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An
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Weekly.

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(DEVOTED TO ECONOMIC AND WELFARE PROBLEMS)

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HEALTH.

WHAT IS SLEEP?

"Blessings on him that first invented sleep. It wraps a man all round like a cloak." Thus the rustic mind of Sancho describes that great restorer and physician of nature which is as old as the world itself and which no system of medicine, eastern or western, can claim to have solely invented, but an immortal English poet defines it as follows:—

Sleep that knits the ravelled sleeve of care,

The death of each day's life, sore labour's bath.

Balm of hurt minds, great nature's second self,

Chief nourisher of life's feast.

Philip Sydney speaks of sleep as "The poor man's wealth, the prisoner's release," and Dryden pronounces it to be:

Of all the powers the best,

Of peace of mind, repairer of decay

Whose balms renew the limbs to labours of the day.

Of the nature and mystery of sleep we know very little beyond the fact:—

"To those who are awake there is one world in common, but of those who are asleep, each is withdrawn into a private world of his own."

Whatever bards might sing or science might descant, the simple man, and woman, too, for that matter, knows sleep to be a period of perfect oblivion in

and in all countries to put this courteous question, evincing thereby your interest in his welfare over and above all other material wants and wishes. You see your friend approaching you down the street. He may have had a domestic quarrel; one of his sons may have been rebellious; he may have lost his situation and may be at wits end how to make his slender ends meet, nevertheless he replies "I am well—Thank you"—Thereby he means that so far as his physical health is concerned he is comparatively well.

The above question and answer plainly prove that a question which ought to be large and comprehensive, has been narrowed down by custom, to an enquiry to one particular thing—*health*—It is apparent thereby that each is obsessed by the state of his health. We are conscious that many people are often worried to the extent of brooding over their health in preference to other so many worldly possessions. Health with many is the foremost item for joy. Not that they love other things less, but they love health more. An unwell man usually bursts out with woes about a yard long about his health, when one puts the same question.

I am seriously inclined to think if it would be possible to put a taboo on this conventional enquiry, without jeopardizing our innate solicitude for friends and units of society as a whole. If such a reprieve is taken up, the society would feel that social life is possible at large.

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HOW DO YOU DO OR HOW GOES?

The first question we put to a friend, after the handshake or greeting or *Namaskaram* is usually the above, evincing a significant interest in his general health in particular, in preference to his other wants. It is customary in all ages, in all nations,

the stigma that the present generation is puny in comparison with the past, but the fact that we all over-eat, in spite of the castigation is indisputable. The present civilization creates endless new wants in our every day wants, much more so in our daily menu, either herbivora or carnivora. The uncouth and gruesome menu given by this over accumulation, is a familiar sight to us. People quietly carry a stone weight of fatty tissue in their body extra without a grudge, when they will bubble with indignation when asked to convey the same weight in their hands for a furlong. It is much more interesting to observe that they carry the encumbering weight on the very region which should have the fullest freedom for its endless task. We generally see all over the world so-called successful, sagacious and vivacious adult men, and even women to a less degree engaged in this preposterous piece of folly or blunder. When the last straw to break the camel's back is added, no wonder, the tract is enervated, and finally throws the towel into the ring.

The alimentary tract is thus the lair and rendezvous and centre of all evils in the human system and when we take the trouble and care to keep it in tissue and working order, needless to say, many of man's preventible disorders would wane and vanish, and create a vast numerical reduction in the number of hypochondriacs, who, though useful to society at large,

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MILK.

Milk is the natural secretion of the adult female mammal, intended for its newly born offspring. Milk contains all the constituents needed for the entire nutriment of a young growing animal. It is almost an universal article of human food all over the world. Milk is an ideal diet for children, sick and convalescent, hence it is essential that it should be supplied and consumed in a wholesome state, free from dirt and the germs of disease. It should be remembered that milk is also an ideal

medium for the growth of various disease producing bacteria, which when once introduced into the milk, grow and multiply abundantly; hence the supply of sterile and clean milk is one of the essentials for the welfare of community. Milk is likely to convey disease, directly when it is polluted e.g. Tuberculosis and indirectly when it is adulterated e.g. Cholera. Adulteration of milk with water may affect health directly as well as indirectly. The water used for adulteration is usually impure, and unfit for drinking purposes. It is often drawn from insanitary wells near cowsheds. The water from such wells is usually loaded with disease producing germs and is polluted with sewage.

The conclusion arrived at after analysing thousands of samples of milk is that, in India, between 80 to 90% of milk samples are adulterated with water, and about 90% are contaminated with microbes.

It is a well-known fact that in India the mortality among children under one year is extremely high. In 1911 out of 4,752,152 male children and 4,457,550 female children born in India, 1,016,823 males and 873,677 females died. This enormous loss of life is of grave concern, and besides ignorance and neglect, the supply of bad milk is one of the main causes of such high mortality.

BACTERIA IN MILK.

Milk as secreted by a healthy animal, is a sterile fluid. It may be contaminated in various ways between the udder to the consumer. The sources by which bacteria gain access to the milk may be:

1. Intra-Mammary.

Bacteria may enter the lactiferous ducts from outside, owing to infection of the udder.

2. During milking process.

(a) In India, the calf is usually allowed to suck the udder, before drawing off milk for human consumption.

(b) Hairs, udders and teats of unwashed animals.

(c) The dirty hands, and clothes of the milker.

(d) Insanitary habits of the milkman—coughing, sneezing, nose-blowing, etc.

(e) Dust and dirt of milk-shed.

(f) Any communicable disease e.g. Tuberculosis of the milkman.

3. From Milk utensils

(a) Milk vessels when improperly cleaned, form a grave source of contamination of milk.

(b) Faulty water supply, the water supply of the farm is very often faulty and polluted.

4. During transit and distribution.

(a) Dust and dirt from the crowded streets, gain access through imperfectly covered vessels.

(b) From the handful of hay, straw or green grass which is often used to cover the milk vessels.

(c) Adulteration with filthy water during transit.

(d) When exposed for sale in open lots and vessels in insanitary milkshops.

(e) Frequent handling of milk when measuring out to the consumer.

(f) Careless handling of milk by the consumer.

(g) House-fly. Houseflies are common carriers of disease and it is a common practice for them to feed from open milk vessels. The contamination from each source may be small, but taken together from various sources it may become serious.

DISEASES.

Among the disorders and diseases communicated by bad milk are cholera, typhoid, tuberculosis, diarrhoea and other gastro intestinal disturbances, diphtheria-rickets, sore-throat, and tonsillitis, scarlet fever and Malta-fever (goats milk only).

1. *Cholera*.—The infection of milk may be directly by a carrier, or through infected water added for adulteration, or by flies carrying cholera germs on their legs.

2. *Typhoid*.—Milk is a very important vehicle for the spread of enteric fever, and many epidemics have been proved to be due to infected milk. Carries generally cause spread of the disease.

3. *Tuberculosis*.

Tubercle bacilli may get into the milk in the following ways.

1. Directly from an animal having the tuberculosis of the udder.

2. Indirectly from an animal, suffering from tuberculosis of the lung.

3. Milk from a healthy animal may get mixed with that from tubercular animal.

4. Tubercle bacilli may get into the milk in various ways from persons suffering from the disease.

4. Poisoning.

1. Milk may absorb metallic poisons from the milk vessels.

2. The production of poisonous substances in the milk by the action of bacteria.

3. Milk may acquire poisonous properties as a result of disease in the mother.

REMEDIAL MEASURES.

Housing of milch cattle—cowsheds should always be situated in a healthy spot outside the city within a convenient distance from it. They should be sufficiently lighted. Some recommend 3 square feet of light space per cow and about 50 square feet of floor space per cow. The floor should be of some impervious material, such as cement or concrete, with a gentle slope towards a manure channel. The walls of the stables should be cemented up to a height of 5 feet at least.

The water supply should be pure, abundant and easily accessible.

THE PROCESS OF MILKING.

Scrupulous attention should be paid to minute details and the utmost cleanliness should be observed with regard to the place at which milking is carried out and the animals, the person, the clothing of the milker and the milk utensils.

The animal must be free from disease. It should be washed and cleaned

thoroughly, and all the dirt should be removed from flanks and udders.

Only healthy persons should be allowed to milk the animal. The man should be intelligent, clean and trained in milking. The hands and forearms should be washed with soap and water. The clothing of the milker must always be clean. The fingers must be kept away from the mouth and the nose, if the milker has to sneeze, cough or spit.

The milk vessels should be so constructed that it should reduce to a minimum the amount of dust, dirt and hairs that might fall into it during the process of milking. The opening at the top should be large enough to allow a thorough cleaning. The vessel should always be cleaned with boiling water before use.

The first three or four streams from each teat should be discarded as they may contain bacteria. After milking, the milk should not be strained through muslin, as is a common practice. It is unnecessary and injurious.

The milk-vendor should not be allowed to put his fingers in the milk, while measuring.

The care of the milk by the consumer himself in the house is also very essential. The vessel used for the milk should be tinned frequently, and thoroughly cleaned, with boiling water.

In short, the milk used should be genuine milk derived from a healthy animal, and so collected, distributed and consumed, that it should be free from objectionable pollution and free from infection of the various diseases. It is

genuine sample of clean milk, as this will save one from the various diseases already mentioned, and will reduce the child mortality.

CHILD WELFARE.

The babies are the wealth of the nation.

The welfare of the baby depends on the mother. In the United Provinces one-third of the babies born die in the first year of life, whereas in England the mortality is only 82 per 1,000.

Q.—What is the cause of this heavy mortality?

A.—The babies lose their lives through the ignorance of their parents and relations.

Q.—What do the present mothers do when confinement is near?

A.—(1) They select the darkest and the dirtiest room for the event, with a lot of furniture and rags lying about.

(2) Do all the heavy house-hold work.

(3) Eat and drink anything they get, even alcohol.

(4) They do not prepare any clothing or bedding either for themselves or the baby.

(5) They are attended by an untrained dhai, who has dirty clothes and dirty instruments.

Q.—What measures should be adopted to get a healthy baby.

A.—To start babies in the battle of life, strong in body and sound in mind, the mother must begin before birth and must keep her own health good.

The mother must prepare carefully for her confinement. Surely such an event is worthy of thought. She should—

(1) Select the best lighted and ventilated room in the house.

(2) Eat good and nourishing food.

(3) Take moderate exercise.

(4) Keep ready beforehand clean clothes and bedding both for herself and her baby, and a little cot for the baby.

(5) Arrange for soap, antiseptic lotion, clean clothes and a basin for the dhai. (6) Select the best dhai available and see that she has clean clothes, clean instruments, clean hands without rings and bangles. (7) When her house is not fit for confinement and there is a hospital in the town, she should follow the advice of the doctor and go to hospital without fear.

Babies born in hospital get a good start in life.

Q.—What should be done when baby is born?

A.—(1) See that baby's eyes and mouth are washed with clean boiled water. In America midwives are bound by Government order to drop into the baby's eyes 2 per cent. silver nitrate or 12½ per cent. argyrol to prevent the baby getting blind.

(2) Wash the baby's clothes and given nothing but the milk of the mother. Mother's milk is the best food for babies. For the first eight months a baby should get no other food. Begin to wean at 8 months and complete it at 10 months. Do not feed the baby every time it cries; feed it every four hours in the day, and at night time 2 feedings at 10 p. m. and 2 a.m. respectively for the first two months and one feeding till six months will suffice. Consumption sometimes makes it necessary to remove a baby from its nursing mother, otherwise there is no reason for stopping breast feeding. The breast fed baby is fifteen times as likely to live as the bottle fed baby.

Q.—What rules should be followed for bottle feeding?

A.—If the baby must be bottle fed, follow the same rules of regular hours for feeding as for the breast fed baby. The bottle must be round so that it can be easily cleaned. The milk must be obtained from a healthy cow or goat and drawn by clean hands and diluted according to the doctor's advice. Don't give the milk of an unhealthy cow or goat.

Q.—What further rules are to be observed?

A.—The baby should have a daily bath. The bath water should be warm, but not too hot. The baby must be carefully dried and dressed quickly. Babies should never be given pacifiers to suck, nor should they be given opium to send them to sleep. Both practices are very bad. The other bad practice is to rock too

much the baby in the cradle. This very often harms the baby.

It is the duty of the father to make it easy for his wife to carry out these instructions. He should take a personal interest in the health and welfare of his wife and babies and he will be rewarded by having fine and healthy offsprings.

FIVE THINGS TO REMEMBER.

(1) Feed the baby on the breast.

(2) Have a clean bright room for confinement.

(3) Get trained dhai.

(4) Hospital is the best place for confinement.

(5) Avoid heavy household work.

SUMMER DRINKS.

In warm weather, when we have it in this country, many people resort to refreshing drinks flavoured with orange, lemon, and lime juice, and there are some houses where it is the practice to serve all the year round, last thing at night, a lemon drink usually made with barley water. Moreover there is at least one famous club in London where lemon-barley water is always on tap. But all these are made at home. We have been asked by Dr. Harries of Aberystwyth for an analysis of such drinks, in order that medical men who prescribe them may know what they are recommending. All these fruits yield juices of one generic character—containing acids, sugars, and volatile oil or flavouring principle, together with mucilaginous and nitrogenous substances. The chief acid is citric, but malic acid may be present in smaller proportions. The sugars are cane sugar and invert sugar. The mucilaginous and nitrogenous substances have no individual qualities of a distinctive nature; they are related to the groups of which pectine and asparagine are types. The proportions of acid and sugar may vary in different specimens of the fruits, particularly in the orange; analytical tables do not, therefore, give a reliable indication of the composition of an untried fruit. For practical needs the fruits used may be classed as sour or sweet. The lemon with about 8 per cent. of citric acid, 1.5 per cent. of invert sugar, and 0.5 per cent. of cane sugar, represents the extreme of the sour kind, while the orange with about 1.5 per cent. of citric acid, 4 per cent. of invert sugar, and 5 per cent. of cane sugar, serves as a good example of the sweeter.

Intermediate proportions of these constituents produce corresponding degrees of sweetness or sourness, but in their domestic preparation cane sugar is often added. Fruit juices keep badly, for they have a tendency to grow prolific crops of moulds, and with the exception of lime juice are therefore not usually prepared for storage. They are usually made fresh in the domestic kitchen. Lemon drink can be prepared by paring two lemons into a jug, adding the juice (and a little sugar if desired) and pouring on a pint of boiling water. Most of the refreshing drinks sold in shops and booths are not described by the vendors as simple fruit juices. Lime

juice is, however, prepared for sale, and for it there is a considerable popular demand. Formerly it was usually preserved by the addition of salicylic acid, but the only preservatives now permitted are benzoic acid (600 parts per million), or sulphur dioxide (350 parts per million). By a regulation of the Board of Trade, lime juice must be carried for the crews of vessels making long voyages, to prevent scurvy. Valuable as these fruit juices are for the vitamins they contain, it hardly follows that they should be used by invalids on every occasion when a refreshing drink is desired; the orange, for instance, is believed to contain a principle, not hitherto isolated, which, it is said, tends to cause "biliousness."—Health.

MUSIC IN MEDICINE.

The physiologic effects of music, according to Grothe, are many. Metabolism is increased, and there is decreased and increased muscular energy. It produces a marked effect on the volume of the pulse and also on the blood pressure. Fatigue is noticeably reduced, and it will speed up work to such a degree that it will produce a copious flow of perspiration by the biochemical change of blood, it increases the product and the outpour of epinephrine, which play such an important part in the defensive mechanism of flight and fight. Singing controls the breath, and also the proper management of its mode of escape through the glottis, mouth and nose. The

opportunity to exercise and by thus expanding the lungs, singing is considered a good treatment for all convalescent lung cases. It aids convalescence after a long continued illness by producing an individual and collective sense of joy and well being, thereby promoting digestion, assimilation and nutrition. Physical exercise with music increases active blood supply, stimulates respiration through emotion, and at the same time relieves the brain of over-stimulation caused by mental disturbance. Through the muscular exercise, the cells of the brain that are fatigued through mental disturbances are relieved by diverting the increased blood course to the active organ. It will also prevent atrophy of the motor nerves and build up the muscles. If musical games are used, the patients have an opportunity to release all the activities of their ancestors; their every mood and movement is instinct with heredity. This surplus energy can be directed to have for its aim the education or re-education of the individual. The relation of music to medicine is also therapeutic for the mind. A patient listening to music can be relieved of pain, fear, terror, grief, rage and in its place there will initiate and energize joy, love, tenderness, mirth, martial spirit and rhythmic dance. By its effect a certain mood takes possession of him, his mind undergoes a change, of which sentiment is the first, followed by some definite thought. It will arouse such intense emotions that one long ill will have a different outlook on life, and will desire to live to get back to work, to play and be happy.—Occup. Therapy.

INFANT HYGIENE SERIES. TO THE EXPECTANT MOTHER— A FEW "DON'T'S"

DON'T be misled by old wives' tales about the dangers of pregnancy and confinement. Occasionally, when a mother has had a strange or unhappy experience during pregnancy, she fears the baby may have some bodily or mental defect as a result. If "marking," says the Massachusetts State Department of Health (than which there could be no more common sense tribunal), "were a possible thing, almost all babies would be defective, for there are few mothers who do not go through some distressing occurrence during pregnancy. Fortunately, marking is not possible. There is truth, however, in the fact that these months before birth give the child a health foundation that no care in after life can equal."

DON'T credit the popular notion that a "sick pregnancy results in an easy delivery." The carrying and bearing of a child is natural and this should be the healthiest and happiest time of a woman's life. A sick pregnancy is not a normal pregnancy, and needs special attention. "The true danger signals show in ample time: blurring of the sight or spots before the eyes; puffiness of the face, hands and feet; continual headaches; dizziness; neuralgic pains, especially in the pit of the stomach; nausea and heartburn; persistent vomiting—all are signals that something is wrong. A cough or cold should have attention. Bleeding from the vagina, however slight, is a danger signal. Frequent cardiac palpitations, of blood pressure and urine and know how to interpret danger signals, and who understands the principles of "biologic living," there is little to dread provided all symptoms out of the ordinary are at once reported. It is economy to choose a good doctor.

DON'T suppose that you must eat enough for two! This is a great mistake. The woman who eats enough for two during her pregnancy stores up too much fat and becomes ungainly in appearance. This is an unhealthy condition. Again follow a rational physician's advice on diet, proper exercise, nine hours' sleep, a mid-day rest, fresh air and outdoor life.

DON'T believe the fiction that you will "lose a tooth for every child." Go at once, on becoming pregnant to a good dentist, who understands diet and "preventive dentistry," and believe what he tells you! Visit him monthly, or when he tells you to come.

DON'T allow any state of mind to be yours except a cheerful and optimistic one. This is entirely possible, despite the "symptoms" that you might worry about—if you permitted yourself to. Nausea, to be sure, is a dampener upon one's spirits and not always easy to relieve, but there are a few simple things to do about nausea, in addition to your physician's expedients. Regular living is a preventive; abstinence from heavy meats, pastries and rich foods that are highly seasoned is another; eating a plain cracker before sitting up in bed in the morning is still another.

DON'T worry about neighbours' stories of difficult child-birth. Trust your doctors and nurse to take proper care of you. Perfect cleanliness helps to make child-birth safe. Nowadays doctors know the best way to make confinement easy as well as safe for mother and baby.—
Good Health.

THE CARE OF THE EYES

BY
A PHYSICIAN.

The eye is by far the most important and valuable organ in the body not directly concerned with life; it is the acme of civilisation. Without sight one is helpless.

For this reason alone one would think that everybody would take the greatest care of the eyes and allow no one but an experienced expert to deal with them in any way.

Yet this is far from being the case. Many people buy and use glasses, for example, in the most casual and haphazard way, and they will also apply lotions or eyedrops or ointments that may be completely unsuitable for the condition that should be treated, and in doing so cause considerable harm.

No one should attempt to treat the eyes who is not fully qualified by training and experience to do so, and to clear away a good deal of popular misunderstanding it should be generally known that these belong to two distinct but allied classes.

First, there are the ophthalmic surgeons, or eye-specialists. There are many of them, and they are to be found at the various eye hospitals, or consulted privately if you are well-to-do.

Secondly, there are the opticians. These supply glasses after testing the sight, and are now under a scheme which eye doctors fully approve of, specially trained and tested. But they will not treat disease of the eye. If you have that, they will send you to an eye specialist.

Ordinary doctors will treat minor diseases of the eye, but directly they detect a serious one off they send you to an eye specialist. This is the only safe way to deal with the eyes.

"GLASSES."

Now for a few practical hints. The eye is a camera, and in large numbers of people, even in children, the eye is of such a state that it cannot focus properly without assistance. You may be short-sighted in several different ways; only an expert can tell which it is. By skillful testing he can find out exactly which lens will correct the defect. If it is not corrected a number of symptoms will arise of which head-ache is the most prominent and unpleasant one, which are collectively called "eye-strain."

Only proper glasses will relieve this. Here I may mention the fact that at a certain age, usually about 45, the state of the eye begins to change and causes a need for glasses in most people. This is called "Old Sight."

PAIN IN THE EYES.

Pain in the eyes (or in one eye) is a symptom that should always lead you to consult your own doctor or an eye specialist.

specialist. The lesser diseases of the eyes do not cause pain. The common malady which causes a yellow discharge, and is known as conjunctivitis, causes a feeling of soreness or "grittiness," but not actual pain.

Actual pain usually means either an inflammation of the coloured part of the eye, and, worse still, an increase of the tension of the eye which is known as glaucoma.

Both are serious conditions, particularly the latter, which needs a prompt operation by a specialist to preserve the sight. If, with the pain, you see "halos" round objects you may know it is glaucoma.

In either disease irreparable harm may be done by using lotions for these are generally of an astringent nature, and for these diseases may be disastrous.

The only safe lotion to use without skilled advice is one of boric acid of the strength of 10 grains to the ounce of water. This cleanses and soothes the eyes and can do no harm.

DISCHARGE FROM THE EYES.

A yellow or matter discharge from the eyes means an inflammation either of the "whites" of the eyes or of the eyelids, and is called conjunctivitis.

As a rule a general practitioner will treat this; you should not treat it yourself.

Some cases of it are contagious, and the greatest care should be taken to avoid any of the discharge getting on your fingers or on the towel.

Some cases of it are very hard to cure, and it is occasionally caught from a public lavatory.

TOBACCO SIGHT OR SMOKERS'

As most people know, excessive smoking will sometimes cause eye disease. What it does it to create a general and progressive dimness of vision which may become very serious.

Cigarettes seem to be the most prolific cause, but the pipe and the cigar will do so, too.

One of our most famous statesmen has been afflicted in this way from cigar smoking. Of course, the cure or remedy is clear. Smoking must be given up.

"TINTED GLASSES."

The use of these has become quite popular during the last few years.

Some people's eyes are affected by the glare of the sun, especially at the seaside when there are white chalk cliffs, and for these tinted glasses are advisable.

But do not get too dark a pair or wear them except when necessary. By living in an atmosphere of subdued light the eyes may become incapable of bearing even ordinary sunlight.

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE EYE.

Lastly, a brief word on these. Never rub the eyes when you get a piece of grit or a fly in the eye.

Sneeze vigorously, inhale some smelling salts, and immerse the closed eye in a basin of cold water and open it under water.

You will generally succeed in getting it out. If you cannot and no skilled help is at hand do this.

Place a drop of castor oil, or salad oil within the eye.

It will always alleviate the irritation, and prevent harm till you can get assistance.—
Health and Strength.

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For God, Crown and Country.

WEALTH & WELFARE.

Lucknow, Friday, 23rd September, 1927.

NOTICE.

Owing to Dasara Holidays there will be no issue of "WEALTH & WELFARE" on 30th September 1927.

Ed. W. & W.

EDITORIAL.

CIVIL VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

The Civil Veterinary Department in the Presidency of Madras is becoming more useful every year and the work of the department during the year 1926-27 was satisfactory. The rate of development of the department does not allow for the opening of Veterinary Dispensaries more rapidly. More dispensaries had to be opened, but the wants of the department are not met by the supply of a sufficient number of graduates from the Veterinary College. Only 11 men have graduated from the college during this year. The college should be able to supply a larger number of graduates every year. The present rate of

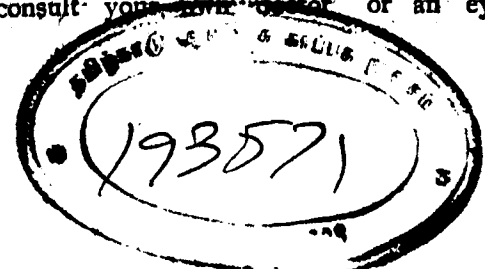
development is very slow and the cause of this is due to the reduction of the number of stipends from 40 to 15 in each class from the year 1923 in accordance with the recommendations of the Retrenchment Committee. Unless larger number of stipends are available, there will always be the insufficiency of graduates from the college to meet the wants of the department. The number of pathological and bacteriological specimens examined at the Madras Veterinary College has increased and the present staff is over-worked. Without increasing the strength of the staff adequately, it will not be possible to take up work of a research nature any further. Whenever outbreaks of contagious diseases occur, the dispensaries are closed in order that the Veterinary Assistant Surgeon in charge may attend out-breaks and this system has worked detrimentally on the number of patients treated in 14 Institutions. 34 touring Veterinary Assistant Surgeons have been attached to the Veterinary Institutions at their Headquarters. Each of these two touring Veterinary Assistant Surgeons is responsible for attending out-breaks, contagious diseases in specified Taluks and in the absence of out-break reports to assist the Veterinary Assistant Surgeon in charge of the Dispensary or Hospital to which they are attached. 54 touring Veterinary Assistant Surgeons are required to run camp dispensaries in important centres. The severity of rinder-pest, haemorrhagic, septicaemia and black-quarter warrant the immediate increase of the staff of the department. The strength of the Inspection Staff is very poor. There are 209 subordinate officers distributed over the Presidency and in charge of 82 veterinary institutions and the work of this staff is supervised by only 6 circle officers. There has been an increase in the mortality of cattle from contagious diseases and the mortality from black-quarter was unusually high. Several out-breaks were not attended to for want of staff. The Cattle Disease Act should be enforced in all the districts and compulsory inoculation should be resorted to in all the badly affected areas and those that refuse to submit their animals for inoculation should be compelled to inoculate. The animals intended for slaughter for food purpose should be inspected by Veterinary Assistant Surgeons. It is aching but an evidence of want of the sense of public duty to ignore the inspection of animals. The staff is inadequate for increasing the number of camp dispensaries. The village officers are slack in reporting out-breaks of contagious diseases and close check should be exercised by the Veterinary Staff on the work of village officers in regard to the proper maintenance of cattle mortality registers and the prompt reporting of outbreaks of cattle diseases. We would like to take this opportunity to bring to the notice of Government the under-staffed condition of this department.

CO-OPERATIVE SCHEMES FOR CATTLE BREEDING

Those who desire the welfare of cattle and of Indian villages may read the following note by Mr. Wm. Smith on the improvement of the cattle in a typical Indian village remote from a railway station, with say, 500 inhabitants and 50 to 100 adult cows and female buffaloes. This serves as a model scheme for those who know nothing about cattle-breeding or co-operative schemes. The chief thing is to make a beginning in the matter of the education of villagers in cattle improvement. Mr. Smith promises a double increase in the value of cattle and the yield of milk if the scheme is properly worked.

In a village of this class and size the total milk available after feeding calves would and should for some time to come be consumed in one form or another by the inhabitants of the village.

The whole of the cattle owners of the village should be formed into a co-operative cattle improvement society under the aegis of the Provincial Government Co-operative Department, each cattle owner taking shares in this society to the extent of say as. 4 per head of bovine stock of all ages belonging to him or her. This co-operative society should be controlled by a small executive committee of say 6 or 8 men elected by the shareholders on the principle of one member one vote. This



executive committee should elect a chairman, an honorary secretary and an honorary treasurer, the chairman being of course a member of the executive committee, but the honorary secretary and treasurer need not necessarily be members of the committee.

Such a society would be of little use, unless at the commencement of its career especially, it could obtain and be guided by expert advice in regard to finance, records, and technical cattle breeding, feeding and management, including cattle diseases. It should therefore be under the supervision of the local co-operative department as regards its organisation, finance, accounts, and audit, and it should be advised and assisted by the local agricultural and veterinary departments. All its records and accounts would be kept in the vernacular of the district. The work which this society would set out to do in the order of urgency would be:

1. Make a survey with record and all particulars of all the cattle in the village of all ages.

2. Arrange to have each bovine animal tattooed in the ear or branded with a number indicating the ownership of the animal.

3. Arrange with the assistance of the local agricultural department for the housing, feeding and supervision of one suitable stud bull for every fifty adult cows belonging to its members and further arrange to keep a careful record of the servings of each of these bulls.

4. Procure through the agency or with the approval of the local agricultural department suitable stud bulls as above, and issue public notice that they were available for service to members of the society free, and if considered desirable, to a limited number of non-members from outside areas at a fee.

5. Arrange with the local veterinary department for the castration of all male stock in the village with the exception of say one specially selected bull per 50 cows or buffaloes as a reserve for stud purposes. These reserve bulls to be purchased by the society from their owners, and housed and fed along with their stud bulls referred to in 4 above.

6. In consultation with the local agricultural department on co-operative basis of fodder sufficient for the cattle of all members including fodder reserves.

7. Inaugurate a milk recording scheme, whereby the milk yield of the best cows and buffaloes belonging to members of the society could be recorded and authenticated. To do this, the society could select the best milkers up to say half the total in milk, and by means of honorary workers of repute, have each cow so selected milked in their presence one day each week during the lactation period of the animal. The quantities so recorded would be taken as the average daily yield for that week, and by multiplying each figure by seven, the total lactation yield ascertained with fair accuracy.

In calculating the amount of capital required, it has been assumed that the local Government would supply suitable stud bulls for half cost as is done by the Punjab and other Governments. The society with the assistance of the local agricultural and veterinary departments and with its milk records as a guide decide as time went on, which males born to cattle owned by its members were to be castrated and which retained as stud bulls.

It is not necessary to take any specific steps to improve the quality of village buffaloes. India cannot afford to keep any class of bovine which does not possess dual purpose qualities, i. e., milk in the case of the female and draught in the case of the male. Generally speaking the male buffalo is unsuitable for field or cart work and consequently unless the males, except those required for stud purposes, are slaughtered at birth, they remain an incubus in the country. The majority of the people in India do not approve of the killing of any kind of animals, and in any case it is not an economic proposition to rear and kill these animals for beef, as the value of this class of meat in India is far below cost of production.

The buffalo exists and increases in India owing to the poor milking quality of the cows, and the aim of all cattle breeding propaganda ought to be to so increase the milk yielding capacity of all classes of cows, that they will not only provide sufficient

milk to rear a strong, healthy calf, but in addition to this give as much milk as would pay the cost of their feed. If and when we attain to this standard, there will be no need for the buffalo, which will be automatically eliminated by economic forces. The existing conditions prevailing in many parts of India today, where a cultivator keeps two or three cows to rear bullocks from, and one or two buffaloes to provide milk and ghee for his household, cannot continue, it is too costly, and there is no reason whatever why the cows now kept for breeding should not in the future rear their calves and provide in addition all the milk and ghee required by the household. Our cattle have little or no beef value, and we cannot afford to keep cows for draught cattle production and buffaloes for milk. The cows alone can and must do both duties. Buffalo owners in villages should be encouraged to join the co-operative cattle improvement society and to gradually substitute cows for buffaloes, as the milk yield of the former improved through careful breeding. Later on, when the society has to tackle the question of the disposal of the surplus milk of its members, it should of course deal with the milk of both cows and buffaloes.

There are a hundred and one other directions in which this society could and would extend its activities, but as it would have little or no income and merely exist for the benefit of the cattle owners of the village, it would require to raise capital on which it would pay no interest. No money need be spent on interest to share-holders, and the following is an estimate of the initial and recurring expenditure which such a society would be called upon to incur:

Initial (capital) expenditure

Say 2 stud bulls @ Rs. 175/- each (half cost)	Rs. 350
1 set tattooing instruments	90
1 reserve bull local	60
1 milk weighing machine for recording	150
Office furniture etc.	50

Total Rs. 700

Recurring expenditure per annum

Keep of three bulls for one year	Rs. 370
Rent of bull yard, say	60
" " room for office & committee	50
Contingencies & miscellaneous	50
Casualties & condemnations in live stock (replacement of bulls)	100
Medicines etc.	20
Interest on capital, say (to Bank)	50

Total Rs. 850

Estimated income per annum

By sale of manure	Rs. 40
By service fees from outsiders	10

Total Rs. 50

Deduct income Rs. 50.

Total yearly cost of working, Rs. 800.

The raising of the necessary capital should not be a difficult matter, as the central co-operative bank would probably advance the moderate sum indicated on the personal security of the members of the executive committee jointly and collectively.

To meet the yearly recurring expenditure, the society might ask the Agricultural or Co-operative Department of the local Government for a yearly grant equal to the amount which it would itself collect. This means that the society would require to raise Rs. 400 per annum. This would be done partly by asking for subscriptions from public-spirited citizens, and by collecting from its members a cess of say as 2 per bovine head per month. If there were 300 head of cattle all told in the village, this small cess would meet half the cost of running the society.

If a co-operative society were honestly worked on these lines the value of the cattle and the yield of milk could, I think, be doubled in three generations, say ten years.

INFANT AND CHILD MARRIAGE.

It is a normal feature of an ordinary Indian family to see that the marriage of girls at an age when they are children is a custom common among the Hindus. The marriage before the age of ten was most prevalent in Behar and Orissa, Bombay, Baroda, Central India Tract and Hyderabad. A custom of marriage performed of children even before they are born is on record. There is little evidence in the statistics to suggest that the practice of early marriages is rapidly dying out. The martial tie carries with it the conjugal right for the husband to the immediate society of the wife. A wife cannot refuse to live with her husband and the court always give a decree for the restitution of conjugal rights even if a child wife refuses to live with her husband. A warm climate favours precocity and girls in India develop at an earlier age than in more temperate climates.

The following table will show the total population and the number of married and widowed of each sex at different age periods:—

Age.	Persons.	Population.		Married.		Widowed.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
All	315,350,443	159,051,278	156,299,164	71,057,754	71,553,131	10,338,392	26,834,836
0-1	9,237,210	4,638,721	4,598,489	6,921	9,056	355	759
1-2	4,537,945	2,238,393	2,299,552	6,897	11,595	376	612
2-3	7,676,606	3,729,731	3,946,875	16,484	33,197	959	1,500
3-4	9,155,184	4,390,695	4,764,489	28,985	60,755	1,528	3,475
4-5	9,049,465	4,487,361	4,562,104	51,667	164,850	3,161	8,693
Total	38,656,410	19,493,801	20,171,409	110,684	318,463	6,461	15,139
5-10	46,747,388	23,846,133	22,901,255	707,405	2,016,687	40,679	102,293
10-15	36,741,892	20,171,326	16,570,566	2,344,056	6,330,207	109,364	279,124
15-20	26,144,890	13,648,824	12,496,066	4,077,400	9,635,340	198,976	517,898
20-25	36,056,102	19,563,822	16,492,280	7,086,937	11,840,926	422,723	956,517

The total number of girls married before ten is over 22 lakhs and of widows over 1 lakh 17 thousand. Though there is evidence to show that the age of marriage is increasing in the case of males, only in the most advanced classes is there any tendency for the age of marriage after puberty to increase. The following table will show the proportion of unmarried, married and widowed per thousand of each sex in India:—

Age.	Unmarried.		Married.		Widowed.	
	Males.—	Females.	Males.—	Females.	Males.—	Females.
0-5	994	988	6	11	—	1
5-10	966	907	32	88	2	5
10-15	879	601	116	382	5	17
15-20	687	188	298	771	15	41
20-25	403	51	564	877	34	72

In order to put a stop to the policy of early marriages, bills were introduced in the Legislative Assembly. Under the terms of section 375 of the Indian Penal Code, any person who has sexual intercourse with his wife under 13 years of age, is guilty of rape and is punishable with imprisonment which may extend to 10 years and also with fine. There is no meaning in allowing a man to assume by law the status of husband which carries with it certain rights to the society of the wife, and yet sending him to jail if he avails himself of those rights. It is the duty of the Health, Maternity and Child Welfare Organizations, the Hindu Sabha, the Arya Samaj, the general women's associations and other social bodies, to work incessantly till they see that the minimum marriageable age for girls and boys respectively are raised at least to 14 and 16 and the parent or guardian who violates law should be penalised. By laying down the minimum marriageable ages of boys and girls, their physical and moral deterioration will cease resulting in their physical and mental development. The source of untold misery and harm that exist at the present time on account of the social tyranny that exists over the child widows being prevented by Hindu custom and usage from remarriage, should disappear. According to the Brahmans, the most ancient laws of the Hindus lay down the minimum marriageable age of man as 24 and of woman 16. No Hindu Sastra enjoins the marriage of a girl before she attains puberty. The first step towards accomplishment of the social reform in the interest of a large part of humanity should be to enact a law declaring invalid the marriages of girls below 14.

ON THE LINE.

UNNECESSARY QUESTIONS IN THE COUNCILS?

The following question was raised recently in the Legislative Council by a member of the Medical Profession, which in our opinion, is unnecessary and could have been avoided on verification of facts by himself. We should have been glad in the interests of the Public Health that a Member of the Medical Profession should

have insisted on severe punishment being visited on such enemies of health by depriving them of their licenses.

One Purushottam Lal who carries on the business of preparing and selling sweetmeats at No. 218, China Bazaar Road, Madras was warned a number of times not to expose the sweets to the dust and flies as this act was likely to endanger public health. The warnings had no

effect. On the 5th February 1927 he was asked to show cause in person why he should not be prosecuted for the offence. He failed to appear but sent a letter on 14th February 1927 stating that he had complied with the terms of the notice. On 17th February 1927 when the place of business was inspected it was found that no glass case was provided and that the sweets were exposed as usual. In the

interest of public health, more effective action was necessary to put an end to the dangerous practice in which the vendor persisted. Therefore the prosecution was sanctioned on 23rd February 1927.

OUT OF REGULAR OFFICE HOURS.

"Some of the members of the Madura Ramnad Bar have sent a requisition to the Secretary of the Madura Bar Association for calling a special meeting of the Association to consider the grievances of the members of the Bar consequent on certain Courts to wit the District Munsiff's Court, Madura Town, sitting and holding Court daily beyond 5.30 p. m. and sometimes till 7 p. m."

The most important means of increasing efficiency, is to forbid officers absolutely to work either on holidays or out of regular office hours. One effective method of checking work out of office hours is to watch the expenditure on artificial light. Courts held late in the evening, and judges fuddling themselves with cases should be warned that there are a certain number of hours that the average man can profitably spend on his work and that if that number be exceeded both the quality and the quantity of the work turned out will decrease and not increase. If it can be proved that the officers cannot turn out the work required of them in the regulation hours daily after every possible measure has been taken to increase efficiency, the proper course after every possible measure has been taken to increase efficiency is to increase the number of Courts. To ignore this is to ignore the administration of the Court. That the officers should be sweated is still more discreditable. Instead of providing Tennis Courts and other means of healthy relaxation for the officers of the Court after the regular office hours, the presiding officers of Courts should be holding Courts regularly outside the regular office hours only go to ruin the health of not only the establishment of the Court but also to the public, the Bar and the Bench. We invite the attention of the government to this and early steps should be taken to forbid judges absolutely to work either on holidays or out of regular office hours, except occasionally on the ground of real urgency.

STATE HOSPITALS IN MADRAS.

The charges levied from patients who are admitted for treatment to the special wards of the State hospitals in Madras City are at present based upon the income of the patients. The scale of fees fixed on the above basis is given in rule 6 of the rules annexed to G.O. No. 399, Medical, dated 17th September 1917. In August 1926, the Surgeon-General pointed out that the existing method of calculating the charges to be levied from patients in these wards was unsatisfactory and he suggested that a committee should be appointed to examine the question. This suggestion was accepted by the Government and a Committee was appointed in G.O. No. 1886, P. H., dated 20th October 1926, to

examine and report on the question of revising the scale of charges levied for the treatment of patients in the special wards of the city State hospitals. The Committee has now submitted its report which contains the following recommendations:—

- (i) Charges for diet and nursing should be levied according to the nature of the accommodation provided, instead of according to the income of the patient;
- (ii) fees charged for medical advice and minor operations should be the same for every patient;
- (iii) charges for major operations and confinements should be levied on a sliding scale, patients occupying the better class of wards paying fees on a higher scale than those in the cheaper wards, the actual charge in the scale to be fixed by the Hospital Superintendent;
- (iv) Government servants should be exempt from the payment of fees for medical advice, operations or confinements. The Government approve the recommendations of the Committee. Rule 6 of the rules annexed to G.O. No. 399, Medical, dated 17th September 1917, is accordingly modified as follows:

Special wards.

- (a) The special wards will be classed as (i) single bed A class wards, (ii) two bed wards, (iii) three or four bed wards and (iv) single bed B class wards (Indian dietary).
- (b) The scale of charges for in-patients admitted to the special wards shall be as follows:

Class of special ward.	Diet and nursing.	Medical advice and minor operations.	Major operations or confinements.
Single bed A class ward	Rs. 10 per diem	Rs. 5 per diem	Rs. 100—50—300
Double bed wards	Rs. 7-8-0 per diem	Do.	Do.
Three or four bed wards	Rs. 5 per diem	Do.	Rs. 50—50—200
Single bed B class ward.	Do.	Do.	Do.

Note (i)—Government servants shall not be charged fees for (a) medical advice and minor operations, (b) major operations or confinements.

Note (ii)—The actual fee to be charged for major operations or confinements within the scales sanctioned above will be determined by the Superintendent of the hospital."

WELFARE WORK.

Dr. T. Madhava Pai M. B., B.S., Udipi South Canara, deserves richly the thanks of the poor and the public for the establishment of the Canara Medical and Surgical Institute at Udipi fully equipped with all up-to-date medical appliances, providing facility for every kind of operation and giving accommodation to inpatients in male and female wards. Nearly 30 months ago this Institute was started in a small room in the compound of Sree Ramakrishna buildings and with the co-operation and sympathy of the public a fine hospital has come into existence. This Doctor has succeeded in bringing out this private hospital in overcoming the prejudice of the public. He has shown that a private medical man can do as much, if not, more as an officer in charge of a hospital. He has trained nurses by holding classes for them and giving them monthly stipends. Our Chief Editor visited this Welfare Centre and the following are some of the main departments in the hospital.

1. **Eye Department.** In this section, Eyes are examined and any defect in eye-sight is found out and remedied. This department is well equipped with the latest Eye test case, Dark Room, Ophthalmoscope etc., and glasses are tested and fitted to the requirements of the patients. Operation is also undertaken whenever necessary.

2. **Dental Department.** In this section, all kinds of Dental works are undertaken such as painless extraction, stuffing, cleaning etc. No pains are spared to make known to the patients the importance of having good and clean teeth.

3. **Injection Department.** This Department undertakes to do all sorts of injection work under careful supervision and in strict accordance with hygienic rules.

4. **Observation Department.** In some cases where the disease could not be detected, the patient is kept under observation till disease is detected and remedy found out.

In these days of jealousy and unnecessary troubles created in the way of the poor public workers, Dr. Madhava Pai has withstood the early stage of troubles and has come out successful so far in establishing this Institution. A sanatorium in Park, three miles off Udipi, an excellent hill is proposed to be established by this young doctor. We trust the public and the District Board of South Canara will help this doctor in establishing the sanatorium to fight the fell disease of consumption. We wish the young doctor and his Institution every success.

INDUSTRIAL ALCOHOL.

Dr. Gilbert Fowler of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, thinks that there are possibilities of producing Industrial Alcohol as a form of fuel in unlimited quantities in India. There are no factories in the Presidency of Madras producing industrial alcohol on a commercial scale, but Messrs. Parry and Co. are able to manufacture power alcohol in their distilleries and can produce it at any moment on a commercial scale. The Government of Madras state that the possibility of producing power alcohol was investigated by the Industries Department in the year 1920, but as it was considered doubtful whether it would pay to establish a factory for the purpose until such time as the demand for petrol exceeds the supply and the necessity for a substitute for it is felt, the matter was not pursued further, though some information was collected in regard to the availability of the requisite raw materials. The Government further understand that the cost of running internal combustion engines on power alcohol compares unfavourably with the cost of running them with kerosine or petrol at their present prices. A representation was made by several inhabitants of South Kanara in 1926 in which a request was made for the establishment of distilleries for the manufacture of industrial alcohol, among others, such as the manufacture of liquor and by-products. The petitioners were advised to approach the Collector of South Kanara and the Commissioner of Ennis.

The Christian Civil League made a further representation on the subject on the ground of encouragement of a national industry instead of India depending for the sufficiency of industrial alcohol on foreign imports. The Government say that they have not laid down any policy with regard to this question,

though the public think—and there is sufficient room to think so—that there is a sufficient quantity in the local market of such product imported from Great Britain or any foreign country which is a bar to the favourable consideration of such an application from any. Whatever may be the cost, is it not the duty of any Local Government—especially on the face of their admission that Messrs. Parry and Co., can and are able to manufacture power alcohol at any moment on a commercial scale to try the experiment themselves departmentally or enable Messrs. Parry and Co. at least to try the experiment and confine the supply to a limited area as an experimental measure so that Indians may be encouraged to manufacture this on a large scale everywhere. We quite agree with the Government that it is not possible for them to give their serious consideration to this subject since they have no Director of Industries worth the name. The Director of Industries is always a person with no qualification except being a man hunting after bigger appointments and this post is reserved in Madras as a half-way house to exploit higher appointments in the Government of India. Facilities are provided for such officers by being nominated to the Assembly or the Council of State. We thought that the Government of the United Provinces alone had the monopoly in the matter of nominating the Registrar of Co-operative Societies to the Council of State and now Madras is competing with U. P. Still we talk of Reforms and initiative in industries. We have an Indian Minister, Indian Secretary and Indian Director in charge of the Industries which is one of the subjects in Development Department. We wonder if any development is possible under the existing circumstances in Madras with such a mentality. Is it not the duty of the Indian Minister to press this matter before

His Excellency who is sure to take a very sympathetic view in favour of developing the Indian Industries. Have not the Mysore Government started under the guidance of the able Dewans before the Bhadravathi Iron works and inspire of the hired agents to oppose the development does not this Industry thrive with prospects of successfully competing with foreign manufactures in course of time? It is high time that the Government of Madras should explore sincerely the possibilities of production in the Presidency of Madras of Industrial alcohol. Perhaps when the people have an undertaking that the monopoly will be with Messrs. Parry and Co. for hundred years to come, the possibility will be within sight!!

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

The Government of Madras in the Development Department appointed a Special Officer in April 1927 with an establishment of a clerk and two peons to make a survey of the Cottage Industries in the Presidency. He has made a tour for 78 days up to the beginning of August 27 and visited Cuddapah and Bellary Districts. His Report on this work in Cuddapah is before us for review. We must congratulate the Development Minister on the speed with which this report has been brought out. We except the same amount of attention given for other subjects in his Departments. Our review of the Cuddapah Industrial Survey will be found elsewhere. May we know the name of the Officer that conducted the Survey since the Report was submitted and nothing more than 'I' about the personage as to who he is. Is it not known to the public whether the Officer is a competent man suited for the purpose? We are anxious now a days about this owing to extra sympathy flowing more for personages than for the cause of the country. Was not this the policy till a few years ago?

MISCELLANEOUS.

PEASANT PROPRIETORSHIP

BY

P. J. THOMAS,

Ceylon University College.

The term 'peasant proprietorship' seems to have a twofold significance. On the one hand, it is a distinct form of land tenure, and on the other it represents a system of farming.

The forms of land tenure vary from country to country, but we might broadly classify them into two categories. The first is the ownership of land in large blocks of hundreds of acres by those who do not cultivate it themselves but let it to tenants for a money rental or share of the produce. This obtains in Great Britain, parts of Germany and Italy and in North Eastern India. In the second type, land is owned in small strips by those who cultivate it mainly with their own labour. This is the prevailing form in Denmark, Holland, France, Belgium, Switzerland, and in the greater part of Germany, Italy, and India. The latter is of course the system of peasant proprietorship.

As already mentioned, peasant proprietorship also signifies a system of cultivation or land-utilization. The unit of agriculture may be a large farm as in England or a small holding as in France. The French term *la petite culture* has come into currency to represent the latter. The distinction between the two is, on the one hand, as to the size of the holding, and on the other as to the objects and methods of cultivation. An English farm, for instance, is usually of 100 to 500 acres and is cultivated on a capitalistic basis with the help of borrowed capital and hired labour. The best example of *la petite culture* is the French peasant holding of 1 to 20 acres (sometimes even more) cultivated by a peasant family with hardly any labour. The peasant tills for subsistence and seldom for profit. A small holding may be a proprietary holding as in France or a tenancy holding as in Ireland. All small holdings are not cultivated by peasant proprietors, but the peasant proprietor invariably cultivates a small holding. In the present lecture we shall discuss the merits and defects of

small holdings in general, and peasant proprietorship in particular.

In England the great bulk of land is cultivated by tenants who have no proprietary rights in their farms. Only a bare 13 per cent. of the land there is cultivated by the owners themselves. But on the continent, very different conditions prevail. In Denmark nearly 88 per cent. of the land is cultivated by the owners themselves, and in Germany 86 per cent. One-half of France and one-third of Belgium come also under the same category. In France and Belgium, the percentage of small holdings is higher than indicated by these figures, for many of the small holders are tenants occupying the land on various forms of permanent tenure. Taking the small holding to be below 50 acres, we find according to recent statistics that 95 per cent. of the land in Denmark and Belgium, 92 per cent. in Germany and 90 per cent. in France and Holland come under this category. Even in England more than half the holdings are below 50 acres.

In all these countries the peasant proprietary arose and flourished by various favourable circumstances. In the feudal days of old, most of the land in Europe belonged to the Barons, and the tenants who cultivated the land were merely serfs on the landlord's estate. But gradually under various influences, these serfs became free tenants enjoying some security of tenure, and in the last 100 years, law has emancipated them and has given them full proprietary rights or semi-proprietary rights over their holdings. In Denmark the peasant proprietary were freed by the legislation of the middle of the last century; and the absorption of peasant properties is now forbidden by law. In France the revolution of 1789 made the peasants real owners of their land which had formerly been burdened by feudal dues; and later much public land was converted into peasant holdings by state activity. Such was the case also in Germany, Switzerland and Ireland, where to-day peasant holdings are numerous and prosperous. Ireland suffered for long by insecurity of tenure, but by a succession of land laws culminating in that of 1903, tenancies were converted into ownerships, and to-day few countries can boast of a more prosperous peasantry than Ireland, thanks to the unremitting labours of patriots like Sir Horace Plunkett.

England is the chief exception to this process of evolution. In that country, feudal tenure lost ground earlier than elsewhere; there were more free tenants and yeomen in the England of the 14th and 15th centuries than in most other countries of the time; but the trend of agricultural development in England was such that the yeomenry lost ground and the ownership of land came to be concentrated in the hands of a comparatively few 'gentle' families. This was the result of the revolutionary agrarian changes of two successive periods in English history. In the 15th and 16th centuries, the rising price of wool made sheep farming profitable, and, induced by private gain, many land-owners (of the South-Eastern countries) ousted their tenants from their hereditary holdings and enclosed their broad domains for sheep farming. The suppression of the monasteries also aggravated this agrarian grievance, but much land still remained for the free tenant and yeoman. In the 18th century another revolutionary change took place in agriculture—this time in corn growing. Great improvements were made in the methods of tilling and cattle breeding, and the gentlemen land-owners of the time of "Farmer" George (King George III) vied with one another in the improvement of their estates and the better breeding of cattle and poultry. The enclosure of land was necessary for effecting these improvements and this implied the breaking up of old tenancies and whole villages. Attracted by the social and political status attaching to land-owning, and not less by the handsome return to capital investment on land, many ambitious London merchant also bought up vast estates in the country and sent away the tenants hitherto maintained on them. The peasant proprietors

were in a position of disadvantage. They had neither the knowledge nor the enterprise needed for the new style of farming. Sorely tried by the loss of income from spinning which was their cottage industry until the 'Jenny' robbed it from them, the peasantry gave up the fight, and, selling their proprietary rights for a nominal price, many of them turned agricultural labourers, or migrated to the newly rising manufacturing towns of the north of England. Whole villages were thus abandoned and the "rotten boroughs" increased in numbers. As the contemporary poet has put it, with the accumulation of wealth men decayed. This was the cause of the depopulation of the English countryside which, to foreign eyes, at any rate is the most striking feature of rural England. Thus disappeared the yeoman who once was the glory of Merrie England, and this change had great social and political results. The economic result, however, was not so disappointing. Agriculture gained in efficiency, and what is more, the displaced peasants found profitable labour in the rising industries of cotton and iron, which in time made Britain the factory of the world.

In the last fifty years, responsible public men in England have awakened to the needs of rural reconstruction and a series of measures have been pushed through with a view to giving facilities for the increase of small holdings in the country. Moralists as well as social reformers urged the need of preventing rural depopulation and attracting the proletariat back to the countryside. It was recognised by all that small holdings were as much necessary for the prosperity of the country as large farms. Changes in the nature of agriculture also backed up this movement. During the middle of the last century revolutionary changes were made in the methods of land and sea transport and enabled the importation into Europe of cheap corn from the Canadian Prairies and from Argentina. Similarly, chemical improvements in the methods of storing meat and fruit enabled chilled meat and iced fruit from far off countries to be brought to Europe. The influx of cheap wheat, meat and fruit naturally harmed the agricultural industry in Britain. However, other fields remained for the English farmer. If his wheat was not wanted he could at least produce the milk and vegetables needed for the country. Many farms, therefore, gave up corn growing and took to dairy farming, vegetable growing and poultry keeping. For such work the small holding is easily adaptable as we will see, for little machinery is employed and personal supervision is most important.

Under these influences, there is now a distinct movement towards small holdings in Great Britain. Some of them have grown up spontaneously as colonies, e.g., the Cheshire dairy farmers, who according to a recent commission report "live in perfect little paradises with handsome little income". Others are due to Co-operative Societies, e.g., Cudworth in Surrey, Rew Farm, etc. They were all opened on landlords' estates, the society guaranteeing the rent. The greatest influence, however, was that exerted by Government.

Many commissions sat on the subject and the whole matter was thrashed out by experts of all kinds. As a result, legislation has followed. The Small Holdings Act of 1893 empowered County Councils to open small holdings. This was supplemented by the Act of 1908 which facilitated the work of opening small holdings and provided for the supervision of the Local Authority's work by the Central Board of Agriculture. After the war, ex-service men were settled in small holdings at Government expense (Act of 1919). Just now a bill is before Parliament for re-organising the system and for enabling small holders to get a cottage as well as land. It is also proposed to encourage ownership by giving proper inducements to it. The tendency is on the whole, for greater control by Government. The late Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries (Mr. E. F. L. Wood, now Lord Irwin) has expressed his view, that in the course of the next thirty or forty years England might find itself within measurable distance of something like the nationalisation of land. Government control is inevitable, because those who open small holdings and finance them are entitled to control them.

We will now analyse the merits and defects of peasant proprietorship. Various aspects of it will be considered in turn.

The most striking feature of peasant proprietorship is the private ownership of land. It is a well-known saying of Arthur Young that "the magic of private property turns sand into gold." Give an industrious man ownership of even a barren plot of land, and he will by hard unceasing work make it fertile and productive, for fertility of land is to a great extent due to man's efforts. He feels that every inch of his land is his and that whatever improvements he makes will be reaped by himself or his offspring, and this psychological fact works wonders. As J. S. Mill has emphasised, family affection is here below the chief incentive to industry. Such results may not follow from short period tenancies, because the tenant will not feel that the land is his. Life-tenancy is better and to many people it is as good as ownership.

Ownership is not wholly beneficial in results. It enables the peasant to get into debt and leads finally to the alienation of his land. Privately owned land is again sub-divided between the children of the peasant and thereby excessive fragmentation of holdings takes place. Ownership, again, makes the peasantry stick to their small plots of land like limpets on rock, and this tends to make society unprogressive. On these grounds it is often thought that life tenancies and other forms of occupancy are more economically profitable than complete ownership.

Should the small holdings newly opened be on a tenancy basis or an ownership basis, is a question which has been much discussed by economists and statesmen. Much has been said on either side, but, to my mind, it depends chiefly on the nature of the farming. If the tilling is such that permanent improvements do not count and the size of the annual crop depends entirely or chiefly upon the year's

about, we might say that tenancy would suit quite well. But in intensive culture of all kinds the incentive of ownership or at least long-period tenancy is essential for maximising the output from agriculture.

The strongest points that may be urged for peasant proprietorship are social and moral. As already mentioned the peasant proprietary are a source of stability to society and from the best barrier against revolutionary change. The rural folk are essentially conservative and are intensely attached to the soil, and they jealously keep up old customs and cling to ancient institutions. They do not change with every current of foreign influence, and are not easily cajoled into new fangled ways. The peasantry also supply the best soldiers and sailors in most countries. As the TIMES (of London), in a recent leading article, put it "From yeomen's sons came the creative energy which has carried England throughout the world and built up her dominions and colonies."*

The peasant is not merely the material back-bone of society; he fulfils a valuable moral function as well. The seething masses of the great cities have little moral stamina, but the country-side make up for the city's backslidings. I have seen peasant life in three leading countries in Europe and my experience is that the rural folk are religious, hospitable, patriotic, level-headed, and have a contempt for the shams of life. They are, along with those magnificent cathedrals and beautiful paintings, worthy remnants of the Christendom of old. United Christendom is no more, but rural Europe may by its moral force yet restore the harmony and beauty that once was Christendom. Salvation came from humble Galilee, and not from proud Jerusalem.

Perhaps the weakest point about peasant proprietorship is on the side of production. Modern agriculture is based on scientific methods, but the peasant has neither the capital nor the knowledge required to utilise the improved ideas and methods used at present. A large farm can profitably employ the latest methods and most up-to-date machinery and thus produce at a lower cost of production per unit. The small farm cannot afford to employ such large scale methods and hence could not hold its own against its better-off competitor.

There is much force in this argument. Modern industrial methods are such that only large units could employ up-to-date and efficient methods, and only by using efficient methods could production become profitable. In other words, farming has now become somewhat like a manufacturing industry.

However, there are various circumstances which minimise the advantages of the large unit in agriculture. In industry the growth of the unit may be accompanied by increasing returns, but in agriculture the niggardliness of nature inevitably brings on diminishing returns instead although improvements may for a time put off the tendency. The factors that lead to industries and thus make for the success of large scale operations are (1) an intensive division of labour due to standardization of processes, (2) possibility of concentrating

* The Times, (Daily) July 30, 1926.

production on one spot; (3) the profitable application of complex machinery and (4) transport facilities. In agriculture these factors have only a limited application. Agricultural operations cannot be reduced to routine, the work varying from season to season, and therefore standardization is not possible to any considerable extent. Besides, these operations are spread over a large area, and, as Prof. Fay says, a thousand acres of land surface cannot be piled up in a centralised factory. Machinery has therefore got only a limited application in agriculture, most of the processes being done by the hand. These are factors which restrict the advantages that a large farm possesses over a small holding. And this has been found true in practice. Some of the expert witnesses that appeared before the Selborne Committee in 1919 even argued that "the gross returns per acre increase in proportion as the size of the farm diminishes."† This may not be true of all countries and all types of farming.

It must be admitted, at any rate, that in certain kinds of agriculture, in which machinery has been extensively employed, as for example in arable farming, in Western Europe and North America, the large farm has the advantage. In ploughing, drilling, reaping, threshing and winnowing, machinery is now employed in wheat growing countries, and, as only large farms can purchase them, small holdings are at a disadvantage, especially where labour is scarce and wages high.

This cannot be said of other forms of farming e.g., milk production, vegetable growing, fruit farming and poultry keeping, wherein machinery plays a relatively small part and close personal supervision counts for much. In this field, at any rate, the small holding has succeeded and is bound to succeed.

In any kind of farming, the small man enjoys many advantages. He can take a personal interest in his farm and his eye is constantly on it. He leaves nothing to paid managers; there is no divided responsibility, no expensive book keeping. He could watch with infinite attention the varying wants of different pieces of earth and the varying healths of different heads of cattle. He will be able to detect in a single blighted leaf the approach of a disease, which, neglected for a day, may ruin a whole vineyard.

However, personal care cannot make up for the lack of capital and enterprise. The peasantry have less command over capital, and spend more for manure and seeds, than the large farmer, and they usually market their produce at less favourable terms than the latter. But the principle of co-operation has come to their rescue. Denmark and Ireland, among others, have demonstrated to the rest of the world how the small holders can by combined effort among themselves secure the advantages of large scale production and wholesale marketing, without losing their individuality and private initiative. Co-operative Credit Societies to-day enable the peasant to get his capital without resorting to the usurious money-lender and to get it on easier terms and Supply

† Report of Agricultural Policy Sub-committee, (1920) p. 60.

Societies of various kinds bring to the peasant's door his manure and seeds and feeding stuffs at as reasonable prices as a large farmer can purchase them. In cases where machinery is essential, the small holder can now borrow them from his Co-op. Formerly the the peasants got lower prices for their produce, but now the Sale Societies enable them to stand together like a Kartel or Trust, and obtain the highest prices ruling in the market. Improved methods of cultivation and dairying are being demonstrated to the peasantry by the Co-operative Societies, and Government helps them by imparting agricultural instruction within easy reach and by opening demonstration farms and experimental stations. It is thus that the Danish peasant makes his butter and cheese with the efficiency of a large factory and the Rhenish *bauer* grows vine as profitable as his capitalist neighbour. The potato growers of Belgium are to-day marketing their produce at top prices and can easily outwit the middleman.

It must be admitted that, except in countries where Co-operative Societies have successfully worked, the lot of the peasantry is still a hard one. Owing to excessive sub division of property the holdings of the peasantry have become too small. In France and India, at any rate, the sub-division, or *morcellement* has gone to such lengths that land has been 'pulverized' or 'reduced to atoms' (*emiettement*). The peasants are proud of their properties; yet, in spite of their hard and incessant toils, they can hardly keep body and soul together. Their parsimony is such that most of them subsist on the

worst diet possible and live in their kitchens for economy—all this for rounding off their little holdings with some adjoining bit of land coveted by the family for generations. In these circumstances, it is no wonder that rural life becomes to some extent mean miserable, nasty, brutish and short. As Prof. Marshall remarks, "they sacrifice the end for the means". It is said that many of the paid farm labourers of England earn better incomes, eat better food and lead happier lives than the proprietary peasants of France. Such is the opinion of many travellers in France (e.g., Lady Verney), and even Economists like Marshall and Lord Ernle incline to this view. All Economists, however, do not agree "The so-called low style of living" (of French peasants), says Prof. Cannan, "is superior to that of day-labourers in many countries with large and hereditary estates." Such is also the view of Prof. Fay, who has studied the subject at close quarters. He says, "While it may be true that many French peasant proprietors are worse off than the average English farm labourer, it is no less true that some are better off; and it is certainly true that in countries like Denmark and Switzerland increasing returns in manufacturing the large majority are better off".

From the point of view of economic efficiency, therefore, peasant proprietorship has many drawbacks which cannot be easily rectified. Co-operation has done much to improve the lot of the peasantry, but co-

15th century, the continued flow of the ablest
and bravest farm lads to the towns." Nobody
in those days that population

In thinly populated countries where land is abundant and labour dear (e.g. Canada, Australia and New Zealand) there is no such pressing need for a peasant proprietary, and in fact these countries have not yet reared such a class. Small holdings thrive best where land is limited and population is growing.

Where small holdings are fostered by Government, it is necessary that it should take special precautions against excessive sub-division of holdings as also against their excessive consolidation. Both are evils to be avoided, if possible, by statutory enactment. Government will have also to decide as to whether ownership or tenancy will suit the needs of the kind of people for whom provision is being made. Above all Co-operative Societies for credit, supply and sale should be provided and placed on a secure basis for it would be futile to open small holdings without such institutions. There is no doubt that, on the whole, co-operation is the greatest hope of the peasantry in every country and in all circumstances.—*Indian Journal of Economics.*

BY MR. M. VENKATAKRISHNAYYA
AT THE 1ST ANNIVERSARY OF THE
ALL-INDIA POSTAL & R. M. S.
ASSOCIATION MYSORE BRANCH)
GENTLEMEN,

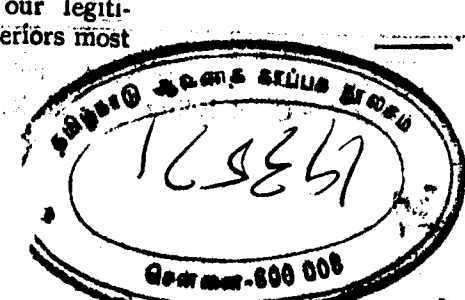
Whenever things go wrong we have to show our discontent. It is divine discontentment that works out our salvation. Wherever we are, we have to face evil forces. We cannot avoid them either in public or private life.

15

and obtain it is your duty. The British people at the top of the ladder are infinitely by noble constitutional institutions and it is your duty to make them constitutional if they are not so. There are various methods of doing so. Loyal and respectful prayers must be offered first, expression of divine discontentment and last increasing public opinion. All these are not necessary. By constitutional prayers alone you can attain Justice and Fair-play. But in order to get Justice and Fair-play, you must show a spirit of union. By a spirit of union, Ireland obtained its Freedom; by a spirit of union, England was compelled to acknowledge the Independence of the United States of America. If I were to relate to you triumphs of united action, even thousands of volumes would not suffice. Your Organisation extends all over India. You should obtain a name for discipline and solidarity. You must suppress all personal ambitions, if they in any way, run counter to the interests of the Union. None of you should try to satisfy private ambition at the expense of the Union. Those who steal a march over others in the pursuit of self-interest will both become weak. Spiritually people do not see this. You have to perform hard and exacting duties. If you indulge in communal bickering, your duties must necessarily become perfunctory. Perfunctorious leads to idleness. Idleness is surely the devil's workshop. There are 120,000 postal workers. This is a

I must have tired you by my garrulity. I do not enlarge upon the subject any further. I shall conclude this address by placing before you for your careful consideration what we should do to obtain justice and fair play. It is our duty to organise ourselves thoroughly; to establish co-operative stores; we must have our fund to help the widows and orphans as well as to meet the expenditure incidental to education, marriage, accidental deaths and unforeseen losses in our families. We must also place our legitimate grievances before our superiors most

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3. It should have not less than 62% of fatty (soapy) matter.
4. It should not contain excess of moisture.

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(a) BORAX SOAP (IMPORTED.)	47.3	26
(b) do. do.	46.0	27
(c) BORAX (Indian Make)	56.6	nil
(d) VEGETOL	62.0	nil
(e) KERALA ROSE	83 to 84	nil
(f) KERALA SANDALWOOD	83 to 84	nil

(a) and (b) are positively injurious to the skin. (d), (e) and (f) are the best.

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