpose? to what end? Nor can it help concluding that science divorced from religion is humanity mortgaged to Satan. The last world war is proof thereof, and the growing fear of an approaching third war is another.

Science dissects and interdissects and has now reached the stage of splitting the atom. The bewildered oriental mind wonders how long it will take them to split up the world in six tiny atoms as to make it unfit for human habitation. But when we read of achievements of their industrial nurse we feel reassured that she will not allow any such devilish development of science. Her religion, not of her birth or her rituals, but the religion she lives daily in her work-a-day life and imparts to others is mightier than their science.

A sick workman is a piece of humanity broken into bits. The physician picks up

one to study it under his stethoscope, the bacteriologist wants another for his microscope, the psychologist a third one and so on. And each of them brings his own particular knowledge to bear on the particular bit, and draws particular inferences from it, sometimes right, sometimes wrong. But in the end it is the nurse who gathers up the various bits and reconstructs a whole from them with the virtue of her motherhood and the alchemy of her smile. While scientists keep busy sharpening their intellects in this or that particular direction the nurse enlarges her heart to include in it the whole of humanity.

McGrath has said in her book "Nursing in Commerce and Industry" that industry needs a superior nurse. It is better if she had used the word religious in place of superior, for only such a nurse as lives religion in her life can be a superior one. I cite an experience.

We are responsible for the running of two creches. The matron of one is a qualified intellectual type well up in English, and of the other an unqualified religious type hardly knowing any English worth the name. Last year an American professor started in Bombay a training class for women in child guidance clinics. Though the lectures were to be given in English we were yet anxious that the unqualified matron join the class, as we felt that she was more likely to capture the spirit of the training, through the practical work if not the lectures. She herself was suffering from an inferiority complex and brought up half-a-dozen excuses, but she was overruled and practically coerced into joining the class. The professor was kind enough at our request to supply her with case-taking forms in her own mother-tongue. Within a fortnight it was reported that she was one of the best pupils of the class, and to-day we

find that there is far more cheerfulness in between the staff and the children.

It is acknowledged all over the industrial world that the most successful leader of the safety first movement in industry is not one who has the highest scientific training, but one who can best impart to others the divinity within himself, and thus bring out from them their own.

Psychotherapy is a creditable advance western science has made in treatment of psychogenic neurotic conditions. But it does not go as far as it should and never will unless it is supplemented by a sound philosophy of life. Merely to relieve the pain of a mental conflict through release of emotional tension is like relieving renal colic with an opiate. It does not cure the disease permanently. For this the colic needs a surgical operation and the change in diet and other daily routines, and the mental conflict integration of the mind and its functions, and a new orientation on the meaning of life. That however is only possible by replacing the philosophy of hedonism with something higher. Swami Akhilananda in his book "Hindu Psychology" has said "the real removal of the disease can only take place when psychiatry and religion in the broadest sense of the term, amalgamate, co-operate, and co-ordinate properly."

Mere absence of illness or release of emotional tension is not positive health. To realise a true concept of positive health of an industrial worker the physician has to supplement curative first aid with industrial hygiene, and the psychologist has to practise psychotherapy in a religious background. The West has achieved wonderful progress in industrial hygiene. The East has much to learn from the West for advancing industrial health on the physical plane. All the same it has a definite contribution to

make towards its progress on the mental plane.

The progress of science at the mechanical end of industries is simply marvellous. The disturbing element however is that side by side there is a great increase in the number of strikes all over the world. Evidently a purely mechanistic theory of life cannot advance human relations. For this some humanizing of the system is necessary. The need of the hour is increased production, —more goods, and still more goods, but 'people produce—not machines.' What is more important is the man behind the machine. It may be said to the credit of science that there is no mechanical problem it cannot tackle successfully, but it has yet to learn how to use its discoveries to advance the fundamentals of life. Hopeful signs are however visible on the horizon of the post-war era. It was exactly through the objective methods of scientific investigation that a psychologist like Henry Link staged "The Return to Religion." Such a happy transformation is now apparent in several other directions too. Manufacturers of machines are now more and more for incorporating humanics in the designs and techniques of their machines, and the recent trend of colour-conditioning machines is a laudable move in the right direction. Manufacturers are realising more and more that human nature is subject to moods when what is wrong

appears as right, and are more and more particular to devise guards on machines that will protect a worker against such evil moods also. This is the only way to solve successfully the burning and most taxing problem of industry to-day—strained management-labour relations. Human relation can only improve through fusion of science with religion, and it is most natural that such a fusion takes place at the industrial medicine end.

The literature of industrial medicine is replete with thoughts on morale, motivation, supervision, group psychology, human factor management-labour relations, *etc.* But they are all pawns on the chess-board of industrial medicine which move to the dictates of ancient and eternal verities of life like 'do unto others as you would have them do unto you.' Modern industrial psychology lends support to this view. This science is more and more for proving the ultimate goodness of human nature, and that co-operation, not conflict, is its inner aim, and through upholding the true fundamentals of life, it makes a very near approach to Swami Vivekananda's definition of religion, —as "manifestation of the divinity that is already in man." Truly industrial medicine is religion rediscovered by science, or, at least, should be.

—By **H. P. Dastur**, from *The Journal of the Indian Medical Association*, Vol. XVIII, No. 8, May, 1949.